Time to Act on Gender, Climate Change and Disaster Risk Reduction.

An overview of progress in the Pacific region with evidence from The Republic of Marshall Islands, Vanuatu and Sāmoa
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Raj Wati, Bilalevu Village - Raj Wati and her family relied on the income from their pawpaw farm near Sigatoka. The plants were destroyed in the cyclone or rafted from the flooding. Just days after Tropical Cyclone Winston, Raj was back at Sigatoka Market selling leftover eggplant, however, that will not last more than a week.

Photo: UN Women/Kasanita Isimeli

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## Acronyms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AR4:</td>
<td>Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change Fourth Assessment Report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BPfA:</td>
<td>Beijing Platform for Action</td>
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<tr>
<td>BUR:</td>
<td>Biennial Update Reports</td>
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<tr>
<td>CEDAW:</td>
<td>Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women</td>
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<tr>
<td>COP:</td>
<td>Conference of the Parties</td>
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<tr>
<td>CROP:</td>
<td>Council of Regional Organisations in the Pacific</td>
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<tr>
<td>CSO:</td>
<td>Civil Society Organisations</td>
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<tr>
<td>DAWN:</td>
<td>Development Alternatives with Women for a New Era</td>
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<tr>
<td>DRM:</td>
<td>Disaster Risk Management</td>
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<td>DRR:</td>
<td>Disaster Risk Reduction</td>
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<td>DWA:</td>
<td>Department of Women’s Affairs</td>
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<tr>
<td>ECOSOC:</td>
<td>United Nations Economic and Social Council</td>
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<tr>
<td>FRDP:</td>
<td>Framework for Resilient Development in the Pacific</td>
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<td>GBV:</td>
<td>Gender-based Violence</td>
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<td>GCF:</td>
<td>Green Climate Fund</td>
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<td>GEF:</td>
<td>Global Environment Facility</td>
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<tr>
<td>GRIP:</td>
<td>Global Risk Identification Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GIZ:</td>
<td>Deutsche Gesellschaft fuer Internationale Zusammenarbeit (German Federal Enterprise for International Cooperation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HFA:</td>
<td>Hyogo Framework for Action</td>
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<tr>
<td>IASC:</td>
<td>Inter-Agency Standing Committee</td>
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<tr>
<td>IFAD:</td>
<td>International Fund for Agricultural Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>IFC:</td>
<td>International Finance Corporation</td>
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<tr>
<td>IFRC:</td>
<td>International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies</td>
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<tr>
<td>IPCC:</td>
<td>Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IUCN:</td>
<td>International Union for the Conservation of Nature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LDCs:</td>
<td>Least Developed Countries</td>
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<tr>
<td>MIA:</td>
<td>Ministry of Internal Affairs</td>
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<tr>
<td>MNRE:</td>
<td>Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MWCSD:</td>
<td>Ministry of Women, Community and Social Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAB:</td>
<td>National Advisory Board on Climate Change and Disaster Risk Reduction</td>
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NACCC: National Advisory Council on Climate Change
NAPA: National Adaptation Programme of Actions
NC: National Communications
NDMO: National Disaster Management Office
NOAA: National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
PACC: Pacific Adaptation to Climate Change Programme
PCRAFI: Pacific Catastrophe Risk Assessment and Financing Initiative (PCRAFI)
PICs: Pacific Island Countries
PIFS: Pacific Islands Forum Secretariat
PIRCA: Pacific Islands Regional Climate Assessment
PDNA: Post-Disaster Needs Assessment
RPPA: Revised Pacific Platform for Action on the Advancement of Women and Gender Equality
SGBV: Sexual and Gender Based Violence
SNC: Second National Communication
SPC: The Secretariat of the Pacific Community
SPREP: Secretariat of the Pacific Regional Environment Programme
SRDP: Strategy for Disaster and Climate Resilient Development in the Pacific
STA: Samoa Tourism Authority
UN: United Nations
UNDP: United Nations Development Programme
UNESCAP: United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific
UNFCCC: United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
UNFPA: United Nations Population Fund
UNISDR: United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction
UNOCHA: United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
VCAN: Vanuatu Climate Action Network
WHO: World Health Organization
WUTMI: Women United Together for Marshall Islands
WWF: World Wildlife Fund
Preface

UN Women is committed to promoting gender equality and ensuring women’s voices and priorities shape climate change and disaster risk reduction discourse and action. For this reason, UN Women commissioned this study to enrich the understanding and knowledge of the interface between gender equality, climate change and disasters in the Pacific region. This overview report presents evidence from the current literature and from primary data collection on the gender dimensions of climate change and disasters in the Pacific region. It analyses existing efforts to address gender equality in climate change and disasters in the Pacific and makes evidence-based recommendations for policy and programming. It includes three case study locations: The Republic of Marshall Islands, Samoa and Vanuatu.

Vulnerability to climate change and disasters results from inequalities and the failure to uphold human rights. Groups denied rights to education, food, land, information and other services have less capacity to cope with climatic changes or recover from disasters. Groups with unequal access to resources are less able to build assets and resilience. When people are excluded from decision-making their needs and priorities become invisible, resulting in adaptive strategies and relief and recovery services that do not serve them, thereby increasing the impact of disasters. Women and girls in the Asia-Pacific
region do not have the same rights as men and boys and as a result are disproportionately affected by disasters. The subordinate position of women and girls in households, communities, workplaces and professions increases the impact of disasters and undermines their capacities and resources to respond. Yet, the participation and leadership of women are critical to building the resilience of families, communities and nations. Realising gender equality and the empowerment of women is paramount to sustainable human development, as the frequency and severity of storms, floods, drought and other climatic hazards increase in the Asia-Pacific region.

This report is linked to another report focused on Asia which includes case studies from Bangladesh, Cambodia and Viet Nam. A joint summary of both the Pacific and Asia reports will also be published. UN Women stands committed to working with Pacific partners and stakeholders in ensuring the results from this study inform sustainable development policy making and programme in the Pacific.

Aleta Miller
UN Women Representative, Fiji Multi-Country Office

Rangorango Village (Vanuatu)
Shaline Nimal, her children and other children from the village stand beside what remains of her house. The villagers had begun rebuilding with whatever materials they could find as they waited for relief supplies to reach them.

Photo: UN Women/Ellie van Baaren
Ba Province (Fiji Islands)- Rakesh Prasad (middle), his brother Sanesh Kumar and Lusiana Bulu, the Secretary of the Ba Market Vendors’ Association stand with what remains of part of a vegetable 10-acre farm.

Photo: UN Women/Murray Lloyd
Executive Summary

Gender equality and the empowerment of women become ever more important as the frequency and severity of storms, floods, drought and other climatic hazards increase in the Pacific region. Due to prevailing gender inequalities and social norms, women and girls are disproportionately affected by climate change and disaster impacts. Yet their participation and leadership are critical for an all-of-society approach to building the resilience of families, communities and nations. This report presents the findings of the Gender, Climate Change Action and Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR) Research in the Pacific region. The purpose of the study was to provide evidence-based information on the gender impacts of climate change and disasters in the Pacific, and to identify how gender equality and women’s empowerment can be strengthened across climate change and DRR policies, institutions and projects.

Pacific women and girls continue to face significant disadvantages despite Pacific Island Countries (PICs) committing to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), with the exception of Palau and Tonga, Beijing Platform for Action (BPfA), the Revised Pacific Platform for Action on the Advancement of Women and Gender Equality (RPPA), and other relevant regional agreements. Gender inequality and women’s disempowerment are causal factors in why women and girls are disproportionately affected by climate change and disasters. These pre-existing inequalities can be further exacerbated if gender issues are not adequately assessed or incorporated into climate change adaptation and mitigation, and DRR efforts.

Documented evidence from around the world demonstrates that climate change and disaster impacts are not gender neutral. This also applies to the Pacific region, where available evidence shows there are differences in how men and women are affected by, cope with and respond to the effects of climate change and disasters. Pacific women are more likely to be killed by disasters than men. Sexual and gender-based violence against women and girls – of which the Pacific region has one of the highest rates globally – has been shown to escalate in the aftermath of a disaster. The physical burden on women and girls also increases disproportionately after a disaster, as they are required to spend more time searching for clean water and food, and keeping their family safe and healthy. In addition, women have increased susceptibility to climate- and disaster-related health risks, including diarrhoea, dengue fever and malaria. As pervasive gender inequalities contribute to women’s vulnerability, and also stifle their capacities, it is critical that efforts to address climate change and disaster risks must also redress the underlying inequalities to achieve effective and sustainable development.

Planning for and responding to climatic risks and disasters provide a window of opportunity to address some of these social imbalances through gender responsive strategies, policies and practices.

The report presents an analytical framework to explore and interpret evidence on the status of policy; institutional arrangements; implementation and practice; advocacy, knowledge generation; and women’s participation in efforts to incorporate gender equality into climate change action and DRR.

While gender responsive climate change action and DRR initiatives are a policy challenge anywhere in the world, overall, findings suggest that the Pacific region’s progress towards gender equality and the empowerment of women within these sectors is lagging. Pacific Island Countries (PICs) have made no or limited advancement in complying with the gender indicator called for by the Hyogo Framework for Action (HFA),
that a ‘gender perspective should be integrated into all disaster risk management policies, plans and decision-making processes’ (UNISDR, UNDP and IUCN, 2009), with many countries struggling to address gender and social inclusion issues in their DRR efforts. Nearly all PICs have national disaster legislation that is completely gender blind: A review of 11 PIC disaster laws reveals over 80 percent are gender blind. National climate change and DRR legislation, policies and strategies are also limited in the integration of gender perspectives. Climate change policies in Samoa overlook gender issues altogether, while others, such as Fiji and Tonga, mention gender in passing without further explanation or specific policy directives. In general, policies lack sufficient analysis and response needed to propel substantive reduction in the underlying vulnerability of women and girls and to ensure the needs and priorities of both women and men are considered in climate change planning processes.

The current institutional arrangements for addressing gender equality, climate change and disaster risk present a barrier, as most ministries and departments responsible for women’s affairs (women’s machineries) in PICs have limited political advocacy, technical capacity and budgetary resources to influence policies at the national level. Another challenge is that national climate change and DRR governance structures are generally not inclusive, which restricts the participation of, and influence by, women’s machineries. Moreover, the lack of effective communication and strategic collaboration between institutions can reduce opportunities for the full integration of gender perspectives into climate change and DRR processes. Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) are given limited space to participate in shaping policies on climate change and DRR, even though governments are willing to involve them in policy implementation and service delivery purposes. In general, national disaster management offices (NDMOs) and climate change ministries have few and weak mechanisms to support the incorporation of women’s or gender issues and more transformative action to meet gender equality goals is lacking.

In terms of climate change and DRR implementation and practice, the incorporation of gender appears to vary between projects and organisations. Multilateral agencies including United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the World Bank (WB) and the Asian Development Bank (ADB) have internal policies that require gender equality to be included as part of their standard procedures for project proposal development and implementation. Despite this, the assessment of selected climate change and DRR projects in the Pacific shows gender issues are poorly considered in the design, implementation and monitoring phases. In a review of 39 Global Environment Facility (GEF) projects in the Pacific over the past five years, only three projects incorporated technical gender expertise; only two included budgetary resources for gender equality; and almost a third of projects failed to mention gender at all. Constraints such as the absence of a clear organisational or project intent, or dedicated budgets towards gender activities further hinder the implementation of gender responsive action. Climate change and DRR projects led by non-governmental organisations (NGOs)-in the Pacific region appear to more explicitly incorporate gender considerations into their design and implementation, and into vulnerability assessments. Most of these projects focus on agriculture, however there is less clarity regarding how effective these measures are in bringing transformative change for women: Particularly in advancing women’s empowerment on issues around access to resources, decision-making power and reduced dependence on natural resources, which are all key in achieving long-term gender responsive resilience.

1 Although its second National Adaptation Programme of Action (NAPA 2005) does mention gender.
Under the **advocacy, knowledge generation and management** sphere, Pacific Island climate change and DRR practitioners exhibit some knowledge and awareness of the gender-differentiated impacts of disasters and climate change, through gender training and Pacific-specific gender mainstreaming tools. However, practitioners lack technical knowledge and skills in mainstreaming gender equality in their work. The collection and use of sex and age disaggregated data (SADD) for climate change and DRR decision-making processes is varied between projects and organisations, but overall extremely limited in the Pacific region. In most cases, there are no systematic procedures within government agencies for gathering SADD on climate change and disaster impacts. Government agencies and NGOs alike lack the expertise to analyse and interpret the data, and apply this for policy, programming and advocacy purposes. There is also limited sharing of the SADD that does exist, between governments and NGOs. The absence of gender data on climate change and disasters limits the ability of the region to recognise, understand and effectively address the differential impact of disasters on different social groups. The lack of a solid evidence base undermines the ability to advocate on gender equality issues in these sectors.

Finally, the **participation and leadership** of women and women’s groups in climate change and DRR efforts needs to be significantly strengthened across the region. While indications are that the participation of Pacific women in climate change and DRR dialogue is increasing, both at national and regional levels, much more needs to be done to prepare and empower women to voice their interests, issues and needs, and to enhance their influence in decision-making. In some countries, more women than men are leading, initiating and implementing local climate change and DRR projects. However, to systematically shift existing gender norms and empower women as agents for change in building climate change and disaster resilience, there is an urgent need for more widespread awareness raising, education and advocacy for and by governments, donors and CSOs.

In conclusion, the findings of this study reveal that gender equality in relation to climate change and DRR is recognised in theory to some extent, but rarely in practice. While some positive examples indicate that change is possible, substantial efforts are needed across the Pacific region to fully achieve gender equality and women’s empowerment in climate change and DRR action. The Pacific region meet its promise on gender equality to guarantee a climate and disaster resilient future for all. This means moving beyond the mere mention of gender and towards real commitment and action.
Rakiraki Market (Fiji) - This accommodation centre used to provide rural women market vendors with a safe place to stay overnight when they came to town to sell their produce at the market. A tree brought down by Tropical Cyclone Winston made the structure unsafe and it has had to be demolished.

Photo: UN Women/Anna Parini
Section I: Introduction

The Pacific region is highly vulnerable to climate and disaster risks. Approximately 9.2 million\(^2\) people in the Pacific region have been affected by extreme events since 1950 (World Bank, 2013). Extreme events have caused 10,000 reported deaths and damage estimated to be worth US$3.2 billion (World Bank, 2013). The 2016 World Risk Report ranks Vanuatu and Tonga the first and second highest at-risk countries globally, based on their exposure to natural hazards and societal vulnerability (Garschagen, M et al 2016). The Solomon Islands and Fiji are also in the top 20 (6\(^{\text{th}}\) and 16\(^{\text{th}}\) respectively).

Due to the prevailing social, cultural, economic and political factors that contribute to the low status of women and girls, they are known to be disproportionately affected by the climate change and disaster impacts. Yet, despite these barriers, women possess invaluable knowledge and skills that are indispensable to resilience-building of families, communities and nations. The empowerment and engagement of women is critical, as the frequency and severity of storms, floods, drought and other climatic hazards increase.

The 59\(^{\text{th}}\) Commission on the Status of Women involved a 20-year review of the Beijing Platform for Action, which concluded that more needs to be done to address the social, economic and political discrimination faced by women and girls, to achieve gender equality at all levels (UN Economic and Social Council, 2014).

This report makes an important contribution to the current state of knowledge and practice on gender mainstreaming in the climate change and DRR sectors in the Pacific region. It is intended to inform the Pacific Island Countries (PICs) as they contextualise and develop national and regional mechanisms for implementing the new international frameworks addressing the post-2015 development agenda: In particular, the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), the Sendai Framework for Action for Disaster Risk Reduction, and the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). All these frameworks include strong messages regarding the need to work towards gender equality and targets for enhancing the engagement of key stakeholders, specifically women.

The time is due to build on the current momentum on gender equality and the empowerment of women, to guarantee an equitable, resilient and sustainable future for all people of the Pacific Islands.

1.1 Report Objective

The objective of this report is twofold: Firstly, to present key findings from the current literature and from primary data collection on the gender dimensions of climate change and disasters in the Pacific; and secondly, to analyse existing efforts to address gender equality in climate change and disasters in the Pacific region and make evidence-based recommendations for policy and programming.
1.2 Methodology and scope

The study method involved a combination of desk review and fieldwork. Relevant laws, policies, plans, reports and other published literature pertinent to the Pacific region were reviewed to assess and collate information on gender, climate change action and DRR. The draft desk review report was presented to gender experts in the region for peer review. Through the initial findings of the desk review and based on sub-regional representation, three countries were selected for the fieldwork: the Republic of Marshall Islands (RMI) in Micronesia, Vanuatu in Melanesia, and Samoa in Polynesia. The selection was also influenced by logistical factors such as accessibility and distance, the presence of UN Women or UN Joint Office, and existing contact with local organisations.

In each country, fieldwork comprised face-to-face, semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions (FGDs) with representatives from government, development agencies and the civil society sector. The interviews lasted for an average of 60 minutes. Two FGDs, each 2.5 hours long, were completed in each study country, one for government ministries and the other for CSOs.

Logistical arrangements for the fieldwork and the identification of relevant stakeholders to be consulted were carried out by the research consultant who worked closely with the UN Women’s Sub-Regional Offices in Vanuatu and Samoa, government ministries (Department of Women’s Affairs and Ministry of Climate Change in Vanuatu, and the Ministry of Internal Affairs in RMI) and Women United Together for Marshall Islands (WUTMI). Fieldwork was undertaken in 2015: from 26 January-2 February in RMI, 23 February-4 March in Vanuatu, and 8-14 March in Samoa.

1.3 Limitations

The study encountered several limitations. Firstly, while efforts were made to collate a wide range of literature, the documents collated for the desk review are not comprehensive, as not all published documents on the subject matter are accessible online or publicly available. Secondly, not all PICs are represented in the documents reviewed and some countries (for example, Fiji, Samoa and Vanuatu) appear in more publications than others, therefore not all sub-regions have been equally represented or assessed (especially Micronesia). Thirdly, timing constraints limited the breadth of stakeholders consulted in each study country.

The focus of this study was at the macro-level (national governments and organisations) and so it did not involve a micro-level analysis of households and communities. Family and community are key social units in the Pacific region and there is a high degree of variance in their social, economic and political dynamics, including gender relations, which would not have been captured in this short report. The environmental stress factors faced may also be different, depending on multiple factors such as geomorphology, location, access to and management of natural resources, land use and fragility of ecosystems, and so it is not possible to make specific recommendations that are universally appropriate. Future studies in the region should investigate systematically the gender dimensions of climate change and disasters at the micro level to further inform policy and project implementation.

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3 With the exception of Samoa, where only the focus group discussion for CSOs were carried out due to the absence of key government representatives at international meetings.

4 WUTMI is a national women’s organisation in the Marshall Islands.
The report is structured into four sections beginning with this introductory section. Following this, Section two is an analysis of the status of Pacific women and gendered impacts of climate change and disasters. Section three provides an analysis of current efforts to address gender equality in climate change action and DRR. The section is organised around a framework of analysis, which includes:

- The policy environment;
- Institutional arrangements;
- Implementation and practice;
- Advocacy and knowledge generation;
- Women’s participation and leadership.

Section four presents the conclusions and recommendations.

Unaisi Racaca, Lautoka City - Unaisi Racaca, 60, sheltered in a local evacuation centre on the night Tropical Cyclone Winston hit Fiji, along with 30 other households. Only seven houses in her settlement remained standing once the storm had passed on.

Photo: UN Women/Kasanita Isimeli
Sunai Village, Moso Island (Vanuatu) - Rita Vano, 32, lives with her husband and three young children on Moso Island and relies entirely on rainwater for their water supply. El Nino means there hasn’t been enough rain and the family is rationing drinking water, using underground water to wash their clothes and swimming in the saltwater instead of bathing.

Photo: UN Women/Murray Lloyd
Section II: Vulnerability, Adaptation and Resilience: A Gendered Perspective

This section provides an overview of the status of Pacific women; introduces gender as a determinant of climate change, and disaster vulnerability and resilience; and identifies how gender inequalities contribute specifically to women’s marginalisation and vulnerabilities in the context of the changing climate.

2.1 What do we mean by gender, gender equality, and gender responsiveness?

The uninformed observer could be forgiven for thinking that gender was already embedded in much climate change and disaster risk reduction (CCDRR) policy and practice. Certainly, the word features frequently. However, interpretations tend towards a very simplistic view in which ‘gender’ refers just to women (and sometimes girls) and not to the complex gendered relations between men and women (and those who do not identify as either) in societies. The simplistic view characterises women as vulnerable victims whose natural place is in caring roles, often limited to the private domestic sphere.

