

Applied Research Project Report

**Gender Ambition in Climate Policies:
An Application of the Gender-Just
Transitions Outcomes Framework**



“No climate justice without gender justice” (Terry, 2009)

NOTE : The findings of this report are by the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of GGGI or the Graduate Institute.

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The authors of this report are grateful to the support received and for the opportunity to advance work on a pressing issue. The four authors share similar perspectives, as being students with limited material and non-material resources, being women with a privileged education, passionate about the relationship between feminism and the environment. For this reason, we acknowledge our positionality. Due to the collective nature of the present report, all of the researchers collaborated as a team, holding regular meetings to ensure discussion and utilise each member's unique set of skills.



INTRODUCTION

This report on “Gender Ambition in Just Transitions: An Application of the Gender-Just Transitions Outcomes Framework,” delves into the nexus between just transitions and gender ambition. The report has been prompted by the need for a greater understanding of the role of gender justice in climate policies. The authors approach this by looking at such policies through the lens of a just transition. The idea of a just transition, that justice and equity must be an integral part of the transition toward low-carbon emissions, invokes the question of gender. How is gender affected by climate policies? How can gender ambition be increased in such policies?

PURPOSE & OBJECTIVES

The present report has two aims; to first understand the level of gender ambition in climate policies and to, second, give recommendations on the *Gender-Just Transitions Outcomes Framework* created by the IIED, GGGI, and GEG. The report therefore asks two questions:

1. In the selected case studies of climate related public policy, what is the level of gender ambition?
2. To what extent is this *Gender-Just Transitions Outcomes Framework*, effective in conceptualising ambition for gender transformative actions?

METHODOLOGY: OUR LOTUS

The Gender-Just Transitions Outcomes Framework (The Framework) is applied to seven policies in four countries; Lao PDR, Burkina Faso, Saint Lucia, and Colombia. These countries have been selected based on their geographical diversity, varying levels of gender ambition and the recommendation of the partner organisation, GGGI. The policies consist of the Nationally Determined Contribution (NDC) of each country, two national policies specific to Saint Lucia and a policy-based project specific to Colombia with which GGGI is involved. The authors first analysed the context of each country which can be found in Annex A. Then, the authors employed The Framework by: a) characterising the just transition process by looking at ambition and purpose of gender, the sectoral focus, the spatial focus, timescales, and resourcing, b) setting the gender equality ambition level, c) identifying relevant gender-related policy outcomes domains, and d) identifying a way forward through the application of feminist theories. A feminist economic perspective would be applied if the ambition corresponds to inclusive economic development, a feminist decolonial approach if the ambition was decolonizing economic development and a feminist systemic critique if the ambition was economic systems change. The authors did not analyze the feminist theories but accepted their value. A sub-framework was additionally developed by the authors of this report to support the characterization of the ambition and purpose of the policies. The Framework was evaluated using a SWOT analysis. The different layers of methodology and inquiry are analogized with the petals of the lotus flower to aid in the reading of this report.

APPLICATION: CASE STUDY ANALYSIS

In the case study analysis, the authors apply The Framework to each policy for assessing the gender ambition in the context of climate policy.

The analysis of Lao PDR’s NDC which demonstrates a small degree of gender sensitivity points to the need for incorporating the gender lens to policy planning and implementation. Without the inclusion of gender considerations, policies of circular economy and of sustainable development that the country has laid out, risk further institutionalising path dependency of gender inequality and may neglect opportunities for improving gender equality. However, such policies can only be implemented with adequate financing and support.

Through the analysis of Burkina Faso’s NDC, the authors have found that the country committed to adopt a ‘gender perspective,’ but fails to further elaborate on such plans. Thus, the gender ambition of the country remains at the gender sensitive level. Specific, measurable goals are needed in order to deliver on commitments to include gender. The authors underscore the benefit of a feminist decolonial approach to understand the country’s capacity for higher gender ambition.

The analysis of Saint Lucia, with two gender sensitive policies and one gender blind, revealed that the extent to which The Framework is applicable to national level policies is conditional to the level of gender ambition of the documents.

The analyses of Colombia's gender responsive NDC as well as the gender transformative project by GGGI, demonstrated the need to connect policy with the realities on the ground. While Colombia is known for having strong policies, this does not always indicate that such aspirations will mean real progress.