A more sophisticated approach to analysing gender relations can, depending on context, reveal vulnerabilities in men and capacities in women; it can also reveal the hidden societal attitudes and processes which privilege men and boys and reinforce unequal opportunities based on gender. For example, restrictions on women and girls, which keep them limited to the domestic space and caring roles, are seen as being ‘natural’ parts of their biology, psychology and physiology. While men and boys are seen to be ‘naturally’ aggressive, unemotional risk-takers for whom the assumption of a leadership role is expected. Both girls and boys are socialised by families and communities to adopt these attitudes and behaviours; the conditions and processes therefore are socially constructed.

There has been academic research on gender over many years, which has differentiated between the ‘shorter term, practical needs’ and ‘longer term, strategic interests’ of women. The former is the most usual expression of gender but it is the latter which better supports women’s advancement to gender equality. Satisfying women’s practical needs can still be useful but it is not sufficient. For example, interventions might include enabling women’s participation in CCDRR committees but this might simply place another burden on women’s already busy lives whilst leaving them in a subordinate role, without decision-making power. This is sometimes characterised as including women to ‘make up the numbers’ or to meet an imposed quota. Another example could be the provision of women- and child-friendly spaces following disasters, which is an important contribution to making women’s and girls’ lives more bearable, but will do nothing to deal with society’s tacit acceptance of gender-based violence. Another might be the provision of opportunities to women for income generation (but this might simply reinforce gender stereotypes if it only allows for traditionally female occupations).


To achieve transformative social change it is necessary to satisfy women’s and girls’ longer-term, strategic interests. These include: equal political representation and decision-making power (which can be facilitated by increasing their leadership roles); rights recognition and enforcement (human rights, women’s rights, political, social and cultural rights, and property and land rights. Many or all of these rights may already exist on paper but have not been activated; for example, challenges still exist in combating and preventing violence against women and girls (by changing attitudes and behaviours of men and boys, and society; and ensuring enforcement of anti-violence laws); increasing resourcing of sexual and reproductive health provision (a frequently neglected category of health provision after disasters); implementing anti-discriminatory practices in labour markets and opportunities for non-traditional training, work and income generation (for example by providing for women and girls to study and earn a livelihood in high status and profitable employment categories and creating gender balanced apprenticeship and training opportunities); promoting women’s local community organizing (which builds confidence and self esteem through a mutually supportive environment, at the same time as it provides security through collective action).

Most CCDRR activity lies firmly within the shorter term, practical needs category. Many of the longer term, strategic actions are outside the core mandates of CCDRR agencies and service providers. However, while they may not be able to be delivered directly, CCDRR policies and actions should not reinforce gender stereotypes or undermine the securing of women’s strategic interests.

**Gender equality** does not mean men and women (girls and boys) must be the same, but rather that they have equal opportunities to benefit. Equality between women and men (gender equality”) refers to the equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities of women and men and girls and boys. Equality does not mean that women and men will become the same but that women’s and men’s rights, responsibilities and opportunities will not depend on whether they are born male or female. Gender equality implies that the interests, needs and priorities of both women and men are taken into consideration, recognising the diversity of different groups of women and men. Gender equality is not a women’s issue but should concern and fully engage men as well as women. Equality between women and men is seen both as a human rights issue and as a precondition for, and indicator of, sustainable people-centred development.

In order to achieve this more balanced state, it may be necessary to provide more to one gender than the other and adopt a gender equity approach. Gender equity is the means to achieve the ultimate goal of gender equality. This is a justification for the necessity of having women-focused projects and interventions in order to get women and girls to a position where they can enjoy the same benefits as men and boys. However, it may sometimes be necessary to focus on men and boys as a means to achieve the same outcome.

**Gender responsive** is the preferred term in place of gender sensitive. To be gender sensitive may raise awareness but it will not ensure anything happens after that. To be gender responsive is to be aware and to act. The need to act is at the heart of this publication, to counteract the many years of (largely) empty rhetoric which tends to be followed by a continuation of existing, unequal conditions.

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Understanding the distinctions in use of gender terminology is an important part of moving forward on the ‘gender agenda’. It is time to act; to move beyond the rhetoric of gender inclusion, towards action to remove gendered inequalities in climate change and disaster risk reduction policy and practice in PICs.

2.2 Status of Pacific women in the context of climate change and disasters

Most countries in the Pacific region are signatories to the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and have adopted the Beijing Platform for Action (BFA) and the Revised Pacific Platform for Action (RPPA) on the Advancement of Women and Gender Equality. These international and regional agreements, together with the Sustainable Development Goals, are key instruments which promote gender equality and women’s empowerment for sustainable development in the Pacific region.

60-80% of Pacific women aged between 15 and 49 years experience some form of partner violence in their lifetime.

Although commitments are made in principle, the progress towards gender equality and the empowerment of women has been slow and uneven in the Pacific region (United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, 2015) and these underlying inequalities inevitably impact upon the CCDRR agendas. To begin with, not all PICs have adopted the CEDAW: Tonga and Palau are two of the six countries that have not ratified CEDAW globally. Furthermore, Pacific women and girls do not enjoy the same freedoms and rights as men and boys, and are subjected to social, economic and political disadvantage. For instance, the prevalence rates for violence against women in the Pacific region are some of the highest in the world (Pacific Women Shaping Pacific Development, 2015a) with 60-80 percent of Pacific women aged 15 to 49 years experiencing some form of partner violence in their lifetime (United Nations Population Fund [UNPFA], 2014). Access to justice and support services for victims of violence vary from country to country and without a comprehensive or integrated approach to legislative reforms, the implementation of laws and functioning of justice and police systems remains weak (Pacific Women Shaping Pacific Development, 2015a). In addition, rigid police structures, the lack of sensitivity of judges and the pressure of social norms are general problems in the Pacific region that reinforce the inability of women to speak out about violence (Fiji Crisis Women’s Centre, 2011).

US$10-16 million the annual turnover of the Honiara Central Market in Solomon Islands, of which 90% is contributed by women.

On the economic front, available data shows that while there is a large variation between PICs in the women’s labour market participation rate (ranging from 35 percent in RMI to 80 percent in Vanuatu), the rate is less than that of men in all cases (UNESCAP, 2007). Within the formal sector, women account for less than one-third of the total number formally employed.

8 Fiji, Samoa, Tuvalu, Kiribati, Solomon Islands, Republic of Marshall Islands, Federated States of Micronesia, Papua New Guinea, Nauru, Cook Islands, French Polynesia, New Caledonia, Wallis and Futuna (through France) and Niue, Tokelau (through New Zealand).
9 This five-year regional charter (2010-2015) sets clear targets and indicators for gender equality and women’s rights. The charter has been developed and agreed to by all PICs and territories.
Men dominate higher positions within public service and control the majority of businesses (Duncan and Voigt-Graf, 2010; IFC, 2010). Women are mainly engaged in the informal sector in activities such as subsistence agriculture, marketing of agricultural products, and petty trading (IFC, 2010). Women face significant economic constraints: they are less likely than men to own land, have rights to inheritance and property, obtain business finance or access to the justice system for commercial dispute resolution (IFC, 2010). Despite this, in monetary terms women play a significant role in contributing to PICs economies. For example, the annual turnover at the Honiara Central Market in the Solomon Islands is between US$10-16 million and women contribute to 90 percent of market activity as bulk buyers from farmers, and as retailers (IFC, 2010). This is a typical illustration of the way women are, on the one hand excluded from equal participation in the economic sector and, on the other, have their contributions downplayed and made ‘invisible’.

Political participation and leadership is another area where Pacific women face significant inequality compared to men. Pacific women’s political participation is the lowest in the world: The Cook Islands currently has 17 percent of women Members of Parliament (MPs) – only 4 women out of 24 MPs in total – which is the highest in the Pacific region. Fiji follows with 8 out of a total of 50 MPs. Vanuatu, Tokelau and the Federated States of Micronesia (FSM) have no female MPs – and FSM has never had a female MP. There is also a significant under-representation of women in leadership and decision-making at the provincial and community levels (Pacific Women in Politics, 2016; IFAD, 2013), mainly due to the cultural and societal perception that leadership roles are the natural preserve of men (Morioka, 2012). The percentage of women across Pacific parliaments is around 6.3 percent (as of July 2016).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pacific Women MPs</th>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Numbers</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentages</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Pacific Women in Politics (2016)

In a post-disaster situation, the economic disadvantage of women and girls means that they may have lower incomes, fewer possessions, and less right to productive assets, such as land, to help re-establish their lives and their livelihoods. Most Pacific women do not have equal access to and ownership of land, which may limit their capacity and options for adapting to climate change or disaster risk. While documented evidence for the region is limited, it is apparent from other cases that the potential consequences of not having land rights or user access rights will affect the ability of women to cope with, respond to and recover from climate change and disaster impacts. Land tenure in the Pacific region is extremely complex due to customary land ownership, where many individuals – associated through kinship ties – have ownership and interest in the land. Customary land cannot be used as collateral for financing bank loans and unlike freehold land, it cannot be sold. A majority of Melanesian and Polynesian societies are now patrilineal, meaning land is passed down through the father’s line. The region has experienced a substantial roll-back of women’s land rights. Traditionally, Polynesian countries such as Samoa and American Samoa were matrilineal, however women’s rights to land were systematically eliminated due to legal and constitutional mechanisms enforced through colonisation processes (Anderson, 2009). In Micronesia, matrilineal systems to transfer land rights are still in evidence in Yap, in FSM, but this is no longer the case for Palau and the Marshall Islands (Anderson, 2009).
In some PICs, legal discrimination exists in relation to women’s ownership and inheritance of land. An example of this is Tonga, where legislation only allows men over the age of 16 to obtain land by grant or by lease (IFAD, 2013), while women can lease land but are not given grants, which excludes unmarried, separated, divorced and widowed women from full land access (IFAD, 2013). Hence women’s access to and use of land is dependent on the goodwill of their male relatives (Government of Tonga, 2015). Not having secure access to, and ownership of, land is a limiting factor in adaptation options for Tongan women, as well as for their ability to relocate or re-establish their lives after a disaster event has destroyed their home. As Pacific Islander people have strong spiritual and socio-cultural connections to their land, to the extent that land defines their very identity, future research should explore how differences in land access and ownership among men and women affect vulnerability and resilience to climate change and disaster impacts.

2.3 Differentiated impacts of climate change and disasters

Underlying gender inequalities (as discussed in the previous section) are a determinant of vulnerability and limit adaptive capacity to disasters and climate change; hence the impacts of disasters and climate change are not gender-neutral. Social attitudes and some cultural and religious practices can reinforce discrimination against women and girls, increasing their vulnerability to disasters and to the consequences of climate change. Such discrimination further result in differentiated impacts on mortality, and ability to cope with and respond to disasters, as well as to adapt to climate change. In essence disasters and climate change can reinforce, perpetuate and increase gender inequality, often making difficult situations worse for women and vulnerable groups.

Higher mortality rates among females

70% of the adults who died in the 2009 tsunami in both Samoa and Tonga were female

90% of the dead in 2014 Solomon Islands flash floods were women and children

While the almost universal lack of sex and age disaggregated data (SADD) means that reliable statistics are rare, there is strong evidence that women and children are more likely to die, be injured, or die sooner, from disasters than men, but this effect is drastically reduced if women’s socio-economic status is improved (Neumayer and Plümper, 2007). When the socio-economic status of women is high, the mortality rate for men and women during and after disasters is roughly the same, indicating the correlation between gender inequality and disaster mortality and vulnerability (Neumayer and Plümper, 2007). Although exact figures are not available for each disaster event in the Pacific Islands region, existing literature reports that higher proportions of Pacific women die from disasters than men: For example, 70 percent of the adults who died in the 2009 tsunami in both Samoa and Tonga were female (Government of Tonga, 2013). Similarly, the same proportion of women accounted for the casualties of the 2009 Tongan ferry disaster (Government of Tonga, 2013). Anecdotal evidence from the 2014 Solomon Islands flash floods suggests that 90 percent of those who died were women and children. Extrapolating from global literature (see Bradshaw and Fordham 2013), possible reasons for the higher mortality rates among women and children lie in their social roles, where women and children are likely to be in the domestic sphere, in poorly constructed homes, while men are out in open spaces such as farm

10 23 people were reported dead and local and international NGOs suggest that only one of the 23 was a man and the rest were women and children.
gardens or the sea. Care of children and the elderly also slow down women’s opportunities to escape, while their lower physical stamina or less practiced swimming ability reduces their chances in tsunamis and floods.

### Box 1. Differential impact of Tropical Cyclone Pam on women

Tropical Cyclone Pam in Vanuatu made landfall on 12 March 2015, and destroyed all green vegetation covering the affected islands. While both women and men lost their agricultural produce, the extensive destruction of food and cash crops created new challenges for women’s ability both to provide adequate food and nutrition, and to generate income to support their families. Reports from humanitarian assessments indicated that women were reducing their food intake to make the remaining food last longer.

The Government of Vanuatu lifted a seasonal ban on sandalwood harvesting to allow men to salvage and sell broken sandalwood. Men were also able to sell and consume broken fresh kava, a main cash crop controlled by men. Women on the other hand lost food crops which also affected female vendors who sold cooked food. Women also lost livelihoods linked to weaving due to extensive damage to pandanus trees. Furthermore, the impact on pandanus trees was poorly understood because pandanus is not regarded as an agricultural commodity and as such the government’s efforts to address the issue were limited. The increased burden of work due to child care, because of extensive damage to kindergarten schools, also meant that women had less time available for rebuilding their livelihoods.

Source: Vanuatu post-disaster needs assessment (PDNA) and experiences observed by UN Women during humanitarian and PDNA.

### Loss of Livelihoods

In addition to higher mortalities among females, women and girls also face disproportionate impacts of disasters and climate change in other aspects of their lives, particularly livelihoods. Women’s greater reliance on natural resources is another contributing factor to their differentiated vulnerability compared to men. Pacific women rely heavily on natural resources for their livelihood activities including subsistence agriculture and handicraft production.

In 2010, a total of 67 percent of economically active women in the Pacific were engaged in agriculture and more than half of all economically active people working in the sector were women (IFAD, 2013). Agriculture, in which most rural women in the Pacific are employed, is one of the hardest hit sectors in times of disasters. In Papua New Guinea (PNG) and the Solomon Islands, women produce and process up to 80 percent of the national food supply (Morioka, 2012). The 2012 Cyclone Evan resulted in significant social impact for populations whose livelihood depends heavily on subsistence agriculture and sale of produce (Government of Fiji, 2013a). Similar impacts were found in Vanuatu, where damage resulting from the 2015 Tropical Cyclone Pam had adverse impacts on subsistence farming, which reduced women’s ability to generate income to cater for the basic needs of their families (Government of Vanuatu, 2015). In such countries as Vanuatu, there is an added dimension of disaster impact on gender. In economic value, men are likely to sustain higher
losses from cash crops compared with losses from women’s subsistence crops. However, women’s meagre income from subsistence farming is a major contributor to school fees and family nutrition, while men’s income is largely reserved for personal recreational activities\textsuperscript{11}. This is a critical imbalance in loss assessments where the dollar amount does not reflect the real value of the loss. Relative values are important indicators of true impact and women’s losses, often in informal sectors, are rarely valued accurately, if at all.

Rural women in most PICs are also engaged in other activities in the informal sector, including fisheries and handicrafts. In the Marshall Islands, women face the risk that their livelihoods, especially those living in the outer islands, are likely to be restricted as climate change is projected to alter the vegetation upon which women rely for their handicraft activities (Government of Marshall Islands, 2012). There is evidence that this is already happening. The Safety and Protection Assessment of Cyclone Ian also found that, as sole income earners, the livelihoods of Tongan women in Ha’apai were adversely affected when the cyclone resulted in the loss of pandanus leaves, the main material used for weaving (Government of Tonga, 2014). Similarly, in Vanuatu, the extensive destruction of pandanus trees by Tropical Cyclone Pam in 2015 (Government of Vanuatu 2015) resulted in loss of livelihoods for women who rely on the leaf for weaving and selling mats, as well as female vendors who sell pandanus woven products to cruise ship tourists\textsuperscript{12}.

Research\textsuperscript{13} on villages relocated due to rising sea-levels and coastal erosion in Fiji also suggests that the livelihoods of women have been disproportionally affected negatively. Relocation to higher ground in Vunidogoloa Village has resulted in women not being able to access their coastal resources for fishing and being more dependent on their spouses for food. This is due to the new village being too far from their coastal resources, and their reproductive work restricts them from taking lengthy absences to fish. Men, on the other hand, are still able to make the long walks to their old fishing grounds.

\begin{table}[h]
\centering
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline
\textbf{Time on unpaid work in Vanuatu} & \\
\hline
Women & \textbf{80\%} (27.2 hours per week) \\
Men & \textbf{20\%} (6.6 hours per week) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\caption{Time on unpaid work in Vanuatu}
\end{table}

One of the detrimental consequences of disasters and climate change for women and girls is the reduction in time allocated to pursuing economic, learning, and recreational activities. Already women and girls in the Pacific spend longer hours on reproductive work than boys do. Studies in Vanuatu indicate that women normally take on the bulk of unpaid work, 27.2 hours per week (80 percent), while men contribute 6.6 hours (20 percent)\textsuperscript{14}. Similarly, Fijian women, who do 74 percent of all domestic work, spend 54.2 hours per week on unpaid employment, compared to 32.3 hours spent by men\textsuperscript{15}.


12 Also based on interviews by UN Women during the post-disaster needs assessment interviews.

13 Unpublished research by Amanda Bertana, a political ecology student at Utah University.


15 See Fiji Post Disaster Needs Assessment 2016 Report for Tropical Cyclone Winston.
This disparity in responsibilities is a worldwide phenomenon, although its impacts are not the same everywhere. Ferrant et al. (2014) report that the distribution of responsibilities is more equal in higher income countries. Their analysis suggests this is largely because men in higher income countries are more engaged in care activities' (Ferranti et al 2014:3). Unfortunately, the lack of data from PICs means that their comparative position cannot be measured (e.g. through the SIGI index16). However, we have sufficient information (albeit often anecdotal) for the region to recognise that the trend is significant in PICs. The report’s key messages highlight these issues:

- Around the world, women spend two- to-ten times more time on unpaid care work than men.
- This unequal distribution of caring responsibilities is linked to discriminatory social institutions and stereotypes on gender roles.
- Gender inequality in unpaid care work is the missing link in the analysis of gender gaps in labour outcomes, such as labour force participation, wages and job quality.
- Tackling entrenched gender norms and stereotypes is a first step in redistributing responsibilities for care and housework between women and men.

The final message above is a major block on progress in reaching gender equality. Studies by the Red Cross (2015) in the Solomon Islands also showed that while some young men do not know what to do with their time, young women and women are overloaded with work. Disasters such as cyclones and droughts, which impact on access to clean water, fuel wood, non-timber products and food, make life harder for women and girls who are typically responsible for these activities. The Red Cross (2015) also reports that droughts in Namokaviri, Solomon Islands, result in loss and drying up of dug water holes. This loss has a significant impact on women and girls: They are required to dig more water holes or walk longer distances to access water when their water sources become contaminated or destroyed by disasters. A study in Papua New Guinea and Solomon Islands also found that the effects of climate change may increase women’s workloads as they are required to travel further to collect raw materials, water and firewood, and spend more time farming to meet their household needs (Morioka, 2012).

Gender-based violence

A serious and often undiscussed consequence of disasters and climate change is sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV). Empirical studies have shown increases in domestic violence cases following disaster events (Kingi and Roguski, 2011). For example, after two tropical cyclones hit Tafea, the southern province of Vanuatu, in 2011, the Tanna Women’s Counselling Centre experienced a 300 percent increase in new domestic violence cases (Kilsby and Rosenbaum, 2012). Cases of gender-based violence (GBV) emerged in the Solomon Islands following the 2007 tsunami, where there were reports of men loitering around bath facilities used by women and girls in evacuation camps (Tara, 2007). While one case of child sexual abuse was reported, other incidents of violence remained unreported due to women’s fears for their safety should they speak out against the perpetrator (Tara, 2007). Fiji’s Second National Communication (SNC) cited experiences from the March 2013 floods in the Western Division, where cases of rape and incest had been reported, especially on unaccompanied women in evacuation centres (Government of Fiji, 2013b). Often lack of lighting,
lack of separate sleeping arrangements for women and men, and lack of segregated toilets and bath facilities, contribute to high exposure to GBV for displaced women and girls. There is also strong pressure by community leaders to maintain the appearance of community social cohesion, at the expense of the GBV victims who seek help. Furthermore, rigid police structures, a lack of sensitivity in judges, pressure of social norms, and narrow legal frameworks, are common problems in the Pacific region and that reinforce the inability of women to speak out and report GBV cases (Fiji Crisis Women’s Centre, 2011).

There is also an increased risk of GBV triggered by stress associated with loss of income streams for men and disruption of social support mechanisms (Government of Tonga, 2014). For example, Tonga’s National Survey found that violence is exacerbated by living with extended family, alcohol consumption and economic hardship faced by men, which are factors common in the recovery phase in the aftermath of disasters (Government of Tonga, 2014). In the case of Tonga as well as in other PICs, the sensitivity of GBV issues and people’s reluctance to speak about domestic violence means there are complexities in actual reporting of GBV. Nevertheless, observations of emergencies in the Pacific show that “pre-existing conditions of domestic violence, rape and prostitution will occur or be further exacerbated during a disaster” (UN Women, 2012:9). It is important to understand that crisis conditions, including the stress created by the events, do not in themselves cause the abuse, nor do they cause men to lose control (Fothergill, 1999, pp. 82-83), but rather they maytrigger violence rather than cause it (Houghton, 2009b; Parkinson 2014: 127). This distinction is an important one because if disasters or the subsequent stress can be blamed for the violence, then the perpetrator is partially absolved.

Health and wellbeing

Disaster damage to health facilities and associated interruptions to medical services can also affect women (Government of Vanuatu, 2015). Pregnant women may not be able to access timely obstetric care when a disaster strikes. In Vanuatu, it was estimated that 900 pregnant women would require specialised medical assistance within the nine months immediately after Cyclone Pam (Government of Vanuatu, 2015). Reproductive health services will not be available, or reach those in need, if disaster response and planning are not attuned to gender issues.

While evidence is very limited, the World Health Organization (WHO) report that health risks likely to be affected by climate change indicate gender differentials (2011). For example, the risk of malaria infection doubles for pregnant women due to changes in their physiology, which makes them more prone to mosquito bites. Maternal malaria has serious consequences as it can cause miscarriage, stillbirth, premature birth, and low birth weight (WHO, 2011). Little is known regarding the gendered health dynamics of climate change and vector-borne diseases in the region. However, salt water intrusion in PICs creates health hazards through reduced availability of potable water for drinking, cooking, and agriculture production, which have disproportionate consequences for women’s health, especially pregnant women. Reductions in water quantity and quality also increase the burden on women and girls who must travel further to collect clean water, putting them at risk of GBV (UN Women 2013c). Evidence from other regions suggests such climate change impacts increase the susceptibility of women to food-, water- and vector-borne diseases (WHO, 2011). In many cases, decline in water quality is also experienced following a disaster event, due to contamination of water sources or damage to essential infrastructure.
Furthermore, disasters can be extremely traumatic and disrupt people’s lives and emotional wellbeing. In 2012, following the aftermath of Cyclone Evan in Fiji, damage to government quarters in the Western Division left many public servants traumatised by the ordeal (Government of Fiji, 2013a). Some staff took two-to-four days leave to repair the damage to their homes and possessions, and to comfort their family members (Government of Fiji, 2013a). The experience from Cyclone Evan suggests that the differences in how men and women cope with and manifest trauma must be recognised to determine what type of psycho-social treatment is required for each disaster scenario (Government of Fiji, 2013a). As information on this issue is extremely sparse in the Pacific Islands region, it is necessary to conduct further research on gender-differentiated responses to trauma to ensure appropriate psycho-social assistance is offered to men and women in future disaster events.

While evidence is sparse, this section demonstrates that there are differentiated impacts of climate change and disasters on women and men. Mortality risk is differentiated in times of disaster and women may be more exposed than men. However, this is not always the case and in some contexts, Pacific men, particularly young men, may be exposed to specific hazards because they are expected to take on roles and responsibilities that place them in danger. Men are typically assigned physical and labour-intensive activities in times of a disaster, such as search and rescue, cleaning up debris and rebuilding houses and essential infrastructure, which may heighten risks of injury, death and disease (Delaney and Shrader 2000). Furthermore, dominant notions of masculinity are expressed in men and boys as risk-takers which may expose them to greater danger (Jonkman and Kelman, 2005). Nevertheless, despite some contextual variations, the systematic discrimination and social inequalities that women and girls face increase their vulnerability to disasters and climate impacts to a far greater degree than experienced by men and boys (Plan International, 2013; Morioka, 2012; Neumayer and Plümper, 2007).

2.4 Summary

Available evidence, albeit relatively sparse (especially in the Pacific region), shows that climate change and disaster impacts are gendered. Men and women are affected by climate change and disasters in different ways due to their respective roles, responsibilities and positions within society. Most importantly, the underlying power imbalances generate gender inequalities and a lower socio-economic status for women and girls which place them at greater risk of negative climate change and disaster impacts than those typically experienced by men and boys. It has been argued (UNDP, 2013) that ignoring gender differences results in gender-blind CCDRR policy and programming, which exacerbates or perpetuates inequalities between men and women, thereby undermining the purpose of the intervention. For this reason, and reasons of justice, the integration of gender responsiveness is pivotal to climate change and DRR sectors.

A more comprehensive understanding of the gendered dimensions of climate change and disasters requires evidence; something which is severely lacking in the Pacific region. This study calls for immediate and dedicated efforts to collate, analyse and share information at the regional and national levels and to build on the existing body of evidence to enhance understanding of the nexus between gender, climate change and DRR.
Rakiraki Market (Fiji) - This is what is left of the Rakiraki Market, which used to house more than 200 vendors, 75% of them women.

Photo: UN Women/Anna Parini
Efate Island (Vanuatu) - Some of the destruction caused by Cyclone Pam on the east coast of Efate Island in Vanuatu. Many people have not only lost their homes; they have also lost their crops - both their source of food and income.

Photo: UN Women/Ellie van Baaren
Section III: Addressing Gender Equality in Climate Change Action and Disaster Risk Reduction in the Pacific

Drawing on the findings of the desk review and fieldwork, this section presents an overview of the current status of PICs in addressing gender equality and women’s issues in climate change action and DRR. The section is structured by a framework17 for analysis which includes five elements: the policy environment; insitutional arrangements; implementation and practice; advocacy, knowledge generation and management; and women’s participation and leadership.

3.1 Policy environment

8 out of 20 (11%) countries collect gender disaggregated data on disaster vulnerability and capacity (Duryog Navaran 2014)

With an assessment of the current situation for women in the Pacific established, the report explores the current status of efforts to address gender equality in climate change action and DRR. This section of the report reviews existing international, regional and national policies pertaining to climate change and disasters in the Pacific to understand the extent to which gender equality dimensions have been considered or incorporated.

A conducive gendered CCDRR policy and legislative environment is necessary to lay the foundation for comprehensively addressing gender equality in CCDRR practice. The analysis for this report examined the development status of a comprehensive policy and legislative framework for CCDRR including whether there was: a) explicit high-level political commitment and support for gender equality; b) clearly outlined gender equality strategies and plans in CCDRR policies; c) national progress reporting on gender equality and CCDRR; and d) the backing of strong legislation and regulation. This analysis is presented from the global, through the regional to the national scale.

17 The Framework is adapted from a UNDP ‘Mainstreaming Disaster Risk Reduction into Development at the National Level’
3.1.1 Progress on international commitments on climate change and DRR

The Hyogo Framework for Action (HFA) 2005-2015 - now superseded by the Sendai Framework for DRR 2015-2030 - explicitly mentions the need for gender perspectives to be integrated into all Disaster Risk Management (DRM) policies, plans and decision-making processes, including those related to risk assessment, early warning, information management, and education and training (UNISDR, UNDP and IUCN, 2009). However, according to the HFA mid-term review on cross-cutting issues ‘Inclusion of a gender perspective and effective community participation are the areas where the least progress seems to have been made’, in 2004 only 19 out of 118 countries mentioned gender or women’s issues in their national reports for the 2005 World Conference on Disaster Reduction. By 2009, as many as 51 of 62 national reports to UNISDR acknowledged gender as important to DRR, but there was still very little in terms of concrete policy or programming activity (UNISDR, UNDP and IUCN, 2009). While the number mentioning gender is increasing over time, a more recent assessment reveals that only 8 out of 70 countries collected gender disaggregated data on disaster vulnerability and capacity (Duryog Navaran, 2014).

The Pacific region is very much in the same situation. The 2005-2015 review of the HFA showed little progress being achieved by PICs in addressing gender and social inclusion issues (Mohamed, 2014). Many faced challenges in considering the needs of vulnerable groups, including women, youth, children, elderly and people with disabilities in their disaster response and risk reduction activities (Mohamed, 2014). As presented in Table 1, five out of 11 PICs reported no progress on any of the gender indicators in the HFA in their interim report for 2011-2013 (Mohamed, 2014). Only Tonga reported achievement in all gender indicators, while there has been significant progress made by Fiji since the 2005-2015 review (see Box 2). This indicates a need to strengthen the capacity of government agencies in conducting gender and social analysis, and incorporating the analysis findings to inform vulnerability and capacity assessments, risk reduction and recovery programmes, post-disaster needs assessments, and DRR policies and plans.
Time to Act on Gender, Climate Change and Disaster Risk Reduction.

An overview of progress in the Pacific region with evidence from Marshall Islands, Vanuatu and Samoa

Box 2. Integrating gender into DRR

Tonga answered ‘yes’ to all gender indicators in the HFA for the 2011-2013 reporting period, with gender issues being addressed in disaster risk planning, assessments, recovery and decision-making processes. Gender issues are ‘acknowledged’ by government agencies in Tonga, with strong gender commitments found in the sectoral policy and programmes of social welfare, health, agriculture and water (Government of Tonga, 2012a). Gender disaggregated data is also routinely used by Ministry of Health and Police Services for work planning purposes (Government of Tonga, 2012a). Tonga’s interim report states that “gender issues are generally not yet perceived as a strong driver of DRR achievements even though gender and division of labour are practiced during disasters” (Government of Tonga, 2012a:48). The report recognises the need for further strengthening of gender responsiveness in DRR policy, programme design and implementation, and disaster response and recovery.

Although Fiji had reported limited progress in gender equality and social inclusion in its HFA 2011-2013 interim report, its 2013-2015 report showed significant advances in this area. Gender, protection and human rights are recognised as cross-cutting issues for DRR and disaster risk management (DRM), and so too are the needs of vulnerable groups (Government of Fiji, 2014). Various accomplishments are reported, including the insertion of gender, protection and human rights into DRM messages, the delivery of gender and human rights awareness training for National Disaster Management Office (NDMO) staff, the availability and application of gender disaggregated data – albeit in an ad hoc manner – in workplans of government ministries (e.g., preventative health and corrections), and awareness training of NDMO staff on gender and human rights issues (Government of Fiji, 2014).

Melemaat Village (Vanuatu) -The Melemaat ring road market was a kind of one-stop-shop for commuters and tourists on their way around the island of Efate, selling cooked food, fresh produce and handicrafts. Managed by a committee made up of the women market vendors.

Photo: UN Women/Ellie van Baaren
Three common themes emerge from the assessment of PIC’s HFA interim reports. Firstly, gender is frequently cited as a new concept, which may be misconstrusted as being too challenging to address within the current scope of DRR and DRM planning. This can potentially lead to ‘gender’ being siloed as a separate issue instead of being effectively integrated into existing DRR efforts.

Secondly, provisions for vulnerable groups are made in disaster relief, response and recovery but are limited in DRR planning and policy processes, which is a strong indicator that women and vulnerable groups are viewed as victims, rather than as agents of change in DRR. People rarely question why some social groups are vulnerable. Vulnerability of women (and other groups) is naturalised which makes it harder to change. As recognised at the Third World Conference on DRR in Sendai, women’s participation and leadership is critical to building disaster resilience (UN News Centre, 2015) thus the focus needs to shift from ‘victimisation’ to ‘empowerment’ and ‘leadership’.

Thirdly, the interim reports of PICs describe more on proposed future actions and very little attention is given to what has been (or has not been) achieved to date. While some recognition of gender (in a simplistic form) may be present, implementation and action are generally lagging. Thus, serious consideration needs to be given to the integration of gender perspectives into DRR efforts in the Pacific region. Fieldwork carried out for this study shows that in countries such as Samoa, some advances are being made to ensure disaster planning and response contribute to gender equality goals and the empowerment of women. For example, the Ministry of Women, Community and Social Development (MWCS) and NDMO are taking proactive steps to involve more women in DRR project consultations, instead of them being merely observers or in some cases ‘caterers’ for community meetings. Also, gender has been included as a standard procedure for PDNAs, hence gender issues were examined in the PDNA for Cyclone Evan in 2012, and which has informed the work of the NDNO. The Samoan Red Cross is also training more women to join its emergency response teams. These positive examples are indicators that change can happen and need to be part of knowledge exchange amongst other Pacific countries and across the range of stakeholders.
Table 1. Progress reporting on gender indicators in the HFA Interim Report 2011-2013 submitted by PICs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Means of Verification/ Country</th>
<th>Gender disaggregated vulnerability and capacity assessments (Priority for Action 2: Core Indicator 1)</th>
<th>Measures taken to address gender based issues in recovery (Priority for Action 4: Core Indicator 5)</th>
<th>Plans and programmes are developed with gender sensitivities (Priority for Action 5: Core Indicator 2)</th>
<th>Post-disaster needs assessment methodologies include guidance on gender aspects (Priority for Action 5: Core Indicator 4)</th>
<th>Is gender disaggregated data available and being applied to decision-making for risk reduction and recovery activities? (Drivers of Progress Part B)</th>
<th>Do gender concerns inform policy and programme conceptualisation and implementation in a meaningful and appropriate way? (Drivers of Progress Part B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cook Islands</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Federated States of Micronesia</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fiji</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marshall Islands</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nauru</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niue</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palau</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Papua New Guinea</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Samoa</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No&lt;sup&gt;20&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solomon Islands&lt;sup&gt;21&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tonga</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vanuatu</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No&lt;sup&gt;22&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>18</sup> Information contained in the table is sourced from HFA National Progress Reports (Prevention Web, 2015).  
<sup>19</sup> Fiji’s 2013-2015 Interim Report shows significant progress with ‘yes’ being reported for all gender indicators.  
<sup>20</sup> Gender is now included in the PDNA guidelines for Samoa and was addressed in the PDNA for 2012 Cyclone Evan.  
<sup>21</sup> Solomon Islands’ Interim Report is for the 2009-2011 period.  
<sup>22</sup> Gender is now included in the PDNA guidelines and was addressed in the PDNA for 2015 Cyclone Pam.
Unlike the HFA national reports on DRR, PIC’s recent progress towards climate change adaptation and mitigation is more difficult to assess as there are no mandatory indicators on gender equality nor is there obligatory UNFCCC reporting on advances in gender equality. Parties to the UNFCCC must submit reports on the implementation of the Convention to the Conference of the Parties (COP), which for developing countries include National Communications (NCs), Biennial Update Reports (BUR) and an additional National Adaptation Programme of Actions (NAPAs) for Least Developing Countries (LDCs). Only a few of the PICs have submitted NCs and none for BUR. All PICs with LDC status have submitted NAPAs23.

The assessment of PICs’ NAPAs shows that all programmes refer to gender issues, but on superficial grounds with no in-depth analysis of the implications for climate change vulnerability and resilience. In most cases the term ‘women’ is featured in relation to their participation in community consultations and in food security programmes 24. For example, Vanuatu’s NAPA mentions the need for the participation of women’s associations, as well as smallholder farmers and youth to ensure the sustainability of food security programmes that enhance resilience to climate change (Government of Vanuatu, 2007). Similarly, the Solomon Islands’ NAPA recognises the central role played by women in agricultural production, with women’s workloads, and social and health risks increasing due to climate-induced impacts on agriculture (Government of Solomon Islands, 2008).

In terms of the Second National Communication (SNC) reports that have been submitted to UNFCCC by the PICs25, the vulnerability of women to climate change impacts is mentioned, although the evidence on this is varied. In Tonga, the SNC reported the implementation of a variety of awareness raising activities including school visits, tree planting and drama competitions, and presentations at the National Youth Council and the Church Women’s Conference (Government of Tonga, 2012b). Despite this, the actual numbers of male and female participants and the extent of their participation were not reported.

Fiji’s SNC indicated some progress in the use of gender analysis for post-disaster assessments. It cited the experiences from the March 2013 floods in the Western Division where cases of rape and incest had been reported, especially on unaccompanied women in evacuation centres (Government of Fiji, 2013b). The SNC for Fiji also highlighted the health impacts of climate change and their potential implications on women, and recommended that adaptation measures in all development sectors should aim to improve health outcomes, which include the empowerment of women. Across the Pacific, many gender-sensitive strategies and actions are proposed, yet it is difficult to tell whether these have been implemented or remain as ‘wish lists’ of what ought to happen. A standardised and agreed set of gender indicators for climate change and DRR is needed to monitor the progress of PICs and to ensure the goals of gender equality and women’s empowerment are realised.

Overall, PIC’s submitted reports to the UNFCCC show some attempt at being gender-sensitive by citing references to women and gender issues, but little evidence of being gender-responsive (as discussed above). These reports correspond directly to stereotypical gender roles and traditional divisions of labour, such as women’s domestic and reproductive roles and responsibilities associated with caring, health, hygiene, agriculture and water. Some reports mention the participation of women in consultations, although these are not substantiated by explanations of the extent of their participation and decision-making influence. There are no mentions of how women’s leadership could be enhanced in adaptation.

23 LDCs include Solomon Islands, Tuvalu, Vanuatu and Kiribati.
24 Refer to NAPAs for Vanuatu, Tuvalu and Solomon Islands.
25 This includes Fiji, Samoa and Tonga.
planning, nor their access to strategic resources such as land, finances and technologies, which are all indispensable to the realization of gender equality, women’s empowerment and resilience to climate change and disasters.

The Sendai Framework for DRR 2015-2030 is a little more explicit than the HFA concerning the inclusion of data disaggregated by gender, age, disability and cultural perspectives. It is also more explicit about raised expectations for an expansion in women’s (and youth) leadership roles, with some recognition of the organised voluntary work of citizens (although it stopped short of resourcing the latter). It is to be hoped that this new framework will provide leverage for realising more radical gender transformations in CCDRR over the coming years. However, there is no documented evidence yet upon which to draw.

Regional Scale

At the regional level, the Framework for Resilient Development in the Pacific (FRDP) 2017-2030 is a new policy framework which provides an integrated approach in addressing climate change and DRM within the context of risk resilient development (UNISDR, 2014). The FRDP supersedes the Pacific Islands Framework for Action on Climate Change 2006-2015 (PIFACC) and the Pacific Islands Disaster Risk Reduction and Disaster Management Framework for Action 2005–2015 (often referred to as the Regional Framework for Action or ‘RFA’).

The process of developing the new regional strategy - often referred to as the ‘Roadmap’ - involved insights, experiences and lessons learned from a diverse range of sectors relevant to supporting resilience, and specifically includes insights from gender practitioners (SPC, 2014a). The impetus for the engagement of gender practitioners in the ‘Roadmap’ came from the development of the Pacific Gender and Climate Change Toolkit by the Secretariat of the Pacific Community, GIZ, UN Women, UNDP and SPREP26. To this end, the FDRP specifically advocates for gender-balanced actions that provide equal opportunities for women and men in decision-making processes, active and consistent engagement of women’s groups and the use of gender-disaggregated data to build disaster and climate resilience in the Pacific (SPC, 2014a).

In addition to the FRDP, there is also a plethora of regional agreements on gender equality in regards to climate change adaptation and mitigation, and DRR. These include the Majuro Declaration on Climate Leadership (2013), the Pacific Leaders Gender Equality Declaration (2012), the Regional Action Plan on Women, Peace, and Security (2012), the Final Communiqué of the 40th Pacific Islands Forum, including the Pacific Platform for Action on Advancement of Women and Gender Equality (2013), the outcomes of the 5th Pacific Women’s Ministerial Meeting, and the 12th Triennial Conference of Pacific Women (2013). The latter argued that climate change was no longer an emerging issue but a critical regional priority and called on Council of Regional Organisations in the Pacific (CROP) agencies and development partners to increase and strengthen gender mainstreaming within climate change and DRR sectors, recognise cultural knowledge and skills of women, and emphasise the importance of collecting sex disaggregated data to monitor the effectiveness of adaptation and mitigation initiatives (SPC, 2013).

Another regional meeting, the Ha Noi Recommendations for Action, adopted at The Regional Asia-Pacific Conference on Gender and Disaster Risk Reduction (2016), produced recommendations which went beyond a simplistic inclusion of gender/women and recognised diversity within women and girls (age, disability, ethnicity, migrant status, socio-economic status, sexual orientation and gender identity) and recognised the leadership capacity of women and girls that already exists.