SYNTHESIS

DISCUSSION OF THE CASE STUDIES

One major observable factor is the presence of a gap between the aspirations of the policies and their actual implementation. Furthermore, they find the need for the understanding of local contexts for a comprehensive use of The Framework. With this, greater interaction between local stakeholders is needed. Another issue is the lack of financing for gender equality outcomes. Policymakers in order to scale up their gender ambition could provide a 'gender roadmap' with detailed policy plans. The authors find that the integration of the three feminist approaches would have allowed for stronger policy gender outcomes.

A SWOT ANALYSIS OF THE FRAMEWORK

The Framework is uniquely motivated by the nexus of gender and just transitions. It innovatively incorporated metrics which are necessary yet under-observed, including informal work, and created space for the consideration of decolonial perspectives. However, it could be improved by greater accessibility and ensuring that experts who are from the policy context are included in order to capture on-the-ground realities and ensure translation from global to local. There is a need for greater objectivity and clarity within The Framework's categories as well the ability for a dynamic analysis and scaling up of gender ambition. Moreover it is important to locate The Framework in an ecosystem of other authoritative frameworks that provide a more comprehensive spectrum of gender ambition, enable ex-ante evaluation for legislation and policy strategy and support internal capacity building through questions and guidelines.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The report's recommendations address three sections. 1. Ensuring an effective use of The Framework by clarifying who are the desired users of the framework itself, by also expanding the framework outside the gender binary division. 2. Scaling up gender ambition by understanding what drives the gap between policy intention and its implementation, and including the informal sector in the policy's goals. 3. Creating a dynamic framework by using the feminist theories posited by The Framework to develop specific 'gender roadmaps.'

CONCLUSION

The authors ultimately reached the conclusion that to achieve a successful just transition, gender justice must be considered. The feminist-theories can provide for a successful starting point to achieve gender transformative actions.



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LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ADB Asia Development Bank

AfDB African Development Bank

AFOLU Agriculture, Forestry and Other Land Use

BUR Biennial Update Reports

GDI Gender Development Index

GEG Gender Expert Group

GHGs Greenhouse gas emissions

GII Gender Inequality Index

GGKP Green Growth Knowledge Partnership

GGGI Global Green Growth Institute

GPE Global Partnerships for Education

HDI Human Development Index

ICLS International Conference of Labour Statisticians

IGWG Interagency Gender Working Group

IHEID Geneva Graduate Institute for International and Development Studies

IIED International Institute for Environment and Development

ILO International Labour Organisation

IPCC Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change

ITUC International Trade Union Confederation

LDC Least Developed Countries

NAP National Adaptation Plan

NDC Nationally Determined Contribution

NEP National Energy Policy

NGO Non-Governmental Organisation

OECD Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

ONF l'Office National des Forêts

PPTAF Project Preparation Facility

SIDS Small Island Developing State

UNDESA United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs

UNICEF United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund

UNFCCC United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change

UNCED United Nations Conference on Environment and Development

UNGEI United Nations Girls' Education Initiative

WHO World Health Organisation

Glossary

Climate change

The present text will refer mainly to the IPCC and UNFCCC definition of climate change. Climate Change is the “change in the state of the *climate* that can be identified by changes in the mean and/or the variability of its properties and that persists for an extended period, typically decades or longer” (IPCC, 2018; UNFCCC, 1992). These changes can be caused by direct or indirect “human action” (*anthropogenic*) and natural factors.

Climate Justice

The concept seeks to balance historical and present inequalities resulting from those who have caused climate change.

Colonisation

Colonisation, as characterised by the unwilling occupation and/or exploitation of another region, typically entails the imposition of external knowledge sources and systems of governance onto a local population (Bumpus & Liverman, 2010, p. 212).

Gender

Gender is defined as the politically and socially constructed roles of people as well as their relationships, including norms, behaviors and roles associated with being a woman, man, non-binary, or another gender identity (WHO, 2022, para. 1). Gender intersects with other factors such as class, race, poverty level, ethnicity, and age.

Gender blind

Gender blind policies and programmes exclude the economic, social, and political roles, responsibilities, rights, entitlements, obligations, and power relations associated with being female and male and the dynamics between and among genders (IGWG, 2017).

Gender equality

The goal of gender equality is equal rights, opportunities and treatments to all genders, contributing to a better social, economic, political and cultural life. It does not refer exclusively to women and gender minorities, but to all individuals of a community (WHO, 2022).