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26 SPC/GIZ, personal comm., 24 February 2015.
unacknowledged and invisible, at the local level and the need to empower them to use it effectively\textsuperscript{27}.

These regional agreements indicate that there is some political commitment and an increasing recognition of the link between gender, climate change and disasters, and the issues of gender equality and women’s empowerment are consistently featuring in regional deliberations on climate change and DRR. The regional strategies and mandates serve as entry points for advocacy, policy formulation and implementation as well as monitoring progress to ensure the full realisation of commitments at the national and community levels.

\subsection*{3.1.2 National legislation and policy}

While the regional political commitment to strengthen gender equality in climate change and DRR is quite strong, translating these commitments into national policies and action remains a challenge. National legislation and regulatory frameworks are important mechanisms for building resilience to disasters. By establishing clear mechanisms, procedures and responsibilities for disaster preparedness, response and recovery, it enables the effective management and planning of disaster risks and the protection of citizens and property. To this end, the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction, adopted in March 2015, calls for a renewed focus on strengthening disaster management legislation through legal reviews and reforms (UNISDR, 2015).

As presented in Table 2 below, nearly all disaster management laws of PICs are ‘gender blind’, indicating the absence of any reference to the disproportionate impacts disasters have on women and children\textsuperscript{28}. Only the disaster management laws of Fiji and Samoa mention the representation of national women’s machineries on the respective national disaster committee\textsuperscript{29}. This is very different to Asia, where gender and protection issues are recognised in national disaster management legislation.

\begin{footnotesize}
\begin{enumerate}
\item The ‘Ha Noi Recommendations for Action’ which was adopted at the Regional Asia-Pacific Conference on Gender and Disaster Risk Reduction organised by UN Women and the Government of Viet Nam, in collaboration with UNISDR, UNDP, and other partners, with support from the Government of Japan, 16-18 May 2016. http://asiapacific.unwomen.org/en/news-and-events/stories/2016/05/women-hold-key-to-addressing-disaster-risks.
\item The study reviewed disaster management laws of Nauru, Cook Islands, Tonga, Samoa, Tuvalu, Fiji, Kiribati, Solomon Islands, Papua New Guinea and Marshall Islands.
\item Refer to Fiji National Disaster Management Act 1998 and Samoa Disaster and Emergency Management Act 2007.
\end{enumerate}
\end{footnotesize}
### Table 2. Gender assessment of PICs disaster management legislation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Year of the Act</th>
<th>Recognition of gender differential impacts/call for women’s participation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cook Islands</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>Completely gender-blind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fiji</td>
<td>1998</td>
<td>Permanent Secretary for Women and Culture is on the Disaster Management Council and the Disaster Preparedness Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kiribati</td>
<td>1993</td>
<td>Completely gender-blind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marshall Islands</td>
<td>1987</td>
<td>Completely gender-blind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nauru</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>Completely gender-blind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Papua New Guinea</td>
<td>1984</td>
<td>Completely gender-blind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Samoa</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>Recognises the Ministry of Women, Community and Social Development as one of the response agencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solomon Islands</td>
<td>1990</td>
<td>Completely gender-blind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tonga</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>Completely gender-blind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuvalu</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>Completely gender-blind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vanuatu</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Completely gender-blind</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similarly, national DRM policies of PICs have a narrow consideration for gender issues. The national disaster management policies of the Cook Islands, Papua New Guinea, and Vanuatu all use gender-neutral discourse. National DRM policies that make references to gender issues are not backed by specific strategies to address and reduce the perceived vulnerability on women, and to recognise the different roles, knowledge and capacities of men and women in building community resilience to climate change and disasters (see Box 3).

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30 Information sourced from legislation contained in the International Federation of Red Cross Disaster Law Database (IFRC, 2015).

31 Most of the Disaster Acts were drafted and passed in the 1990s, when gender equality was not seen as a key catalyst for disaster resilience. In addition, the focus of most of these laws was on disaster management rather than on DRR and DRM, except for Nauru.

32 It should be noted that in many PICs, Departments of Women Affairs are often housed within the Ministry of Internal Affairs, which is often represented in the National Disaster Committee.
Box 3. Considerations of gender issues in disaster risk reduction (DRR) policy in Republic of Marshall Islands (RMI) and Solomon Islands

The Republic of Marshall Islands’ (RMI) National Disaster Management Plan recognises that women and children are at risk of health issues due to their exposure to solid waste found in settling ponds and sea outlets (Government of Marshall Islands, 2012). However, no specific actions are identified to address this vulnerability nor is there any further mention of gender differentials of disasters in the rest of the plan. This is despite women’s groups being identified in the plan as being one of the active and pivotal civil society organisations (Government of Marshall Islands, 2012). A most probable reason for this lies with how the government perceives the role of civil society, not just in RMI but throughout all PICs. NGOs are responsible for service delivery and implementing government policies but they are not key participants in the drafting or design of policies and plans. Indeed, this was the case for the 2013 drought in RMI, where women who are involved in Women United Together for Marshall Islands (WUTMI) played a key role in the delivery, monitoring and evaluation of food distribution packages to the outer islands. The National Disaster Management Office recognises that without organisations like WUTMI, it will be difficult to provide disaster relief to all communities and most importantly, ensure that relief packages are not misappropriated and are distributed fairly to people in need.

In contrast to other national DRR policies, the Solomon Islands’ Disaster Risk Management Plan is more gender responsive and recognises women’s participation in DRM arrangements and “equity, fairness, gender and minority group issues” as key principles of the plan (Government of Solomon Islands, 2009:15). The role of women in DRM is strongly emphasised throughout the plan, particularly the role of women in relation to welfare, relief distribution and shelter which are identified as areas where women are ‘expected’ to be exercising leadership in decision-making (Government of Solomon Islands, 2009). This is supported by specific provisions that articulate the involvement of women in DRM operations and decisions: the Ministry of Women, Youth and Children is included in the National Disaster Council and relevant sub-committees; each provincial disaster committee is to include a woman’s representative; and women’s associations are to be represented on the national disaster cluster groups for welfare and internally displaced persons (IDPs), and livelihoods, as well as on the welfare and shelter, and livelihood sub-committees for recovery coordination.

The Government of Samoa has taken steps to strengthen gender equality in DRM strategies as well as capacity development of its DRM stakeholders. The draft national DRM Strategy has a substantial analysis of gender issues in relation to disasters. In addition, the Samoa Disaster Management Office has a draft gender and DRM policy that specifically looks at how gender equality and women’s empowerment will be addressed through DRM, and the responsibilities for its implementations.

In general, however, it becomes apparent from this study that international and regional commitments on gender equality – as captured in the CEDAW, BPFA, Revised Pacific Platform for Action on the Advancement of Women and Gender Equality, as well as various other DRR-related agreements – have not been fully reflected or translated into disaster management legislation and policies in PICs. In this respect, gender equality and the empowerment of women in relation to disaster management remains merely a promise with no necessary legal and policy backing and support. Neither is there adequate understanding or expression of rights-based approaches to gender, rather than needs-based approaches which tend...
towards blanket representations of women and girls as vulnerable victims rather than equal rights holders who are being denied proper and equal access to positions of power and authority. Gender-responsiveness of national climate change policies differs between PICs. Some countries such as Papua New Guinea and Samoa, overlook gender issues altogether while others such as Fiji and Tonga, mention gender only in passing without further explanation or specific policy directives. Climate change policies of Solomon Islands and Cook Islands stand out as good examples, as they make gender-specific provisions to ensure that the needs and participation of women are considered. The Solomon Islands’ National Climate Change Policy 2012-2017 has an explicit focus on vulnerable groups and on gender equality (Government of Solomon Islands, 2012). For instance, one of the guiding principles of the policy is the respect for indigenous people’s culture and rights, and gender equity and involvement of youth, children and people with special needs. The policy also specifically mentions gender analysis and for gender issues to be considered in vulnerability and disaster risk assessments, and in adaptation actions, as well as the participation of women and young people to build their adaptive capacity (Government of Solomon Islands, 2012). The involvement of the Ministry of Women, Youth and Children’s Affairs in the National Climate Change Council and its thematic working groups are also articulated in the policy.

The Cook Islands’ Joint National Action Plan for DRM and Climate Change Adaptation 2011-2015 is another example where gender perspectives have been recognised and integrated into all strategic areas. It specifically identifies the need for a gender responsive approach in climate change vulnerability assessments, health and climate change adaptation plans, local level DRM and climate change adaptation plans, public outreach and education programmes and post-disaster needs assessments (Government of Cook Islands, 2012). Stronger participation of women in DRM and climate change adaptation institutions is also articulated. The inconsistent reference to and integration of gender issues into national climate change policies of PICs calls for a more standardised and uniform approach in embedding gender perspectives into the formulation and implementation of national climate change policies.

This study also finds that while climate change policies may feature gender rhetoric and be supported by specific gender-responsive actions, it cannot be automatically assumed that they are put into implementation and practice. For example, the gender assessment of the Tuvalu NAPA1/+ Project showed that the Te Kakeega II (the National Development Plan) made explicit commitment to “promote gender equity and expand the role of women in development”, however this did not match the real situation: only one out of 15 MPs was a woman, and the Project Board and Technical Working Committee meetings had a greater attendance of men than women (Bernard, 2013). In the Pacific region, what is lacking is action; ensuring that policy commitments are followed through and realised. This is indeed the case for gender equality and the empowerment of women, where a lack of political will, institutional capacity and resources, act as bottlenecks for the delivery of pragmatic and tangible actions on gender.

Climate change and DRR are featured in several national gender equality policies of PICs. The gender policies of Cook Islands, Fiji, RMI, Samoa, Tuvalu and Vanuatu recognise the link between gender, climate change and DRR, and go as far as articulating it as a strategic policy objective or action. These policies substantively address gender issues with the focus being primarily on the need for understanding of how men and women are affected by climate change and disaster impacts in different ways (most suggesting the use of gender analysis to achieve

33 Refer to SPC’s regional stocktake of the gender mainstreaming capacity of PICs. Available at http://sids-liisd.org/news/spc-publishes-gender-mainstreaming-assessments/
this), their participation in climate change and disaster planning, as well as the need for greater empowerment of women in decision-making on climate change and DRR issues.

Gender policies that particularly need to be strengthened are those of Niue and Solomon Islands. The gender policy for Niue mentions climate change in passing as an area that requires gender analysis with no specific objectives or actions mentioned. The link between gender and DRR is completely missing from the policy. Similarly, the Solomon Islands gender policy makes no mention of gender and DRR and it only goes as far as citing climate change as an emerging issue. Both Niue and Solomon Islands’ gender policies need strengthening to ensure the relationship between gender, climate change and DRR is recognised and is backed by clear policy directives.

Gender policies that provide due attention to climate change and DRR can be divided into two distinct categories (see Box 4 for examples): one sees gender, climate change and DRR being prioritised as a stand-alone policy outcome (Cook Islands, Fiji and Tonga) while the other approach sees it as part of the broader gender mainstreaming agenda for all government sectors (RMI, Tuvalu, and Vanuatu). The main concern is not a matter of which approach is best as this depends on the context and political dynamics of each country, but whether the policy statements are implemented. Recognising the link between gender, climate change and DRR in policy documents, while important, has little meaning if they are not translated into practice. Yet this is a very common scenario for PICs.
Box 4. Gender policies, climate change and DRR: Stand-alone vs mainstreaming approaches

The Cook Islands’ National Policy on Gender Equality and Women’s Empowerment uses the standalone approach. The goal of the policy is “to advance gender equality and enhance women’s empowerment ensuring the active contribution and meaningful participation of both Cook Islands women and men in all spheres, and at all levels, of development and decision making” (Government of Cook Islands, 2012:8). The policy contains six priority outcomes, one of which is focused on enhancing women’s capacity to contribute to climate change adaptation. Specifically, stated actions to achieve this outcome include: identifying differential vulnerability of women to climate change and disasters; building the capacity of women to respond to climate change and disaster impacts; integrating gender-responsive policies and programmes on climate change adaptation, DRR and natural resource management; allocating resources from external climate funding to address women’s needs and to build their capacity; and networking with regional and international organisations to promote gender mainstreaming in climate change and DRR strategies (Government of Cook Islands, 2012). The policy further recognises the need for gender-responsive energy efficient technologies and the potential leadership role of women in developing and implementing climate change and DRR strategies. The policy clearly articulates the gender considerations in climate change and DRR and is supported by tangible actions for implementation.

In comparison, the National Gender Policy of Tuvalu identifies gender, climate change and DRR as being part of sector-wide gender mainstreaming rather than as a stand-alone policy outcome. Increasing the capacity of all government sectors to address gender equality and women’s empowerment is articulated as one of the outcomes of the policy (Government of Tuvalu, 2014). This is supported by key actions for each sector, including: conducting gender analysis in agriculture, fisheries and natural resources sectors to identify differential roles, knowledge and needs of men and women; building the capacity of women in DRM, climate change adaptation and natural resource management; and supporting the equitable participation of women and men in decision-making.

The effectiveness of the sectoral gender mainstreaming approach compared to the stand-alone approach in advancing gender equality in climate change and DRR is an area that warrants further monitoring and research as PICs implement their gender policies. However, the consensus around gender mainstreaming is that both are required, along with the appropriate monitoring and other checks, to enable effective translation of policy into practice.

The policy landscape for addressing gender equality in climate change action and DRR is uneven if not convoluted. The PICs have adopted global and regional policies that articulate gender equality priorities, however the translation of these at the national level is limited, with a few exceptions such as the Solomon Islands and Samoa. In general, the Pacific DRR legislative policy scenery is gender-blind, while the national policies and strategies have mixed results. However, where gender equality is addressed it is largely constructed in a manner that is superficial and depicts women as victims rather than agents of change who can play a leading role in climate change measures and DRR. The priorities of the Sendai Framework and the outcomes of the COP 21 could offer a new impetus for the region to revise policies and commit to tackling the gender dimensions of climate change and DRR in a socially transformative way.
3.2 Institutional arrangements

To effectively address gender equality in climate change actions and DRR, the institutions with climate change and DRR mandates must have the capabilities and knowledge, and have mechanisms in place to make this a reality. This sphere deals with organisational and institutional aspects of gender, climate change and DRR mainstreaming processes. This includes: a) a clear location of responsibility for gender mainstreaming in climate change and DRR within relevant ministries or organisations; b) internal procedures and incentives to ensure a sustainable integration of gender equality into a department’s activities; c) strength of capacities to carry out effectively the outlined roles and responsibilities; and d) coordination and strong partnerships within and outside an organisation (particularly looking at the ability and space for civil society to influence CCDRR policies and strategies).

In the Pacific region, the mandate for gender equality often falls to ministries and departments responsible for women’s affairs. As evidenced in the previous section, while there is a stronger integration of climate change and DRR in national gender policies, effective implementation of these policies is somewhat precarious. Given that in most PICs, women’s machineries have limited political power of advocacy, technical capacity and financial resources for policy and programme delivery\(^\text{34}\), the challenge remains whether policy commitments can be turned into action on the ground, especially in climate change and DRR sectors which, like gender equality, are in the process of being mainstreamed into other development sectors.

Women’s machineries in PICs face various challenges in influencing climate change and DRR processes at the national level. In RMI, gender and women’s affairs sit within the portfolio of the Ministry of Internal Affairs. The Ministry does not have the necessary financial, human or technical resources to drive gender mainstreaming in climate change and DRR sectors. Neither does WUTMI, a key NGO for women, which is entirely dependent on project funding to pay for its staff positions. The consultation conducted as part of this study finds that since WUTMI has no legal or statutory endorsement from the government, communities are not obliged to implement the atoll development plans prepared with WUTMI’s assistance. The plans, which include priority actions on building climate resilience, have been developed through extensive consultation and action planning exercises with men, women and youth. This not only weakens the influence of the action plans but WUTMI’s efforts to introduce gender responsive climate change planning and to ensure women and youth – who are not always represented in climate change discussions – are involved in deciding adaptation strategies for their communities.

This study also finds that in Samoa, the Ministry of Women, Community and Social Development (MWCS) is involved in two major national-level climate change projects: The Integration of Climate Change Risks and Resilience into Forestry Management in Samoa (ICCRIFS) implemented by the Ministry of Natural Resources and

\(^{34}\) Refer to SPC’s regional stocktake of the gender mainstreaming capacity of PICs. Available at http://sids-liisd.org/news/spc-publishes-gender-mainstreaming-assessments/
Energy (MNRE); and the Strengthening Climate Resilience in the Tourism Sector Project, overseen by the Samoa Tourism Authority (STA). According to consultations with MWCSD, the ministry has limited institutional influence and funding, which act as barriers for enhancing the gender equality and women’s empowerment outcomes of these projects. This is despite MWCSD being well-equipped to mobilise women’s village committees and engage them in climate change and DRR projects. It also has experience in developing sustainable development plans and community development sector plans. Key informants from MWCSD believe that in future, the MNRE should assign MWCSD to lead the gender and community components of climate change projects and allocate budgets in support of such activities.

In each PIC, specific committees and taskforces have been established at the national level to provide strategic coordination for all matters relating to climate change and DRR. These governance structures are largely male-dominated, one reason being the low proportion of women in public service, particularly in senior leadership roles.

The membership of national climate change and DRR structures is not always inclusive of all government ministries, thus does not guarantee the representation of ministries and departments responsible for women’s affairs. For example, in Tonga, the Joint National Action Plan (JNAP), a main strategic planning instrument for CCDRR, and the JNAP Taskforce is made up of 12 ministries, statutory authorities and CSOs, however the Ministry of Internal Affairs (MIA), which has the mandate for mainstreaming gender equality into development plans, is not party to this instrument. This means that MIA has limited opportunity to influence the climate change and DRR agenda (Government of Tonga, 2015). However, in Vanuatu, women’s machineries and NGOs are represented in relevant governance structures at the national level and their influence is increasing in the fields of climate change, DRR and humanitarian response (see Box 5).

**Box 5. Representation of women’s machineries in humanitarian structures**

Vanuatu has a well-functioning cluster system for humanitarian response that covers gender and protection, agriculture and food security, health and nutrition, education, logistics and water, sanitation and hygiene. The Gender and Protection Cluster was established in 2014 and is responsible for mainstreaming gender and social protection issues into disaster and humanitarian response. It is chaired by the Department of Women’s Affairs and NGO co-chairs include CARE (a lead agency focusing on gender issues) and Save the Children (focusing on child protection). Interviews with members of the Cluster found it was meeting on a regular basis and undertaking work to identify its purpose, priorities and required resources.

Vanuatu’s National Advisory Board (NAB) on climate change and DRR, which functions as a coordination body for all climate change and DRR programmes in the country, includes directors from all government ministries, including the only two female directors within the public service (from Departments of Women’s Affairs and Internal Affairs). The DWA has been advocating for a greater focus on gender and climate change through its representation on the NAB and is liaising with the Ministry of Climate Change to ensure NAB members receive gender training as a matter of priority. In addition, the issues and needs of women have been recognised in sectoral climate change policies for agriculture, livestock, forestry and energy.
While the PICS have national governance structures on gender equality, climate change and DRR in place, these are sometimes incompatible: there is an observed lack of effective communication and collaboration between institutions, which also translates into gender-blind policies and legislation. Government and non-government agencies generally work on either gender equality or climate change and DRR but not both: these are viewed as separate rather than complementary or interrelated sectors. Therefore, in many countries there are few existing pathways for strategic coordination of activities and sharing of data and best practice that fully integrate gender into climate change and DRR efforts.

The mandate for addressing climate change and disasters rests with climate change ministries or departments and NDMOs respectively in each country and the ability of these institutions to incorporate issues of gender equality is limited. While there is general awareness of the relationship between gender equality and disasters and climate change, the technical know-how is still missing. Gender and climate change or DRR training has been offered to some officers from NDMOs and climate change agencies (as this study found in the case of Ministry of Climate Change in Vanuatu), together with training conducted by SPC, GIZ, and UN Women across the region. Furthermore, gender mainstreaming resource material, specific for island countries and to the Pacific, are also available to assist national governments in mainstreaming gender equality into these thematic areas. However, as gender falls outside of their work responsibilities, what is learned in training may not be ‘applied’. Lack of ongoing mentoring, incentives and organisational support for gender may also hamper such efforts. One strategy for mainstreaming gender across whole-of-government processes is the establishment of gender focal points, a dedicated position responsible for addressing gender issues within a specific sector or ministry. In Federated States of Micronesia and Solomon Islands, there is a gender focal point for the climate change/environment portfolio. Other PICS do not have gender focal points in NDMOs and climate change agencies. It is important to flag Papua New Guinea’s experience of gender focal points: they have come and gone in different sectors due to the absence of clear terms of reference (ToR), focal points were not appropriately qualified and generally had ‘gender’ tagged onto their normal duties, and they lacked support from senior executives (SPC, 2012). Accordingly, the effectiveness of gender focal points is questionable and would need to be further investigated to see if such arrangements do have any positive effects on mainstreaming gender into CCDRR.

The consultation undertaken for this study provides some possible explanation as to why NDMOs and climate change ministries have not readily adopted gender perspectives in their approaches and areas of work. In general, the capacities and knowledge of these line ministries and department to effectively mainstream gender equality is quite limited. For example, the term ‘gender’, and its relevance to their sector, is not well understood by climate change and DRR officers (nor by the general population). There is a widespread misunderstanding that gender means women, which results in the issue being automatically referred to the ministry or department responsible for women’s affairs. This in turn silos gender as a separate distinct sector rather than as a cross-cutting theme that affects all development matters, including climate change and DRR. Furthermore, there appears to be a perception that ‘gender’ is a new concept which is beyond the technical knowledge and capacity of NDMOs and climate change ministries, hence is considered “too hard” to deal with. Again, this leads to gender issues being referred directly to women’s machineries and siloed from broader climate change and DRR planning processes.

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35 See Integrating Gender in Disaster Management in Small Island developing States: A Guide developed in 2012; and The Pacific Gender and Climate Change Toolkit developed in 2013
Civil society organisations (CSOs) across the Pacific do have the capacity that is lacking in government institutions. Although, the ability of CSOs to support and influence national climate change and DRR institutions and policy making processes varies between PICs. While women’s organisations in the PICs seem to be very active and strong in advocating for gender equality and in promoting women’s issues, the problem lies in the, often tense, relations between government and civil society. On the one hand CSOs are given limited space to participate in policy making yet on the other hand, governments are very willing to involve CSOs for policy implementation and service delivery purposes. There is a difference between simply outsourcing elements of a work programme to women and women’s CSOs, and engaging in meaningful participatory joint programming inclusive of women and CSOs. Nonetheless, this study finds that the situation is changing: For example, momentum is building in Vanuatu to strengthen partnerships between the government and CSOs in the development and delivery of climate change and DRR policies and plans (see Box 6).

The institutional arrangements for effective integration of gender equality in climate change and DRR are inadequate and need further strengthening. The relevant institutions have limited mechanisms for cooperation, which limits the gender machineries’ ability to influence climate change and DRR formulation and implementation. Furthermore, climate change and DRR practitioners have only a basic understanding of gender equality, which is often skewed towards the perception that gender equality equates to women, and points to why the Pacific climate change and DRR policies have only superficially addressed gender equality. While CSOs in the Pacific have substantial practical experience in addressing gender equality in climate change action and DRR at the community level, when it comes to policy, they lack the space to influence the climate change and DRR discourse within government entities.

Box 6. Civil society organisation (CSO) influence on climate change and disaster risk reduction (DRR) policy

The Vanuatu Climate Action Network (VCAN), which represents the voices of marginalised groups, is a member of the National Advisory Board on Climate Change and DRR. The VCAN, together with other CSOs, were directly involved in drafting the adaptation section of the government’s climate change and DRR policy. Consultation carried out for this study indicates that CSO involvement in the policy drafting process had a significant influence on the final policy document, which addresses the needs of vulnerable groups, including women, youth, children and people with disabilities. The final policy also contains policy directives on gender and social inclusion, which was strongly advocated by CSOs. This example indicates a new era of government-CSO relations, at least in Vanuatu, which is a positive step for enhancing trust, communication and information sharing between governments and CSOs.
3.3 Implementation and practice

This sphere deals with measures that ensure and promote the conversion of policies into practice. Without actual implementation of CCDRR strategies resulting in programmes and projects that are truly gender-responsive, gendered CCDRR policies are of no importance. Components of the sphere include: a) how climate financing and investments address gender equality; b) how gender equality is addressed in CCDRR by CSOs; and c) monitoring and evaluating the gender impact.

The Pacific region is not short of climate change adaptation and mitigation, and DRR projects. There are a large number of projects supported by the World Bank (WB), UN agencies, the Asian Development Bank (ADB) and bilateral donors including Australia, New Zealand, Germany, Japan, the European Union (EU) and the United States (U.S). Multilateral agencies such as UNDP, WB and ADB are mandated by their respective operational policy standards and safeguards to ensure that all their programmes and projects contribute to social and environmental sustainability.

However, despite this mandate, an analysis of Global Environment Facility (GEF)-funded projects in the Pacific reveals a different story. Forty-two GEF projects worth over US$ 740 million have been implemented over past five years in the Pacific. Analysis shows that addressing gender equality in practice is a challenge for the whole region. Of the 42 projects analysed, only two projects included technical, and financial resources for actioning gender equality. Thus, 95 percent of GEF projects in the Pacific do not go beyond simply mentioning gender equality to practically implement activities that can be budgeted, monitored and measured against.

Gender Analysis of Pacific GEF Projects

One third of the projects are completely gender-blind. This is despite the majority of projects focusing on energy, agriculture, water resources, promotion of community resilience, and coastal zone management; areas that are either within the domain of women’s activities, roles and responsibilities or directly impact upon women and girls. Around 50 percent mention gender, although in many cases this pertains to representing women as vulnerable or refers to mere participation of women in project meetings as indicated in Table 3 below. In relation to DRR, the trend is for poor performance by PICs on delivering on gender equality as discussed under the Policy Sphere.

36 It should be noted that the analysis that follows is largely focused on climate change projects largely because these are accessible on GEF, WB and UNDP web pages. More information is needed to assess how gender equality is addressed in DRR projects.

37 See UNDP’s Social and Environmental Standards and ADB’s Social and Environmental Safeguards. The WB’s Social and Environmental Safeguard Policies are being reviewed and integrated into a proposed Environmental and Social Framework.

38 It should be noted that the analysis was based on the review of project documents rather an assessment of how the projects were implemented, which means that it is possible projects that appear to be largely gender-blind could have strengthened the gender dimensions in practice later (and not reported this) or vice versa. The assessment is also was not restricted to climate change but included biodiversity projects.
Table 3. Gender assessment of selected climate change (CC) and disaster risk reduction (DRR) projects in PICs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Project Name</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Recognition of gender roles/access to productive resources/participation and decision-making</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Community Resilience to Climate and Disaster Risk in Solomon Islands Project³⁹</td>
<td>Solomon Islands</td>
<td>The vulnerability of women and children recognised in project documents. Percentage of women involved in village-level sub-implementation committees identified as an intermediate results indicator for the project, however no progress or achievement is reported for this indicator.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing Resilience to Climate Change and Natural Hazards in Vanuatu⁴⁰</td>
<td>Vanuatu</td>
<td>The project implementation status and results report states that women farmers have been trained in improving cropping practices. No further reporting on gender issues.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhancing the Resilience of Tourism-reliant Communities to Climate Change Risks⁴¹</td>
<td>Samoa</td>
<td>Gender analysis completed as part of the project design phase. Recommendations included the delivery of gender capacity training for the tourism sector and the integration of gender and socio-economic factors in the final selection, design, budgeting, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation plan for the project. However, the recommendations have not been translated into the implementation phase.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

³⁹ The project responds to the need for improved disaster response and DRR coordination in the Solomon Islands. See: http://www.worldbank.org/projects/P112613?lang=en

⁴⁰ The project aims to increase the resilience of communities in Vanuatu to the impacts of climate change and natural hazards on food and water security, and livelihoods. See: http://www.worldbank.org/projects/P112611/increasing-resilience-climate-change-natural-hazards-vanuatu?lang=en&tab=overview

⁴¹ The project focuses on building the climate resilience of the tourism sector through policy processes and adaptation actions by tourism operators and tourism-reliant communities. See: http://www.thegef.org/gef/project_detail?projID=4585
The assessment of the selected projects above and related documentation shows gender issues are poorly considered in the design, implementation and monitoring phases. In most cases, gender equality is not identified explicitly in project documents as a key objective, thus there are no gender-specific indicators or outcomes, making it difficult to track how or whether these projects are contributing to gender equality and the empowerment of women.

Similar findings were found in Tonga, where selected national climate change and DRR projects were assessed on their gender-sensitive design using the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC) Gender Marker, a coding system developed in response to UN and humanitarian agency demands for tracking gender allocations of humanitarian interventions. It revealed nearly half of all projects were completely gender-blind and another quarter of all projects had limited or purely cosmetic reference to gender or social vulnerability (Government of Tonga, 2015). The likelihood of completely overlooking gender issues increased for projects directly funded between a donor and a line ministry (Government of Tonga, 2015), whereas projects that involved ADB or UNDP as an implementing partner had a better chance of gender issues being integrated into the project design (Government of Tonga, 2015). Furthermore, consultations carried out for this study showed that if project budgets do not have allocations for implementing listed gender activities and recommendations, then they do not follow through to implementation; leading to a mismatch between project design and delivery (see Box 7).

Box 7. Mismatch between project design and delivery

The Samoa Tourism Authority (STA) and UNDP’s Enhancing the Resilience of Tourism-Reliant Communities to Climate Change Risks Project considered gender issues early in the project planning cycle (AECOM and Shon, 2013). Gender analysis was conducted to identify how the project could be aligned with national development goals and how it can best engage men and women in decision-making on, and implementation of, adaptation options. The outcome of the gender analysis resulted in two proposed recommendations: the delivery of gender capacity training within the tourism sector; and integrating gender considerations and socio-economic factors into the final selection, design, budgeting, implementation, and monitoring evaluation plan for the project (AECOM and Shon, 2013).

According to the STA, identified recommendations had not been translated into action; the suggested training on gender for the tourism sector had morphed into a more general training on climate change and, as there was no budget allocation for the implementation of the recommendations on gender, no gender-specific activities have been carried out. Having no budget has also meant that aside from the design stage, no gender experts have been engaged in the project. Although the climate risk and vulnerability assessments undertaken as part of the project did involve men, women and youth, the decision on who participates was left to the decision of village chiefs and there was no conscious effort to ensure gender parity or organise separate meetings for men and women to cater for their needs and availability. Moreover, the project has neither any focus nor any intent to gather information on gender aspects of climate change and how this affects the tourism sector. This is despite STA noting that in Samoa, evidence on gender-differentiated impacts of climate change and understanding on how climate change stressors exacerbate gender inequality were both lacking.
In an example from a regional climate change project, the gender assessment of the Pacific Adaptation to Climate Change (PACC) Programme⁴², implemented in 15 PICs, found that gender considerations were generally lacking across the programme (PACC Programme, 2014). The assessment revealed the tendency of PACC design and planning processes to assume neutrality of climate change impacts: they did not explicitly identify groups that were vulnerable to climate change nor did they specify the beneficiaries; no consideration was given to gender differences in roles and resource use; and references to ‘people, communities and stakeholders’ included everyone in the target community with no distinctions made between men, women, youth and other specific groups (PACC Programme, 2014). Lack of sex disaggregated data and reporting on the gender breakdown of consultation findings were also noted in the PACC gender assessment. The outputs of PACC’s activities in climate change mainstreaming did demonstrate some evidence in including gender-specific strategies however, in all cases, the integration of gender perspectives was missing from climate change policies (PACC Programme, 2014).

A more positive example from Samoa shows that integration of gender equality from the start of the climate change project design can be achieved. A critical factor, however, seems to be the inclusion of a gender expert in the project design team. One of the positive examples of substantive gender mainstreaming through project formulation and gender budgeting is the project titled ‘Economy-wide integration of climate change adaptation and disaster risk management to reduce climate vulnerability of communities in Samoa’ implemented by the Government of Samoa with technical support from UNDP Samoa. This project made gender equality an integral part of its project design. It aims to identify and strengthen the livelihoods of women through livelihood diversification. The project has an additional US$500,000 allocated towards the implementation of these activities, as well as strengthening youth resilience to climate change. Interviews conducted by UN Women with UNDP Samoa and a USAID-funded Adapt Asia-Pacific programme in Bangkok, (which aims to support national government in mainstreaming gender through project proposals) shows that the success of substantive gender mainstreaming and allocation of specific budgets for the implementation of gender equality and climate change activities is largely attributed to the presence of a gender and climate change specialist as part of the project formulation team during the early project design stage.

This study finds that gender assessments do feature strongly in NGO-led climate change adaptation programmes. Examples include: Fiji Red Cross’ research on the link between gender, disaster and HIV (Lane and McNaught, 2009); the World Wildlife Fund’s (WWF) vulnerability mapping, also in Fiji (Lane and McNaught, 2009); Samoa Red Cross’ Community-Based Health and First Aid project (Gero, Méheux, and Dominey-Howes, 2010); Live and Learn’s food security project in Vanuatu and Solomon Islands (Live and Learn, 2010); and the International Union on the Conservation of Nature’s renewable energy project in Vanuatu (SPC et al, 2014). The approach adopted by NGOs for conducting gender analysis varies widely: gender-sensitive (Red Cross), community-based (World Wildlife Fund for Nature), human rights-based (Oxfam) and women’s empowerment (CARE) are some examples. Some NGOs have institutionalised minimum criteria on gender equality as part of their programming practice. In Vanuatu, CARE International and Red Cross have institutionalised minimum criteria on gender equality into their programming practice. For instance, gender parity must be ensured in all community disaster committees supported by the Red Cross, and sex and age disaggregated data must be collected for disaster risk assessments. CARE’s

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⁴² PACC is the largest climate change adaptation initiative in the Pacific region funded by SPREP, UNDP, Australian Aid, UNITAR and GEF. The programme commenced in 2009 and is nearing completion.
programmes are all required to report on sex and age disaggregated data, attain gender balance for consultations and promote women’s leadership in decision-making. CARE has also undertaken baseline assessment in the southern island of Tanna to inform its work on gender analysis, and the information has been used to inform its post-Cyclone Pam relief efforts.

In the Pacific, most international NGO projects factor in gender sensitivity into their programming approach by conducting gender-sensitive vulnerability assessments and undertaking consultation activities that enable men and women to express their opinions and participate in climate change and DRR projects. However, in Tonga, the Climate Financing and Risk Governance Assessment found that although many CSOs expressed a strong desire to undertake gender analysis and mainstream gender into climate change and DRR projects, they lacked the confidence to do so (Government of Tonga, 2015). The idea of developing a standard operating procedure (SOP) and associated technical guidelines for gender and social protection was consistently supported by the CSOs (Government of Tonga, 2015).

International NGOs are leading the process of incorporating gender considerations into vulnerability assessments and into the design and implementation of climate change and DRR projects. However, some NGOs (including international, national and local NGOs) require capacity building and technical guidance in gender analysis and mainstreaming gender into climate change and DRR projects. Greater collaboration and information sharing between governments, donors and NGOs could improve the availability of data and evidence on gender impacts of climate change and DRR, which in turn can facilitate gender mainstreaming within climate change and DRR project processes.

However, it is less clear how gender equality is addressed in DRR programmes and projects. The lack of access to DRR projects makes it difficult to ascertain. There is a sense that most DRR projects are focused on structural measures, such as retaining seawalls, and less so on non-structural issues related to social development. Similarly, an analysis of climate change mitigation was not possible due to lack of accessible data. The Heinrich Böll Stiftung (HBF) and Overseas Development Institute (ODI) show however, that as much as 60 percent of all climate finance in East Asia and the Pacific since 2003 has gone towards climate change mitigation, while only 20 percent has been allocated to adaptation. Yet, climate change mitigation activities, such as renewable energy and clean technologies, can be effective in achieving economic independence and empowerment of women. Another missing component which requires further investigation is to understand how national and NGO climate change programmes and projects are reducing the vulnerability of women. Building resilience of different gender groups goes beyond the typical participation of women and men in climate change meetings. It requires transformative change that challenges the underlying inequalities that make women vulnerable to climate change and disasters and lifting women and men to livelihoods that are non-farm based and less exposed to disasters.

In general, the Pacific has a long way to go in specifically building the resilience of women in addressing gender equality and empowering women through climate change action and DRR. Large-scale projects by national government, the banks, UN and bilateral donors appear to pay lip service to gender equality but with no technical and financial resources to make this a reality. This study indicates the integration of gender perspectives into climate change and DRR projects by the government and multinational or bilateral agencies in the Pacific is varied and needs to be strengthened. What may appear to be gender-responsive projects on paper do not necessarily mean

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43 See http://www.climatefundsupdate.org/regions/asia-pacific
this is the case in practice: constraints such as the absence of a clear organisational or project intent or dedicated budgets for gender activities can diminish conscious efforts to make projects gender-responsive. Small-scale NGO-led projects, often at community level, could be a good starting point for the region in learning how to link gender assessments and analysis to effective implementation of gender-responsive climate change and DRR projects.

3.4 Advocacy and knowledge generation and management

The advocacy and knowledge generation sphere is an integral part of the mainstreaming framework. It applies to reforming climate change and DRR policy, seeking organisational change, implementing pilot climate change and DRR projects, or supporting communities in vulnerability risk assessments. Increasing awareness of gender impacts of climate change among all members of society as well as increasing substantiated knowledge on how to address gender equality in these thematic areas is fundamental in promoting and sustaining equitable, gender responsive resilience for all. Advocacy comprises influencing people, policies, structures and systems to bring about change. Knowledge is more an outcome of education, in which stakeholders recognise and understand disaster risks and the interventions that contribute to their reduction. The sphere includes the analysis of the following components: a) collection of sex and age disaggregated data (SADD) and gender analysis in all aspects of DRR and climate change; b) existence of methods and gender analytical tools; c) data management; and d) awareness raising on gender and CCDRR.

14% of Asia-Pacific countries collect gender disaggregated data

There is extremely limited collection and use of SADD to inform climate change and DRR policies and projects in the Pacific region. The Progress Review of HFA 2011-2013 Asia Pacific Synthesis Report (UNISDR 2013) highlights that gender disaggregated data were available only in 14 percent of the Asia-Pacific countries, and many countries reported a total absence of gender disaggregated data. The HFA points out that most often, gender disaggregated data is not collected at all, “nor are gender issues on the high priority list of most DRR/DRM/CCA initiatives” (Marshall Islands HFA progress report quoted in the UNISDR Report). The report further points out that several countries mentioned the availability of disaggregated data by districts – collected mostly by involved NGOs – or by sectors, as is the case in Vanuatu.

“it appears, gender is not considered in decision-making for risk reduction and recovery activities”
Niue HFA progress report (UNISDR 2013)

While government ministries such as health, agriculture, education and statistics in most PICs collect sector-specific sex disaggregated data44, and in countries such as Vanuatu and Palau, gender monographs of national population census are available, these datasets are insufficient for informing climate change and...
DRR decision-making. Where limited data is available, this does not automatically translate into its use in climate change or DRR policy and programme formulation as noted by Niue’s HFA progress reporting (UNISDR 2013).

The lack of SADD in the Pacific region means that proper analysis on the immediate and long-term impacts of climate change and disasters on women, girls, men and boys is not done nor well understood. Nor is it possible to assess whether women and children are among the most affected and how this compares globally and to other regions. During the PDNA in Vanuatu, for example, SADD to analyse the disaster impact on gender had to be collected from different sources such as the Chamber of Commerce, University of South Pacific, and different working groups within the Humanitarian Gender and Protection Cluster. There was no one repository where relevant SADD could be sourced. In 2014 and 2015, two major disasters affected Solomon Islands and Vanuatu, resulting in the deaths of 23 and 11 people respectively. However, even with a relatively small number of deaths, sex and age data is not collected. At the regional level, there are two main disaster data repositories: the Pacific region is under the Pacific Damage and Loss (PDaLo) and the Pacific Catastrophe Risk Assessment and Financing Initiative (PCRAFI). There is also the repository for disaster damage and loss data for the PDALO45 information system, which holds information on 1,183 hazardous events that have occurred and caused damage and losses in the Pacific between 1567 and 2013. The database shows data on deaths from disaster as well as the number of people affected by disasters. However, the data does not capture the sex and age of those who died or were affected. So, for example, while it is possible to determine from the PDalo that approximately 14,688 people died in Papua New Guinea between the years 1768 and 2014, due to earthquakes, volcanoes and tsunami, it is impossible to determine the patterns among different sex and age groups. This obscures the specific vulnerabilities in any location and thereby hinders the effectiveness and ability of DRR agencies and practitioners to plan in a way that benefits everyone. It also obscures the tangible manifestations of inequality which place some at more risk than others. PCRAFI is a SPC and WB initiative, which aims to provide PICs with disaster risk modelling and assessment tools, and support integrated financial solutions for the reduction of financial vulnerability to natural disasters and to climate change. While this tool and data base can support PICs in projecting the economic loss and cost needed to replace or repair assets such as bridges, commercial building or valuable crops, the linkage to social dynamics – which determine those who are most vulnerable to disasters, and the types of support needed – is missing.