Gender exploitative

Gender exploitative policies and programs actively harm gender equality as they “intentionally or unintentionally reinforce or take advantage of gender inequalities and stereotypes in pursuit of project outcomes, or whose approach exacerbates inequalities” (IGWG, 2017, p. 3).

Gender Justice

Gender justice goes beyond gender equality as it seeks to understand the structural, root inequalities leading to gender inequality. It highlights the subordination taking place under the patriarchy in social, economic, and political life and “recommendations for corrective measures are made” (Michael et al., 2020, p. 802).

Gender sensitive

Gender sensitivity denotes that a policy or program acknowledges the effects of gender norms, roles, and relations and their significance (GPE and UNGEI, 2017). This entails a policy looking at the number of women in informal and formal work, the influence of women on just transition dialogues, the impacts of degrowth on women and how the relationship between society and nature affects women (IIED & GEG, 2022).

Gender responsive

Gender responsive programs and policies conscientiously utilise gender considerations to affect their design, implementation and results (UNICEF, 2017). A gender responsive approach is cognizant of and investigates the state of women’s skills and capacities in the process of change, social protection for women, collective action for change and the benefits of formalising work and the economy (IIED & GEG, 2022).

Gender transformative

Gender transformative programs and policies require a transformation that is underpinned by a critical view of gendered inequalities and norms to create a paradigm shift in the structures that sustain inequality, thus recognising and rewarding care, advancing positive social norms with regards to gender and just transitions (IIED & GEG, 2022).

Informal economy

The informal economy in encompassing both informal employment and the informal sector, consists of “all economic activities by workers and economic units that are – in law or in practice – not covered or insufficiently covered by formal arrangements; and does not cover illicit activities” according to the ILO’s (2015) No. 204 Recommendation.

Informal employment

Jobs in formal sector enterprises, informal sector enterprises, or households are informal jobs if the “employment relationship is, in law or in practice, not subject to national labour legislation, income taxation, social protection or entitlement to certain employment benefits” (ILO, 2003).

Informal sector

The informal sector is composed of “units engaged in the production of goods or services with the primary objective of generating employment and incomes to the persons concerned.” Specifically it is “a subset of unincorporated enterprises...owned by individual household members or several members of the same or different households” (OECD & ILO, 2019 p.155). These enterprises work on a small scale with little distinction between production factors such as labour and capital.

Intersectionality

Intersectionality shaped feminism to add a lens which analyses the ways in which the positioning of identities led to structural discrimination, specifically race and gender, intersect.

Just transition

Just transition refers to the idea that justice and equity must be an integral part of the transition toward low-carbon emissions. It requires a redefinition of economic prosperity and social well-being, instigating dialogue between labour social justice, and climate and the environment (Morena et. al, 2018; Gerrard, Westoby, 2021). The concept remains elusive as it lacks clarity in its real-world application (Gerrard, Westoby, 2021, p. 29).

Marginalisation

Marginalisation can be defined as “the process through which persons are peripheralized on the basis of their identities, associations, experiences, and environments” (Hall et al., 1994, p. 25).

Net zero

Net zero means cutting greenhouse gas emissions close to zero, with any remaining emissions re absorbed from the atmosphere by, for instance, oceans and forests.

Positionality

The idea of positionality critically analyses how the knowledge produced is situated or entrenched in certain power dynamics. Ensuring reflexivity is key to minimising false neutrality and universality (Rose, 1997, p. 306).

Post-Colonial Approach

A post-colonial approach seeks to understand the impacts of colonisation on our current social, political, and economic systems.

Unpaid care work

Unpaid care work refers to unremunerated services for the health, wellbeing, maintenance and protection for members within a household where the activities, in principle, could be conducted by a paid third-party (Ferrant et al., 2014 p.3)

INTRODUCTION

Nearly ‘*everything is gendered*’, meaning that, in Foucauldian terms, there are dominant power discourses and gendered relations in almost all life dimensions (i.e., social, natural, and technological phenomena). It stands to reason that the climate change discourse is also shaped by complex gender relations (MacGregor, 2017, p. 15). Therefore, since the discourses and impacts of climate change are gendered (Buckingham, Masson, 2017; Pearse, 2016; Bendlin, 2014; Resurrécion, 2017; Khurshed and Rahman, 2014; Cannon, 2002), to achieve justice for one, both climate and gender must be considered at the same time. Furthermore, following Bendlin’s (2014) human rights approach to evaluate climate policy, gender equality should be at its core. Thus, adopting a human rights approach that considers gender in intra-societal justice, can be considered as the only way to “oblige states, according to the principle of equality and non-discrimination, to counteract inequalities causing a particular vulnerability to climate change” (p. 689).