Where there is evidence of SADD collection and analysis, the practice varies widely between projects and organisations. In most cases, there are no systematic procedures within government agencies for gathering, analysing, applying and storing SADD on climate change and disaster impacts. Gender data is collected as a requirement of some donor-funded projects (such as ADB, UNDP, WB, GIZ and the Government of Australia), however the type of data and the depth of analysis are varied. Consultations carried out for this study in RMI, Samoa, and Vanuatu indicate that gender analysis is understood to a degree as a concept but its application in practice remains weak, particularly in terms of SADD analysis and interpretation. Most national women’s machineries, ministries responsible for climate change and DRR and even NGOs lack the knowledge to construe the data and apply it to policy, advocacy and programming work. Even if SADD is gathered by government agencies and NGOs, there are no practices of inter-agency or cross-organisational sharing of such data and information, limiting opportunities...
for SADD to be fully utilised and analysed for improving policy and programming work.

For example, in Vanuatu, government stakeholders consulted for this study noted that NGOs were collecting data and information on gender impacts of climate change and disasters but they were not sharing this information with relevant government agencies. Similar observations were also noted in Tonga during the Climate Finance and Risk Governance Assessment (CFRGA) [Government of Tonga 2015]. In Vanuatu, stakeholders suggested that if such data was shared, it would be useful in informing their policy and programming work. However, there were concerns among some government officers, as well as NGOs and donor institutions that even if such information was provided to government, the data would not be fully analysed or applied due to the lack of technical capacity and knowledge in conducting gender analysis. This example shows that there is a need for government agencies in the Pacific, including women’s machineries, to undergo training and capacity building in SADD collection, analysis, interpretation, and reporting to support gender responsive mainstreaming in climate change, DRR and other development sectors.

The lack of SADD not only affects climate change DRR policy and programmes but also disaster response after disaster emergencies. The Pacific region, like most regions around the world, has adopted the global post-disaster needs assessment (PDNA) process, as evidenced by the six PDNAs that have been conducted in the Pacific. The absence of baseline SADD and gender analysis in disasters makes it difficult to understand how women and men are affected by disasters, which in turn could lead to missing out specific gender and other social groups that need most help in post-disaster recovery. Fiji’s PDNA of Cyclone Evan attempted to report on some gender disaggregated data, including the extent of the affected population, as well as the financial loss from the cyclone [Government of Fiji, 2013]. However, a lack of comprehensive baseline SADD in affected productive sectors, particularly the number of men and women employed in the tourism sector, impeded proper analysis of gender impacts of the disaster in that sector. Hence, it was difficult to prescribe gender-responsive recovery recommendations. While the lack of SADD can be a limiting factor in assessing disaster impacts, the presence of gender and disaster specialists can make a substantial difference. Gender and protection issues were extensively addressed in Samoa’s PDNA for the 2012 Cyclone Evan (Government of Samoa, 2013), Vanuatu’s PDNA for the 2015 Cyclone Pam (Government of Vanuatu, 2015), and the Fiji 2016 PDNA for Cyclone Winston. The assessments identified gender-specific recommendations such as: providing support to help men and women find alternative livelihood options; delivering training and resources to women farmers; addressing land ownership issues to assist female-headed households who lost their homes but have no rights to land; increasing access to reproductive and maternal health services; and GBV counselling and outreach. In all cases, there were gender specialists (a GENCAP Gender Specialist for the Samoa PDNA and a UN Women Gender and DRR Specialist for Vanuatu and Fiji) with responsibility for conducting gender analysis.

All organisations (whether government, donors or NGOs) involved in climate change and DRR should, as a matter of minimum standard practice, collect and report on SADD to support decision-making and to improve policy and programming work. The absence of SADD could result in the adoption of CCDRR interventions that are insensitive to gender differences. This may further exacerbate the inequalities that exist between men and women, and in turn increase women’s vulnerability to climate change and disaster impacts.

For national governments to effectively collect SADD and conduct gender analysis as part of risk and vulnerability assessments, there must first be
awareness among CCDRR practitioners on why it is critical to collect and use data. Furthermore, there must also be tools to aid them in collecting this data. The development of the Pacific Gender and Climate Change Toolkit by the SPC, GIZ, UN Women, UNDP and SPREP has the potential to increase awareness and knowledge amongst CCDRR national counterparts. The toolkit’s use is being supported by training and technical assistance: For example, in 2014, SPC took advantage of the annual regional DRR Platform – which brings together all the NDMOs across the region – by providing training on gender equality and climate change. Training\(^{46}\) by SPC, UN Women, and GIZ at the national level and in the post-disaster context is expected to have some impact on raising the profile of, and the need to address gender inequality in CCDRR programmes. Annual training for young climate change negotiators organised by PIFs, UNITAR and Australia National University also include gender training to ensure that the future climate change negotiators have a comprehensive understanding of the gender dimensions of climate change. Despite these efforts, in most cases training participants are not always the CCDRR decision-makers. For example, a follow-on Climate Change Negotiation Skills showed\(^{47}\) that only one of the participants previously trained on this area had attended a COP. The analysis presented under the Institutional Arrangement Sphere, which shows that CCDRR actors understand gender as to mean ‘women’ shows that a more concerted effort is still needed for awareness-raising.

Another dimension to building capacity and knowledge is the availability of tools to support national governments in collecting SADD, gender analysis and gender mainstreaming. The above-mentioned Toolkit is the main Pacific guide for gender mainstreaming. One key tool that has the potential and has been applied successfully in Samoa is the Integrating Gender into Adaptation Project Proposal Guidebook. The Sourcebook provides readers with tools to help answer the question, “How do we best go about incorporating gender considerations into our CCA proposal?” A critical gap exists in relation to tools that can assist NDMOs in collecting SADD and support gender analysis of disaster and climate risk assessments. There are no Pacific tools that guide CCDRR actors in mainstreaming gender into risk and vulnerability assessments. Furthermore, risk assessments are still predominantly focused on geo-science with limited understanding of social vulnerability. The lack of harmonisation between risk and vulnerability limits the mainstreaming of gender equality.

### 3.5 Women’s participation and leadership

If building resilience against climate change and disasters is about people, it is only logical that people’s voices should inform and shape that resilience. This sphere therefore focuses on ensuring that CCDRR meets the needs, reflects the voices, and addresses the interests of different social groups within communities.

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46 Including training by UN Women: a 2015 training in Samoa on Gender and DRR; gender training of Fiji Government Officials in preparation for the Fiji 2016 PDNA; and an SPC, SPREP and GIZ Training on Pacific Gender and Climate Change Toolkit in Samoa in 2016.

47 Based on discussions during the Climate Change Negotiators Training held on 6 June 2016 at Pacific Island Forum Secretariat.
and facilitates their meaningful contribution to CCDRR processes. Only through all-of-society participation and representation will efforts to address climate change and disasters have a sustainable and long-term impact. The sphere includes the following components: a) participation of women and women’s representation; b) social expectations; c) regional advocacy; and d) representative civil society.

The participation of women in decision-making and consultation on climate change and DRR should be integral to building community and national resilience. The Sendai Framework calls for stronger women’s participation and leadership in DRR. While the “Doha United Nations Climate Change Conference Nov/Dec 2012: the UNFCCC COP18 adopted decision 23/CP.18” called for gender balance and improved participation of women in UNFCCC negotiations and in the representation of Parties in bodies established pursuant to the Convention or the Kyoto Protocol. While data to assess women’s participation and leadership as confirmed by these global frameworks and decisions is limited, some countries are taking nascent steps to enable women’s leadership in shaping national climate change and DRR discourse (see Box 8). In general, however, the prevailing social attitudes and cultural beliefs about gender, limit Pacific women from participation and decision-making. As highlighted previously, women are poorly represented in parliament and senior positions within the public service. Consultations undertaken for this study confirm that Pacific women face significant political discrimination, yet there is a common perception among both sexes that leadership and decision-making are exclusively in the male domain. Such attitudes prevent women from entering politics and in some cases, assuming higher positions within government, religious and cultural institutions.

Box 8. Women’s leadership in climate change and disaster risk reduction (DRR)

In Samoa, more women are taking up leadership positions in both the public and private sectors, and in the fields of climate change and DRR. Samoa’s National Disaster Sub-Committees include women Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) and senior officers (including those from MWCSD). The Samoa Umbrella for NGOs (SUNGO) which has a woman CEO is also involved in all disaster sub-committees.

In Vanuatu, the national delegation to COP19 in Warsaw, Poland was led by a female director of DWA. The selection process for the delegation was purposely designed to ensure representation of men, women, youth, government and NGOs. This resulted in seven women delegates (out of a total of 15), including two female NGO representatives. At the COP meeting, the delegation presented Vanuatu’s first submission to the UNFCCC on Gender Balance of UNFCCC bodies. The submission stressed the integral role of women in climate change adaptation and mitigation, and the need for their engagement in decision and policy making on climate change.
Social expectations that women and girls should be primary caregivers of children, the elderly and the sick, affects their ability to immediately respond in times of disaster, also has implications for survival, vulnerability, coping and their participation and leadership in CCDRR in general. Restrictions on participation in village councils and committees, limit their opportunities to provide pertinent inputs and make decisions on disaster and climate change issues that could ensure their priorities and needs are addressed. For example, the high number of female fatalities in the 2009 Samoan tsunami highlighted the importance of gender mainstreaming in design, planning, and implementation, and monitoring of disaster preparedness and recovery programmes. It also resulted in the inclusion of the Ministry of Women, Community and Social Development in government committees in related village-level programmes (SPC, 2010).

Pacific women in general have limited opportunities to participate in decision-making, whether at the national, provincial, community or household level. National committees on climate change are predominantly led and chaired by men (Climate Change Portal, 2015) as are regional climate change working groups, with more women filling co-chair positions (Climate Change Portal, 2015). Without adequate representation at the national level, women’s needs and priorities are not properly heard or considered in key decisions on climate change and DRR.

Similarly, women often remain absent from disaster risk management planning processes (Anderson, 2012). A study conducted by the Red Cross in Vanuatu and Solomon Islands found that the current representation of women in the Community Disaster Committee (Vanuatu)/ Village Disaster Risk Committee (Solomon Islands) does not support or assist their substantial input concerning their practical needs and strategic gender interests in relation to DRR (Heike, 2012). There is no data available on women’s representation on national disaster management committees in the Pacific region.

At the regional and global level, women’s groups are more active and have space to influence processes. Regional DRR and humanitarian fora tend to have good representation of NGOs, which are working towards promoting gender equality and women’s empowerment in these thematic areas. For example, through partnership between UN Women, SPC and Action Aid, the World Humanitarian Summit (WHS) Consultation for the Pacific Region resulted in the Chair’s summary being the most gender responsive report of all regional reports. This was achieved through the mobilisation of NGOs and National Protection Cluster Leads to articulate their position and needs pre-consultation. It is worth noting however, that gender was prominently addressed, not just because the consultation agenda had a specific focus on gender equality and humanitarian response, but through parallel advocacy carried out by the coordinating organisations.

The Pacific region has strong global gender advocacy networks as has been evidenced through the SIDS Outcome Document development, in which climate change features prominently, as well as in preparation for COP21. These CSO networks in the Pacific region aim to mobilise women and women’s groups on climate change and DRR issues. Networks include the Climate Action Network, the Pacific Gender and Climate Coalition, Global Gender and Climate Alliance (GCCA), Development Alternatives with Women for a New era (DAWN) and Women’s Action for Change. They play an active role in uniting Pacific women and empowering them to see themselves as agents of change, rather than being merely ‘vulnerable’ to climate change and disaster impacts. These CSOs provide a platform for Pacific women from all levels to advocate and lobby for gender equality in climate change and DRR (see Box 9). They also provide critical mass which supports women’s advocacy and ability to withstand counter pressures from powerful individuals and groups.

Consultation findings for this study indicate in some PICs, women are leading, initiating and implementing climate change and DRR projects in communities more so than men. This is certainly the case for the UN Global Environment Facility (GEF) Small Grants Programme in RMI and Samoa (see Box 10). Women’s groups are applying for GEF Small Grants Programme funds and implementing localised climate change and DRR projects, which benefit the wider community. Consultations with members of the Vanuatu NAB on Climate Change and DRR found that projects implemented at the community level are more effectively managed by women than men, especially in the management of finances and the execution of project activities. While it is still not uncommon for women to provide catering for community meetings and simply ‘observe’ the discussions taking place, the fieldwork from this study indicates this is not the case for all women and in all contexts. What appears to be missing are ongoing efforts to measure and evaluate how women’s participation in climate change and DRR activities at the local level is contributing to their social, economic and political empowerment. Very little evidence exists to document the impact that such activities are having on women’s own sense of agency and understanding of the inequalities they face.
and how to overcome them. As this study focused on macro-level analysis, further investigation is needed at the micro-level to examine gender differences within communities and households, and where existing climate change and DRR programmes can pay more close attention to ensure interventions are advancing equality, rather than exacerbating inequalities between men and women.

**Box 10. Women leading action on climate change and disaster risk reduction (DRR)**

Of the seven community projects currently funded by the GEF Small Grants Programme in RMI, three are entirely led and managed by women’s groups. This includes: the introduction of smokeless stoves in nine outer islands to reduce women’s exposure to respiratory diseases resulting from smoke inhalation; an organic farming project in Wotje atoll; and the installation of solar panels in Ebon. These projects prove that women are not only responding but are taking proactive actions in their local communities to address the effects of climate change on food security, nutrition, health and energy. The downside is that while the needs of women are one of the indicators used to assess applications for GEF Small Grants, grantees are not required to evaluate and report on the outcomes as part of the grant acquittal process. This means it is difficult to tell whether the project has met women’s needs and has contributed to their overall social and economic empowerment.

In Samoa, 25 percent of grants awarded through the GEF Small Grants Programme office are projects initiated and managed by women. All applications are appraised by the GEF Small Grants Programme Team to determine how proposed activities will meet women’s needs and support gender equality. However, as part of the final appraisal, grantees are only required to report on the number of men and women who participated in the project. This provides no mechanism for projects to sustain their focus on gender issues and there is no way of telling whether the project has contributed to gender equality and the empowerment of women. The GEF Small Grants Programme Team recognises this gap and is working with gender experts on its Technical Advisory Group to develop specific indicators for improving monitoring and reporting on gender outcomes.

Innovative collaborations are needed to improve women’s participation in CCDRR. In Vanuatu, collaboration between government, NGOs and donor agencies has led to the delivery of ongoing national awareness-raising and education programmes on gender and climate change. This includes the ever-popular ‘Climate Quiz’ for high school students, which was televised on the national broadcasting channel in 2014. The quiz included questions on gender and climate change, which were prepared in advance by government ministries and NGOs. In 2013, as part of the national youth symposium on climate change, young people participated in radio talkback shows to discuss gender impacts of climate change and disasters. A poster, DVD and stickers on the link between gender and climate change have also been produced as part of SPC-GIZ’s Coping with Climate Change in the Pacific Islands Region Project for public education purposes.

The challenge is to make women’s participation in climate change and DRR efforts visible and promote their leadership at all levels. Moving beyond seeing women as victims of climate change and disaster and as agents of change requires transforming gender norms, which is a lengthy process. Governments, donors and CSOs need to work together to enhance public awareness on gender equality and how...
gender links to climate change and DRR. Greater collaboration between women’s machineries and CSOs is also needed to ensure climate change and DRR efforts provide opportunities for the full and meaningful engagement of women and girls, and to strengthen advocacy on gender equality and the empowerment of women at national, regional and international levels.

3.6 Summary

Overall, the Pacific region is yet to fully grasp and integrate gender perspectives into climate change and DRR processes and mechanisms. From the analysis of the framework, there are certainly signs that advancements are being made across all five spheres. However, underlying social norms and institutional constraints affect PICs’ progress towards achieving gender equality and women’s empowerment in the fields of CCDRR. The study finds notable deficits in knowledge and response in regard to gender aspects of climate change and disasters. While there are statements related to gender, climate change and DRR linkages in the Pacific region, the links are not well understood, nor fully examined or integrated into relevant legislation, policy and programming frameworks. Further, in almost all PICs, disaster legislation is completely gender blind. Moreover, while available literature show how disasters disproportionately affect women, this is not recognised in the disaster laws of PICs.

Specific policy strategies to promote gender equality and women’s empowerment are often missing from national climate change and DRR policies and hence there are no actions which follow through to implementation. It was also found that the integration of gender perspectives into climate change and DRR projects remains weak. This is attributable to several factors, including limited technical capacity within national women’s machineries and climate change and DRR ministries in conducting gender analysis, and in gender-responsive programming, monitoring and evaluation.

Documented evidence on gender impacts of climate change and disasters is lacking. Both at the regional and country levels, age and sex disaggregated data on climate change and disasters are non-existent or extremely limited, which constrains appropriate gender assessments to inform relevant policies, projects, risk assessments and programming work. Government agencies and NGOs also lack the technical capacity in data analysis and interpretation. Finally, the participation and engagement of women in climate change and DRR processes and dialogue needs to be strengthened. In contrast to common assumptions, Pacific women are leading, initiating and implementing climate change and DRR activities at the national and community levels, in some cases more so than men. The role of women as agents of change in contributing towards climate change and disaster resilience needs to be made visible and more widely promoted.
Suva, Fiji - Fiji Girl Guides use poetry, oratory, song and dance to get across messages about ending violence against girls at the launch of the Voices against Violence curriculum in Suva in November.

Photo: UN Women/Ellie van Baaren
Section IV: Conclusion and Recommendations

This study sought to generate a greater understanding of the interface between gender, climate change and DRR within the Pacific context. Drawing on the desk review and fieldwork, the study aimed to present available evidence on gender differentiated impacts of climate change and disasters, and the status and progress made by PICs in addressing gender issues in their relevant climate change and DRR policies and laws, institutional arrangements, implementation and practice, knowledge generation, and women’s participation and leadership.

4.1 Conclusion

The findings underscore gender equality in relation to climate change and DRR is still embryonic: it is generally (although not universally) recognised in theory, but not supported by action and practice. Countries are yet to fully embrace gender issues in an integrated and systematic manner into their climate change and DRR interventions.

In some PICs, the trajectory towards the inclusion of gender issues in climate change and DRR processes is promising, including: explicit statements and strategies for climate change and DRR articulated in national gender equality policies of Fiji, Cook Islands and RMI; assessment of gender and protection issues in the PDNAs of Samoa and Vanuatu; representation of women in Vanuatu’s national delegation to COP; women-led climate change projects in RMI; public education and awareness-raising activities on the gender dimensions of climate change in Vanuatu; and the engagement and increasing influence of national women’s machineries in Vanuatu’s governance arrangements for climate change, DRR and humanitarian response.

Nevertheless, available evidence and information suggest that there is an urgent need for more concrete action if PICs are to fulfil their international and regional commitments on gender equality, as well as on climate change and DRR. There is also an obligation on government, as primary duty bearer, to respect, promote and guarantee women’s rights as an integral part of the human rights of all its citizens.

4.2 Recommendations

In response to the findings of this study, recommendations are proposed for the Pacific region based on the framework for analysis.

Policy environment

1. Increase technical assistance on gender to support disaster management and climate change ministries effectively integrate transformative gender perspectives into climate change and DRR policies, projects, risk assessments, governance and other processes.

2. Translation of Regional Pacific climate change and DRR policies into national policies. Currently regional policies better address the gender equality dimensions than national policies and offer examples and building blocks for improving the national policy environment.

3. Efforts should be made to transform the constant rhetoric of women as vulnerable victims, towards women as equal citizens and partners in the climate change fight. Specific attention needs to be paid to the social context in which women live in the Pacific for reformed policy to be able to make a meaningful difference in the lives of PIC women.
**Institutional arrangements**

4. Develop the capacity of national women’s ministries and machineries to undertake and advise on gender assessments, and build more strategic alliances and partnerships with other ministries, donors and CSOs. National women’s machineries need to build capacity in undertaking and providing advice on gender assessments to ensure national level policies and projects are gender-responsive and transformative (not only in climate change and DRR but across all development sectors).

5. Ensure inclusion of women’s ministries in government taskforces and committees that make decisions on climate change and DRR. This increase in representation, supported by capacity building of women’s ministries, has the potential to greatly increase the likelihood that issues of gender equality will be considered in decision-making.

6. Enable significant improvements in coordination across ministries and other key actors in climate change and DRR and for evidence from CSOs to feed up to decision-makers.

**Implementation and practice**

7. Allocate dedicated funding for gender activities in climate change and DRR projects in the Pacific region. Multi and bilateral donors should – as a minimum requirement for all climate change and DRR projects – assign funding for gender components to ensure gender activities identified, assessed and recommended in project design documents, are actualised.

8. To support Recommendation 7 above, accountability must be further strengthened by making gender equality commitments, monitoring and evaluation in projects a condition for accessing climate funding mechanisms, such as GEF and GCF.

9. Introduce climate change- and DRR-related gender indicators for systematic regional level monitoring and reporting as a minimum standard for all countries in the Pacific region. A standardised set of regional indicators on gender equality in relation to climate change and DRR should be developed. Data from these indicators should then be shared and used to inform decisions.

10. Recognising that women’s economic activity often serves social/family and not just personal goals, loss assessments and PDNAs should recognise and compensate for the real value of disaster losses to women, and should protect their assets which frequently lie in informal sectors.

**Advocacy, knowledge generation and management**

11. Considering the social context in which women in the Pacific live, projects and initiatives should not undermine gender equality goals, but should contribute to changing the position of women in society, which includes challenging gender stereotypes and the subordinate role of women. Responsible bodies should advocate for this more transformative interpretation of ‘gender’ to also incorporate measures to prevent violence against women and girls (VAWG).

12. Enhance the collection, analysis and application of sex and age disaggregated data to inform climate and disaster risk planning at regional, national and community levels. National statistics offices, NDMOs and climate change ministries, and women’s machineries are the minimum structures through which such data should be collected, analysed and reported at the
national level. At the community level, both governments and NGOs should capture quantitative and qualitative data to build up the evidence on gender impacts of climate change and DRR.

13. Baseline sex and age (at a minimum) disaggregated data (SADD) survey design should be developed in a participatory manner with cross-ministerial/departmental and civil society involvement to ensure the process is appropriate, consistent and practicable.

14. Improve the collation, dissemination and sharing of information, best practice and lessons learned on gender, climate change and DRR among governments, donors, CSOs, gender experts and researchers in the Pacific region. Existing online platforms such as the Climate Change Portal\(^{51}\) or the Gender and Disaster Network\(^{52}\) website could be used as a repository to publish and share information such as gender assessment reports, project documentation, case studies, lessons learned and best practice tools and techniques to support the integration of gender perspectives into climate change and DRR policies, projects and programmes.

Women’s Participation and Leadership

15. Women’s participation in climate change and DRR must go beyond CSO led-projects and into more formal institutions. Active participation in localised projects can be scaled-up and promoted, and opportunities created for women to become leaders in knowledge-sharing, and project design, implementation and monitoring.

16. Focused efforts are required to remove the many barriers which women face in voicing their needs, priorities and rights. This includes access to and use of information, capacity development opportunities and formal and informal education on CCDRR.

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51 See: http://www.pacificclimatechange.net/

52 The Gender and Disaster Network is supported by the Massey University. See: http://www.massey.ac.nz/massey/learning/departments/school-of-psychology/research/disaster-research/research-projects/gender-and-disasters/gender-and-disasters_home.cfm
4.3 Way forward: Entry point for addressing gender equality in climate change and disaster risk reduction (DRR)

Looking into the future, it is vital to recognise Pacific women as equal partners, beneficiaries and decision-makers at all levels. Despite the injustice they face, women are taking action: initiating and implementing climate change projects in their communities; protecting their children and families from disasters; engaging in women’s groups to voice their issues and needs; and some are stepping up into leadership roles.

Improving the gender responsiveness of climate change and DRR efforts needs to happen through regional and national level climate change and DRR governance mechanisms (e.g. advisory committees, taskforces, working groups, humanitarian clusters and teams) in parallel with national women’s machineries (i.e. women’s ministries and national councils of women). The gender agenda is not for national women’s machineries to pursue alone: turning gender equality into reality requires commitment and action from all stakeholders in government, donor agencies, academia, private sector, CSOs and communities.

What is required is a two-pronged approach: working at the macro level to support capacity building on gender within climate change and DRR sectors; and empowering women and girls at the individual level to understand the factors that contribute to their vulnerability and adaptive capacity to climate change and disasters, and to realise their rights in equal social, economic and political participation. For this to occur, it is necessary to fully engage men and boys, and gain their understanding and support.

The way forward requires moving away from commitment per se to pragmatic action. The Pacific region must meet its promise on gender equality to guarantee a climate and disaster resilient future for all. More action is needed now.
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International Day of Rural Women (Vanuatu) - Women from Nguna Island prepare to take part in the opening parade of Vanuatu’s 2015 International Day of Rural Women celebrations. Emua village on Efate island hosted the event. Emua is one of five ring-road market sites that are part of UN Women’s Markets for Change project. It was devastated by Cyclone Pam, however, the market was one of the first to be up and running again.

Photo: UN Women/Nicky Kuautonga
Appendix A: Case studies from Marshall Islands, Vanuatu and Samoa

The study examined the Republic of Marshall Islands (RMI), Vanuatu and Samoa as case studies to provide more in-depth illustrations of the progress, constraints and opportunities in integrating gender equality into climate change and disaster risk reduction (DRR) efforts. The countries are at different stages of integrating gender issues: organisations in Marshall Islands are just beginning to recognise the link between gender, climate change and DRR. In Samoa, gender and youth are priority issues for the government and are increasingly recognised in climate change and disaster planning; however, the challenge remains to translate it into action. Compared to the other two countries, Vanuatu is taking concrete steps in ensuring the needs and priorities of vulnerable groups are addressed within climate change and DRR institutional arrangements, policies, projects and programmes. Everywhere there is a need to institutionalise an interpretation and application of gender that is responsive and transformative and not just rhetorical.

Marshall Islands: Gender, climate change and disaster risk reduction (DRR) as a new and emerging concept

The Republic of Marshall Islands (RMI) is an archipelagic chain of 29 coral atolls located north of the equator in Micronesia. It has a population of over 53,000 people of whom 51 percent are male and 49 percent are female (Government of Marshall Islands, 2013). The country has a Free Compact of Association with the United States (US), which ends in 2023. The Compact gives the United States (US) full authority and responsibility for security and defence of the Marshall Islands (United States Department of State, 2015).

The RMI, comprising low-lying coral atolls, is at risk of extreme storm events and sea level rises (Government of Marshall Islands, 2000). The average height above sea level for all islands is only 2 metres (Government of Marshall Islands, 2000), with many of the islands, including the main atoll of Majuro, experiencing regular flooding from storm surges. The RMI faces a risk of complete inundation over the longer term (Reimaan National Planning Team, 2008).

The country has also experienced severe drought. In April 2013, a state of emergency was called for the northern atolls following a prolonged dry season. More than 6,300 people were affected by food and water shortages and subsequent deterioration in health conditions (Relief Web, 2013).

Stakeholder consultations undertaken for this study highlighted that ‘gender’ is a newly emerging concept within climate change and DRR sectors in RMI. Both government and NGOs are yet to fully understand the link between gender, and vulnerability and resilience, to climate change and disasters. For example, focus group discussions with representatives from NGOs found that many believe climate change and disaster impacts will be gender-neutral, with shortage of food and water, loss of income and livelihoods, psychological trauma, increased workloads and other consequences similarly affecting both men and women.

Documented evidence on the gender differentiated impacts of climate change and disasters is non-existent in RMI. When asked about the 2013 drought, stakeholders mentioned the merits of engaging women in drought relief efforts and could not identify how the impacts would have been different for men and women.
women. In response to the drought, both the government and international agencies called upon Women United Together Marshall Islands (WUTMI), a national women’s organisation in RMI, to distribute emergency food packages to affected communities given WUTMI’s widespread network of members across the islands. Stakeholders consulted for this study report that women representatives were more effective than community leaders (of whom the majority are men) in ensuring emergency relief packages were distributed equitably to families in need, and thereby avoiding incidents of misappropriation. Both the National Disaster Committee (NDC) and the National Disaster Management Office (NDMO) believed the engagement of women through WUTMI was essential to drought relief efforts.

With gender being perceived as a new way of thinking about climate change and DRR, existing laws, policies and strategies on climate change and DRR are not cognisant of social, economic and political inequalities between men and women, nor how they relate to vulnerability and resilience. The National Disaster Act and the National Emergency Act make no references to gender issues. As these pieces of legislation are due to be reviewed in the near-future, there are opportunities to incorporate gender issues to ensure the most vulnerable – women and children – are protected. The RMI’s National Disaster Management Plan mentions women and children as being vulnerable to disaster-related health risks (see Section 4 of the main report on DRR law and policy). However, no specific actions are proposed. The National Climate Change Policy Framework does include a specific objective on promoting gender-specific adaptation responses, which has been transferred to the new Joint National Action Plan (JNAP) on Climate Change Adaptation and DRR.

The Ministry of Internal Affairs (MIA) is the national women’s machinery in RMI with its portfolio covering gender, youth, disabilities, child rights and local government affairs. The Secretary of the MIA sits on both the National Disaster Committee and the National Climate Change Committee. WUTMI, which works closely with MIA, is an ex-officio member of the National Disaster Committee and is on the Coastal Management Advisory Council. There are also increasing, albeit still small, numbers of women in senior positions within public service, including ministries and inter-agency bodies which have key responsibilities for climate change and disasters (e.g. the Secretary of the Ministry of Resources and Development, the National Energy Planner, and the Chair of the National Disaster Committee are all women).

Marshallese societies are traditionally matrilineal, yet dominant gender norms and practices are patriarchal. Both men and women hold the view that leadership and decision-making are in men’s domain. This notion can be illustrated through an example on decision-making with regard to land. In matrilineal societies, such as RMI, land is passed down through the maternal line of the family. As landowners, Marshallese women have the power to decide what happens on the land. In practice, however, women may delegate their decision-making powers to men through the tradition of maan maron (in which women delegate duties to their male relatives [Stege, 2008]). There are signs that this tradition is changing, with many women choosing to take the role of lineage head themselves rather than deferring to men; and women are participating directly in land-related decisions at the family and community levels (Stege, 2008). A challenge is in translating women’s representation and participation in land development issues from the local to the national level (Stege, 2008). With the possibility of climate- and disaster-induced relocation and resettlement becoming imminent for RMI, women need to be part of the national dialogue and decision-making on land and other development issues. Examining how ingrained attitudes and beliefs about gender affect vulnerability and resilience is a critical
step for RMI to take in its efforts to make climate change and DRR efforts gender responsive.

The consultation carried out for this study revealed several reasons as to why gender perspectives have not featured in climate change and DRR policies and plans. Firstly, gender is considered a new area within government agencies and they are struggling to identify how to address it. Ministries responsible for disaster management and climate change believe WUTMI, as a national women’s organisation, is best positioned to address gender issues related to climate change and DRR, given that they are an organisation that ‘deals with gender’. This can be interpreted as gender being misunderstood as a woman’s issue, as well as the government’s lack of capacity (or willingness) to lead, resource and manage issues relating to gender, climate change and DRR. The latter has been confirmed by representatives from the MIA, who stressed the need for technical support and capacity building to mainstream gender responsiveness into climate change and DRR sectors. Moreover, this study suggests that there is a need to enhance gender awareness in ministries and support them to understand how they can contribute to the achievement of gender equality through their sectoral policies and programmes. In this way, misconceptions about gender can be overcome and gender issues will not be outsourced to WUTMI to tackle alone.

Secondly, both government and civil society organisations (CSOs) identify the absence of the word ‘gender’ in Marshallese language as a barrier to the consideration of gender perspectives in climate change and DRR sectors. There are many Marshallese concepts and proverbs which emphasise the importance of equality and respect for both men and women. Without being able to translate gender and other associated concepts directly – and in a way that also highlights Marshallese teaching and cultural values on gender equality – it is difficult to explain what is meant by ‘gender’. Hence, inconsistent interpretations can be given to communities which inevitably will lead to confusion. This is especially important as gender is a sensitive topic in the outer island communities where, despite generally expressing respect for equality, prevailing gender attitudes and norms favour men’s rights over women’s.

Finally, the focus on gender, climate change and DRR is being driven by donors but without dedicated funding allocated towards it. There is also no consistency among donors in coordinating interventions on gender equality, which reduces the impact and efficiency of programmes. The MIA does not have the necessary financial, human and technical resources to drive gender mainstreaming in climate change and DRR sectors; and neither does WUTMI, which is entirely dependent on project funding to pay for its staff positions. Furthermore, consultation finds that while WUTMI has assisted communities to prepare atoll development plans through extensive consultation and action-planning exercises with men, women and youth, and which include priority actions on building climate resilience, the plans have not been formally endorsed by the government. This not only weakens the influence of the action plans but undermines WUTMI’s efforts to introduce gender responsive climate change planning and to ensure that women and youth – who are not always represented in climate change discussions – are involved in deciding adaptation strategies for their communities.

Nevertheless, this study did find several promising initiatives in introducing gender issues in RMI’s climate change and DRR sectors. At the time of the consultation for this study, the MIA was in the process of finalising a national gender equality policy (which was endorsed by the government in February 2015). The policy includes strategies to ensure both men and women are involved in disaster preparedness and climate change adaptation, and recognises the role and knowledge of men and women in food and water security, and in building
community resilience. The policy shows an attempt at mainstreaming gender into climate change and DRR sectors.

Equally promising are the actions undertaken by WUTMI to raise the awareness of women and communities and articulate the link between gender, climate change and disasters. Following WUTMI’s participation in the regional gender and climate change training organised by SPC, GIZ, UN Women, UNDP and SPREP in June 2014, gender and climate change became the theme for its national conference in the same year, which was attended by 70 women from across the islands. Women participants received training in key gender and climate change concepts, and in understanding gender as a determinant of both vulnerability and adaptive capacity. WUTMI members are also currently involved in completing climate hazards and vulnerability assessment for communities in Jaluit, Ebeye, Wotje and Majuro atolls, funded by the Government of Australian through the International Organization for Migration (IOM). The vulnerability assessment is driven by women and involves the participation of female and male landowners, council members, teachers, elders, women, youth and people with disabilities.

Additionally, of the seven community projects currently funded by the Global Environment Facility’s (GEF) Small Grants Programme in RMI, three are entirely led and managed by women’s groups. These include the introduction of smokeless stoves in nine outer islands to reduce women’s exposure to respiratory diseases resulting from smoke inhalation, an organic farming project in Wotje atoll, and the installation of solar panels in Ebon. These projects indicate that women are not only responding but are taking proactive actions in their local communities to address the effects of climate change on food security, nutrition, health and energy. While the needs of women are one of the indicators used to assess applications for GEF Small Grants, grantees are not required to evaluate and report on the outcome as part of the grant acquittal process. Hence it is not known to what extent the projects meet women’s needs and contribute to their social and economic empowerment.

It is evident from this study that RMI is beginning to grasp the concept of gender and its linkage to climate change and DRR. The national women’s machinery and WUTMI are taking initial steps to bring gender issues into the public realm and to the attention of climate change and DRR sectors. The momentum needs to continue for gender equality to become a familiar, rather than ‘new’ concept for RMI, and for the gender rhetoric to embrace a more transformative social change agenda and not reinforce damaging gender stereotypes.

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53 Information obtained from GEF Small Grants Programme, Marshall Islands.
### Table 4. The current status of climate change and disaster risk reduction (DRR) mechanisms in integrating gender equality and women’s empowerment: Republic of Marshall Islands (RMI)\(^{54}\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Climate change and disaster risk reduction (DRR) policy and implementation mechanisms</th>
<th>Current status</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National Disaster Act and the National Emergency Act</td>
<td>Completely gender-blind. Both pieces of legislation to be reviewed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Disaster Management Plan</td>
<td>Women and children recognised as being exposed to disaster-related health risks. No further mention of gender differentiated impacts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Climate Change Policy Framework</td>
<td>The policy mentions ‘Building Education and Awareness, Community Mobilization, whilst being mindful of Culture, Gender and Youth’ as one of the five strategic goals. This is supported by the objective ‘to promote gender specific including appropriate traditional knowledge in adaptation responses’. These are referred to in the Joint National Action Plan on Climate Change Adaptation and disaster risk management (DRM).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The 2015-2017 National Strategy</td>
<td>The strategy explicitly mentions gender mainstreaming, and CEDAW, sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV) and DRM. The national strategy should be a roadmap for ‘development and progress’. Gender mainstreaming is meant to be implemented across development themes (with the exception of themes 7 and 8).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender Equality Policy, National Gender Mainstreaming Policy</td>
<td>Specific policy outcomes included on gender responsive climate change adaptation and disaster planning and response. The National Gender Mainstreaming Policy uses the language of gender responsiveness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional arrangements</td>
<td>The National Disaster Committee and the National Climate Change Committee comprise secretaries from each of the ministries (including the MIA, responsible for the gender portfolio). WUTMi is a member of the Climate Change Committee, although this committee has been dormant for several years.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Climate change and DRR projects</td>
<td>No systematic analysis of gender issues. Consideration of the needs of women is a criterion for assessing project applications for the GEF Small Grants Programme, however, applicants are not required to report on gender equality outcomes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex and age disaggregated data</td>
<td>No sex and age disaggregated collected on climate change and disasters.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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54 Based on information gathered from the desk review and consultations.
Participation and leadership of women

The Government of Marshall Islands works closely with WUTMI to facilitate the participation of women in climate change and DRR initiatives. Women-led groups in the outer islands are implementing climate change adaptation projects through funds from the GEF Small Grants Programme. Cultural and social prejudice about women’s role in politics needs to be overcome to empower women into taking leadership positions.

Study Recommendations

1. The Government of RMI, in partnership with donors and WUTMI, should enhance gender awareness among communities in the outer islands and how gender relates to climate change and disasters. This includes the translation of key gender concepts into Marshallese and the delivery of consistent messaging about gender equality and respect for women – through the revitalisation and use of Marshallese concepts and proverbs – to all communities. This will provide opportunities to explore existing gender attitudes and beliefs, and identify ways in which women can be socially, economically and politically empowered.

2. As a next step to the endorsement of the National Gender Equality Policy, the Government of RMI should finalise the gender equality policy framework to facilitate policy implementation; including its commitment to mainstreaming gender perspectives into climate change and DRR sectors.

3. Collaboration between the government and WUTMI in embedding gender analysis into climate change and DRR policies, laws and projects, must be strengthened.

4. The RMI GEF Small Grants Committee should develop evaluation indicators for the GEF Small Grants Programme, in collaboration with other initiatives to develop indicators, to assess how projects support meeting the needs of women. The evaluation outcomes and lessons learned from projects should be shared with governments, NGOs and donors to enhance awareness of gender issues among stakeholders and to inform policy development and programming.

5. Relevant ministries, including the Ministry of Natural Resources and Energy, the Office of Environmental Policy Planning and Coordination, the National Disaster Management Office and the National Disaster Committee, should proactively engage both men and women in the outer atolls in strategic discussions and policy consultations on climate change and DRR. This can be facilitated by establishing stronger partnerships with NGOs that have active networks and operations in the outer atolls.
Samoa: The need to move beyond rhetoric to awareness, change and action

Samoa is an independent island nation situated in Polynesia, southwest Pacific. Its four main inhabited islands are home to 187,820 people, of which 52 percent are male and 48 percent female (Government of Samoa, 2012). Samoa graduated from least developed country (LDC) status in 2004.

As a small island nation, Samoa is vulnerable to climate change impacts. The increased frequency and intensity of extreme climatic events is likely to pose profound risks to agriculture, water, fisheries and health (Government of Samoa, 2010). Given that 70 percent of the country’s population and infrastructure are situated on the coast, they are highly exposed to sea level rise, tsunami, storm surges and flooding (Government of Samoa, 2005).

Samoa was devastated by an earthquake and tsunami in September 2009, in which there were 143 reported deaths, an additional five were reported as missing and 310 seriously injured (Government of Samoa, 2009). Approximately one in 50 Samoans were affected by the tsunami, particularly on the southern, eastern and south-western coasts of the main island of Upolu (Government of Samoa, 2009). The deaths were analysed by González-Riancho et al (2015), revealing that 60 percent were female and 40 percent male, which is disproportionate to the overall population figures (pre-tsunami Census 2006). Elderly persons and infants were also over-represented among victims.

In 2012, Tropical Cyclone Evan caused widespread damage to Samoa, on this occasion killing six people and displacing over 7,500 (UNDP, 2013).

Consultations undertaken for this study found that the National Disaster Management Office (NDMO) is documenting anecdotal evidence (rather than hard data) on gender impacts of disasters as part of its standard procedure for post-disaster needs assessments. Based on verbal accounts of people’s experiences of the 2009 tsunami, NDMO confirm that women, children and people with disabilities were the main casualties of the tsunami, the main reasons being: that some women returned to their homes to collect their belongings; some were physically unable to evacuate in time due to their age and fitness; and others were trying to protect their children and other family members. The NDMO also found in the aftermath of the tsunami, women were responsible for activities centred around the home, including gathering household belongings, cooking, washing and looking after children and other family members, whereas men were responsible for activities requiring physical labour such as removing debris and trees, rebuilding houses, replanting crops and fetching water. The NDMO seeks to gather further evidence on gender-differentiated impacts of disasters as part of its process of integrating gender issues into disaster risk reduction (DRR) and disaster risk management (DRM).

The NDMO works closely with the Ministry of Women, Community and Social Development (MWCSD), which under the National Disaster Management Plan (NDMP) is designated as a responsible ministry for the collection of information to assist with the preparation of post-disaster community impact assessments. The MWCSD sits within the National Disaster Council and Disaster Advisory Committee and in all related disaster response and recovery sub-committees (Government of Samoa, 2011). This study shows that MWCSD and NDMO are taking proactive steps to empower women by ensuring they are involved in participating and contributing to community discussions on DRR, instead of merely providing catering for meetings and consultations. The NDMO also noted that the review of the NDMP 2011-2014 will provide opportunities to strengthen the emphasis on gender equality.
At the time of carrying out the research, the Government of Samoa was implementing two GEF-funded national climate change adaptation and mitigation projects. The Integration of Climate Change Risks and Resilience into Forestry Management in Samoa (ICCRIFS 2010-2015) is implemented by the Ministry of Natural Resources and Energy (MNRE) in the villages of Lalevata, Lepalogo and Savaii. The project aims to increase the resilience of forest ecosystems to climate change risks. An interview with relevant staff from MNRE indicated that while gender specialists were not engaged, nor was rigorous gender assessment undertaken for the project, differences in men’s and women’s involvement in consultation activities were observed. For example, participatory mapping using 3D models was used as a tool to engage communities to identify natural features and land uses, and to discuss environmental management issues. Observations from the project team found that women and youth actively participated in the activity by tracing and cutting topographic maps and building a 3D model. Male matais (chiefs) stood back and waited until the model was built to assess whether it was an accurate depiction of the village landscape. This final approval from the male matai appeared to reflect traditional gender norms that men are the village leaders and have the final say, and women and young people are engaged as the ‘implementers’ of activities.

Observations on gender differences are also found in the Strengthening Climate Resilience in the Tourism Sector Project (2013-2017), which is being implemented by the Samoa Tourism Authority (STA). The project seeks to build the adaptive capacity of the tourism sector and tourism-reliant communities. Consultation with the STA indicates that the participation of men, women and youth are divided along their division of labour: untitled men are involved in marking out evacuation routes for villages, titled men identify and decide which areas of the village are prone to climate change and disaster risks, and women are more attentive to the needs of families and children. Villages that have active participation of women in consultation activities are those that have been involved in community development projects delivered by MWCSD. The STA report that while its project design documents identified the need for the project to deliver gender and climate change training to tourism operators and communities, this has not been followed through as it was not included in the project budget. Other stakeholders echo this view that climate change projects may be gender-responsive on paper, but not in implementation, due to the absence of funding allocation.

The MWCSD, while it is involved in the projects above, identifies that limitations with its influence and funding act as a barrier for enhancing gender equality and women’s empowerment outcomes. The MWCSD is well-equipped to mobilise women’s village committees and engage them in climate change and DRR projects. It also has experience in developing sustainable development plans and community development sector plans. Key informants from MWCSD believe that in the future, the MNRE should assign MWCSD the role of leading the gender and community components of climate change projects and allocate budgets in support of such activities.

In addition to the two national climate change projects, Samoa signed an agreement with the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in late-2014 to integrate climate and disaster risk mitigation measures across relevant development sectors. The new Economy-wide Integration of Climate Change Adaptation and DRM to Reduce Climate Vulnerability of Communities Project is the largest national project funded under the Least Developed Countries Fund of the GEF (UNDP, 2014). The project includes key outcomes and indicators on gender equality. Consultation with UNDP conducted for this study found that there are bottlenecks in mainstreaming gender into climate change and DRR projects. There is
a perception that large amounts of bilateral and multilateral donor funding are spent on training resources and tools on gender, climate change and DRR at the regional level, however there have been no tangible outcomes or key lessons learned. It also emerged that there is a lack of gender experts in Samoa with specific experience and knowledge to address gender issues linked to climate change and DRR.

The absence of monitoring mechanisms to track and evaluate women's engagement in climate change and DRR projects is also identified as a critical gap. For example, 25 percent of grants awarded through the GEF Small Grants Programme office in Samoa are projects initiated and managed by women. However, aside from the initial assessment of the project application, grantees are only required to report on the number of men and women who participated in the project. The project acquittal process does not require any details on the extent to which men and women were involved in decision-making, their contribution to the project or any other reporting on gender issues. The GEF Small Grants Programme Team seeks to ensure gender equality and women's empowerment are sustained throughout the entire project by working with women representatives from its Small Grants Programme Technical Advisory Group.

Nevertheless, attempts are being made by government and donor agencies to improve the gender-responsiveness of climate change and DRR efforts. At the societal level, gender attitudes and roles are also progressively changing with more women taking up leadership positions in both the public and private sectors, and in the fields of climate change and DRR. Samoa’s National Disaster Sub-Committees include women CEOs and senior officers (including those from MWCSD). The Samoa Umbrella for NGOs (SUNGO), which has a woman CEO, is also involved in all disaster sub-committees, as are senior management from humanitarian NGOs including the Samoan Red Cross and the Adventist Development Relief Agency. An interview with the Samoa Red Cross also highlighted a dilemma: while it wishes to deploy more women volunteers to the frontline of emergency response, it is unable to do so without ensuring their safety. For this they require a police presence in affected sites, however this is not always possible, and inevitably women become ‘back-up’ responders in disaster relief efforts.

Despite the notable challenges, reviews of the NDMP and the National Climate Change Policy (NCCP) and the ongoing implementation of GEF-funded national climate change and DRM projects are opportunities for Samoa to assess its commitments to gender equality and women’s empowerment through CEDAW, and integrate them into relevant sectoral policies and plans. Translating gender into actual implementation and practice within climate change and DRR planning processes is urgently needed, and adequate funding, technical assistance and capacity building are required to achieve this.

55 The other 75 percent of grants are awarded to village councils and their projects do not always include women.
Table 5. The current status of climate change and disaster risk reduction (DRR) mechanisms in integrating gender equality and women’s empowerment: Samoa

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Climate change and disaster risk reduction (DRR) policy and implementation mechanisms</th>
<th>Current status</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Disaster and Emergency Management Act</td>
<td>Recognises the Ministry of Women, Community and Social Development as one of the response agencies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Disaster Management Plan</td>
<td>The plan recognises the MWCS’D role in supporting, monitoring and liaising with village councils to facilitate the implementation of disaster management activities. The CEO of MWCS is a core member of the National Disaster Council, Disaster Advisory Committee and all related sub-committees. The Plan is due for review.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Policy on Combating Climate Change</td>
<td>Completely gender-blind. The policy is being reviewed by MNRE. Samoa’s second NAPA (2005) does mention gender equality (twice) and has put gender information in an annex (unavailable online).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Policy for Women of Samoa</td>
<td>Increased participation of women in the formulation of Village Action Plans on Disaster Management and Risk Reduction is mentioned as a key output under the policy outcome on ‘Sustainable Economic Development for Women’. There is also an indicator on ‘a measurable understanding by women and girls on issues of climate change adaptation that are reflected in various local and national plans’.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional arrangements</td>
<td>The MWCS sits on the National Disaster Council, Disaster Advisory Committee and all related sub-committees. The National Climate Change Country Team consists of CEOs of all ministries, including MWCS and women’s NGOs through SUNGO, and may be called upon on an as required basis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Climate change and DRR projects</td>
<td>Gender analysis is carried out by MWCS or gender experts during the design phase for national climate change and DRR projects. However, the absence of dedicated funding and follow-through means projects are gender-responsive on paper but not in actual implementation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex and age disaggregated data</td>
<td>No systematic collection and analysis of sex disaggregated data on climate change and disaster impacts. NDMO and MWCS collect some sex disaggregated data from disaster affected areas for preparation of PDNAs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation and leadership of women</td>
<td>Women’s participation in climate change and DRR sectors is increasing, including at the CEO and senior management level. Greater opportunities are available to women in urban areas to participate and engage in national and community level discussions on climate change and disasters.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

56 Based on information gathered from the desk review and consultations.
Study Recommendations

1. The Government of Samoa together with UN Women, UNDP and SPREP should establish a community of practice to promote and share knowledge and lessons learned on gender, climate change and DRR. The community of practice should be open to a wide range of stakeholders, including UN and donor agencies, government ministries (i.e. MWCSD, MNRE, NDMO and STA) and CSOs. Its purpose is to function as an advisory and information-sharing platform to support government agencies and development partners to effectively integrate and implement gender-responsive approaches into climate change and DRR policies, projects and activities.

2. MNRE and STA should proactively engage MWCSD and leverage its experiences in developing sustainable development and community development plans, and its extensive networks of women’s councils in villages, to enhance the gender-responsiveness of existing national climate change projects.

3. Ensure the Government of Samoa and UNDP’s new Economy-wide Integration of Climate Change Adaptation and DRM to Reduce Climate Vulnerability of Communities Project incorporates adequate budgeting and capacity building support for MWCSD to build its technical capacity in conducting gender analysis of climate change and DRR policies and projects.

4. The GEF Small Grants Programme should develop specific gender indicators for grant recipients to monitor, evaluate and report on how their projects contribute towards the achievement of gender equality and the empowerment of women. The project outcomes and lessons learned should be shared with stakeholders through the community of practice (see recommendation #1).

5. The NDMO – with technical support from donor agencies – should incorporate findings on the gender differentiated impacts of the 2009 Tsunami, 2013 Cyclone Evan and other major events, into the review of the National Disaster Management Plan 2011-2014. The plan should include strategies for increasing the leadership of women in all aspects of DRM.

Vanuatu: Institutionalising gender responsiveness into climate change and DRR sectors

Vanuatu is an archipelago of volcanic islands located in the middle of Melanesia. It comprises over 80 islands which are divided into six provinces. The country has a population of 234,023, of whom 51 percent are male and 49 percent female (Government of Vanuatu, 2009). Seventy-six percent of the population reside in rural areas (Government of Vanuatu, 2009).

Vanuatu consistently ranks first, as the country with the highest risk (out of 171 countries globally) in terms of its exposure to natural hazards and societal vulnerability (Garschagen, M et al 2016). The main climatic hazards for Vanuatu include cyclones, droughts, floods, coastal erosion and sea level rise (Government of Vanuatu, 2007).

In March 2015, Vanuatu was hit by Tropical Cyclone Pam, causing 15 deaths and leaving 75,000 people in need of emergency shelter (UNOCHA, 2015). Approximately 15,000 homes were damaged or destroyed, with the southern provinces of Efate and Tafea being most affected (UNOCHA, 2015). As the fieldwork undertaken for this study was conducted in late-February 2015, the information presented below is largely reflective of the situation prior to Tropical Cyclone Pam.

In Vanuatu, collection and analysis of evidence on gender differentiated impacts of climate change and disasters are sporadic and vary between projects and organisations. The Ministry
of Climate Change’s Project Management Unit, the National Disaster Management Office (NDMO) and the Department of Women’s Affairs (DWA), do not have systematic procedures for gathering sex disaggregated data on climate change and disaster impacts. As a requirement of some donor-funded projects (such as UN, World Bank, GIZ and Australian Aid), they record the number of women and men participating in project activities. No other details are systematically collated. Some stakeholders from government, as well as NGOs and donor institutions, believe that even if the information on gender impacts of climate change and disasters were provided to government ministries, they lack the technical capacity to analyse or apply it to inform policy making and implementation.

Non-governmental organisations (NGOs) such as CARE International and the Red Cross are in the process of institutionalising minimum criteria on gender equality as part of their programming practice. For instance, gender parity must be ensured in all community disaster committees supported by the Red Cross, and sex and age disaggregated data must be collected for disaster risk assessments. CARE’s programmes are all required to report on sex and age disaggregated data, attain gender balance for consultations and promote women’s leadership in decision-making. CARE’s impact evaluation of disaster risk reduction (DRR)/disaster risk management (DRM) following Super Cylone Pam in March 2015, concluded that those communities in Vanuatu which had participated in DRR programmes were better prepared than those communities that had not had any DRR training. Gender responsiveness was a core aspect of CARE’s work and it found that women received more respect, their voices were more likely to be heard, and they were able to take up leadership positions on the disaster committees. This was in contrast to matched communities which had not received the same training (CARE 2015).

In terms of institutional arrangements, Vanuatu has a well-functioning humanitarian response cluster system that covers gender and protection, agriculture and food security, health and nutrition, education, logistics and water, sanitation and hygiene. The Gender and Protection Cluster was established in 2014 and is responsible for mainstreaming gender and social protection issues into DRM. It is chaired by DWA and NGO co-chairs include CARE (a lead agency focusing on gender issues) and Save the Children (focusing on child protection). Interviews with members of the Cluster found it to be meeting on a regular basis. However, interviews in 2015 with stakeholders involved in the Cluster found that no proper gender analysis of disasters had been undertaken, prior to Cyclone Pam as there had not been a major disaster since 1987: So institutionalisation of gender is necessary but not sufficient if its relevance is not reaffirmed on a regular basis.

The National Advisory Board (NAB) on Climate Change and DRR, an inter-ministerial body comprising directors of all ministries, is dominated by men. The reason for this is that there are only two female directors in the public service (these being the director of DWA and the director of Internal Affairs). A few of the male directors do advocate for gender equality and women’s empowerment, which have resulted in greater recognition of the issues and needs of women being recognised in sectoral climate change policies for agriculture, livestock, forestry and energy.

A constant theme noted by government stakeholders is the misunderstanding of ‘gender’ as relating to women’s issues, which prevents gender issues from being effectively and fully mainstreamed into sectoral policies, programmes and structures. The notion that ‘gender equals women’ appears to silo gender issues, with some climate change and DRR practitioners, decision and policy makers being disengaged from taking
gender perspectives into account. Consultation with NAB finds that more awareness training is needed across government ministries to facilitate mainstreaming of gender perspectives into climate change and DRR.

Despite the shortcomings, the study finds proactive measures taken to institutionalise gender equality into climate change and DRR sectors. Firstly, Vanuatu’s national delegation to COP19 in Warsaw was led by a female director of DWA. The selection process for the delegation was purposely designed to ensure representation of men, women, youth, government and NGOs. This resulted in seven women delegates (out of a total of 15), one of them being a member of the Climate Change Adaptation Consortium and the other being a young woman from an NGO. At the COP meeting, the delegation presented Vanuatu’s first submission to the UNFCCC on Gender Balance of UNFCCC bodies. The submission stressed the integral role of women in climate change adaptation and mitigation, and the need for their engagement in decision and policy making on climate change.

Secondly, there have been ongoing national awareness-raising and educational programmes on gender and climate change delivered through collaboration between government, NGOs and donor agencies. Examples include the Climate Quiz for high school students televised on the national broadcasting channel in 2014. The quiz involved relevant government agencies and NGOs preparing questions on key climate change topics, one of them being on gender. In 2013, as part of the national youth symposium on climate change, young people participated in radio talkback shows to discuss gender impacts of climate change and disasters. SPC-GIZ’s Coping with Climate Change in the Pacific Islands Region project in Vanuatu also published a poster, DVD and stickers to educate communities about the link between gender and climate change.

Thirdly, the Ministry of Climate Change, at the time of the consultation for this study, was in the process of formulating Vanuatu’s first joint policy on climate change and DRR. Gender and social inclusion was clearly identified as a cross-cutting issue in the initial draft document. It recognised the vulnerability of women and people with disabilities to climate change and disasters. Stakeholder consultation on the draft policy resulted in the need for gender and social inclusion to be made a stand-alone objective which is supported by policy directives that are implementable.

Finally, Vanuatu’s national policy on gender equality identifies gender mainstreaming as one of the priority areas, with specific strategies outlined for strengthening gender responsiveness of the climate change and DRR sectors. The DWA has been advocating for greater focus on gender and climate change through its representation on the NAB and is liaising with the Ministry of Climate Change to ensure NAB members receive gender training as a matter of priority.

This study shows Vanuatu is making strides in institutionalising gender equality in climate change and DRR sectors. There are clearly challenges that need to be overcome which are beyond – but will benefit – climate change and disaster planning per se. Transforming social attitudes on gender and eliminating economic and political discrimination against women, are needed to instigate positive change and to empower women in building the country’s resilience to climate change and disasters.
Table 6. The current status of climate change and disaster risk reduction (DRR) mechanisms in integrating gender equality and women’s empowerment: Vanuatu

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<tr>
<th>Climate change and disaster risk reduction (DRR) policy and implementation mechanisms</th>
<th>Current status</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National Disaster Act</td>
<td>Completely gender-blind.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disaster Risk Reduction and Disaster Management National Action Plan</td>
<td>The minimal engagement of women’s groups in developing DRR and DM actions and projects is identified as a key issue in the plan.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vanuatu Climate Change and Disaster Risk Reduction Policy 2016-2030</td>
<td>The policy mentions gender as a cross-cutting issue, although no policy directives or strategies are identified.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Gender Equality Policy</td>
<td>Under policy outcome on gender mainstreaming, there are proposed strategies on gender responsive climate change and disaster resilience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional arrangements</td>
<td>The National Advisory Board on Climate Change and DRR comprises directors from all ministries, including the director of DWA. Due to there being only two female directors, the Board is male-dominated. The National Disaster Committee also includes representation from all ministries and the DWA is the lead chair for the Gender and Protection Cluster. Its NGO co-chairs include CARE and Save the Children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Climate change and DRR projects</td>
<td>Integration of gender perspectives into climate change and DRR projects is sporadic and is based on a project-by-project basis. NGOs such as CARE and the Red Cross have formal processes for gender analysis, although its use in climate change and DRR are yet to be fully applied. CARE’s impact study post-Cyclone Pam was an exception which demonstrated the value of instigating gender-responsive DRR training at the local level.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex and age disaggregated data</td>
<td>No systematic procedures for gathering sex disaggregated data on climate change and disaster impacts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation and leadership of women</td>
<td>Participation of women in climate change efforts is increasing due to community awareness on gender and climate change issues, and the implementation of adaptation and mitigation activities specifically targeting women and girls. There is also evidence of women exercising leadership in the climate change sector: Vanuatu’s national delegation to COP19 in Warsaw was led by the director of DWA and included women leaders from NGOs; women are the driving force behind the Climate Change Adaptation Consortium; and women in the outer islands voice their concerns through the Vanuatu Climate Action Network (VCAN) (Maclellan 2015). The membership of the Gender and Protection Cluster includes women representatives from NGOs. At the provincial and community level, a women’s representative sits on the disaster committee, however they may have little input and influence in decision-making</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

57 Based on information gathered from the desk review and consultations.
Study Recommendations

1. The Ministry of Climate Change PMU in partnership with DWA, should facilitate the inclusion of gender equality outcomes into NAB on Climate Change and DRR’s project assessment criteria and ensure gender analysis is integrated into the design of all national climate change and DRR projects (Government of the Republic of Vanuatu, 2015).

2. The Ministry of Climate Change, the Vanuatu Meteorology and Geo-hazards Department and NDMO, with support from SPC/GIZ and other relevant partners should establish knowledge management and information-sharing processes for government and NGOs to inform climate change and DRR planning, and to identify sector-specific priorities and issues on gender equality. Key lessons learned on gender issues from past and current climate change adaptation and mitigation, and DRR activities should be shared to improve approaches and interventions.

3. The Vanuatu Gender Protection Cluster, with support from NDMO and donors should increase technical and resourcing capacity of the Cluster to ensure its ongoing function and effectiveness in planning and responding to gender and protection issues within the humanitarian emergencies context.

4. The existing institutional arrangements and networks, such as NAB on Climate Change and DRR and the Vanuatu humanitarian cluster system, should continue to build on the positive relations between the government and NGOs to ensure men and women from different communities and the outer islands are represented and engaged in national dialogue on climate change and DRR. Women’s leadership roles should be facilitated and supported.
Time to Act on Gender, Climate Change and Disaster Risk Reduction. An overview of progress in the Pacific region with evidence from Marshall Islands, Vanuatu and Samoa
Time to Act on Gender, Climate Change and Disaster Risk Reduction. An overview of progress in the Pacific region with evidence from Marshall Islands, Vanuatu and Samoa.

Emua Village, Efate island (Vanuatu) - Representatives of 18 women’s associations that attended Vanuatu’s 2015 International Day of Rural Women celebrations.

Photo: UN Women/Nicky Kuautonga