Just transition processes are a policy tool that address sustainable development in supporting climate action and a more socially equitable distribution of risks and benefits (Cahill, Allen, 2020, p. 3). The literature on just transitions highlighted the need to be transformative, with a system-critical approach to dismantle interlinked systems of oppressions. Consequently, gender transformative actions aiming for gender equality are pivotal to ensure the full achievement of just transition processes because it enables a change in the power structures and gendered relations in place (Gerrard and Westoby, 2021; Heffron and McCauley, 2018; MacGregor, 2017; Morena et al., 2018; Stevis and Felli, 2016; Velicu and Barca, 2020).

The COP27 Gender Action Plan recognizes “that the full, meaningful and equal participation and leadership of women. . . in national- and local-level climate policymaking and action is vital to achieving long-term climate goals, while noting the importance of mainstreaming a gender perspective” (UNFCCC, 2022). Yet, considerable gender gaps still exist in this context. Several feminist scholars argue that global efforts to grasp why gender analysis is fundamental for climate change are failing (Buckingham, Masson, 2017, p. 3). Many governmental just transition processes are evolving towards adopting a gender perspective, but gender ambition often remains weak. Thus, there is still need for improvements, to close existing gaps and to scale up towards gender transformative action.

The following report will analyse a selected number of climate policies through *The Gender-Just Transitions Outcome Framework* (The Framework) developed by the International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED) and Global Green Growth Institute (GGGI). Firstly, the report will set the purpose, objectives, and methodology of the study. Secondly, the report will employ The Framework for the analysis of case studies and the results will be further discussed in the section. Thirdly and lastly, the report will conclude with a synthesis and recommendations. This work would provide insights into integrating gender justice in just transition contexts, specifically looking at climate policy. In doing so, the authors are on the one hand assessing the gender ambition of climate policies, and on the other providing recommendations on how The Framework could be used to better scale gender ambition in climate policies.

PURPOSE, OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Our research aims to provide a better understanding of the current gender-just transition nexus through the novel application of the The Framework to understand the level of gender ambition in various climate-related policies. To do so, the authors have produced two reports: a preliminary internal *inception report*, consisting of a literature review, list of case studies and glossary, and the present *final report* on *Gender in Just Transitions: Applications of the Gender-Just Transitions Outcomes Framework*.

This report aims to:

- Test The Framework and provide a critique of the Framework itself.
- Present a comprehensive analysis using The Framework on selected climate policies (i.e., case studies) in their approaches to promote positive gender outcomes seeking gender equality.
- Evaluate the level of gender ambition - from gender blind to transformative - in the selected climate policies.
- Propose recommendations on possible improvements of The Framework on its usage and the scaling of gender ambition.

The two **research questions** of the report are:

- In the selected case studies of climate related public policy, what is the level of gender ambition?
- To what extent is this Gender Just Transitions Outcomes Framework, effective in conceptualising ambition for gender transformative actions?

These guiding research questions frame this project to have two objectives; (1) examine the current level of gender ambition in the selected case studies and (2) evaluate The Framework itself.

METHODOLOGY

Our Lotus

The authors have chosen to analogise their research approach by using the symbol of the lotus, characterised by a bundle of petals without which the flower would not be seen as whole. All of the petals work in harmony for the flower to float in the water. In this sense, the layers of the research methodology work to support the report. The outer layers allow the lotus itself to take shape, for the authors, this is The Framework which was the impetus to this report. The next layer represents the application of The Framework to four specific countries' NDCs and local policies. This is done with the support of a sub-framework and country context (Annex A). The penultimate layer of the report consists of a dual analysis: the discussion of case studies adopting feminist theoretical perspectives, and a SWOT analysis to critically assess The Framework itself. Finally, at the centre of the lotus are the recommendations which posit that any just transitions cannot be just without gender equality. This report is limited by only analysing a restricted sample of policies from four countries and therefore cannot draw generalised conclusions. Despite the mud, or the gender inequality in a carbon-heavy economy, from which the lotus is born, the lotus is also a representation of the potential to scale gender ambitions, the potential to bloom when gender transformative outcomes are reached.

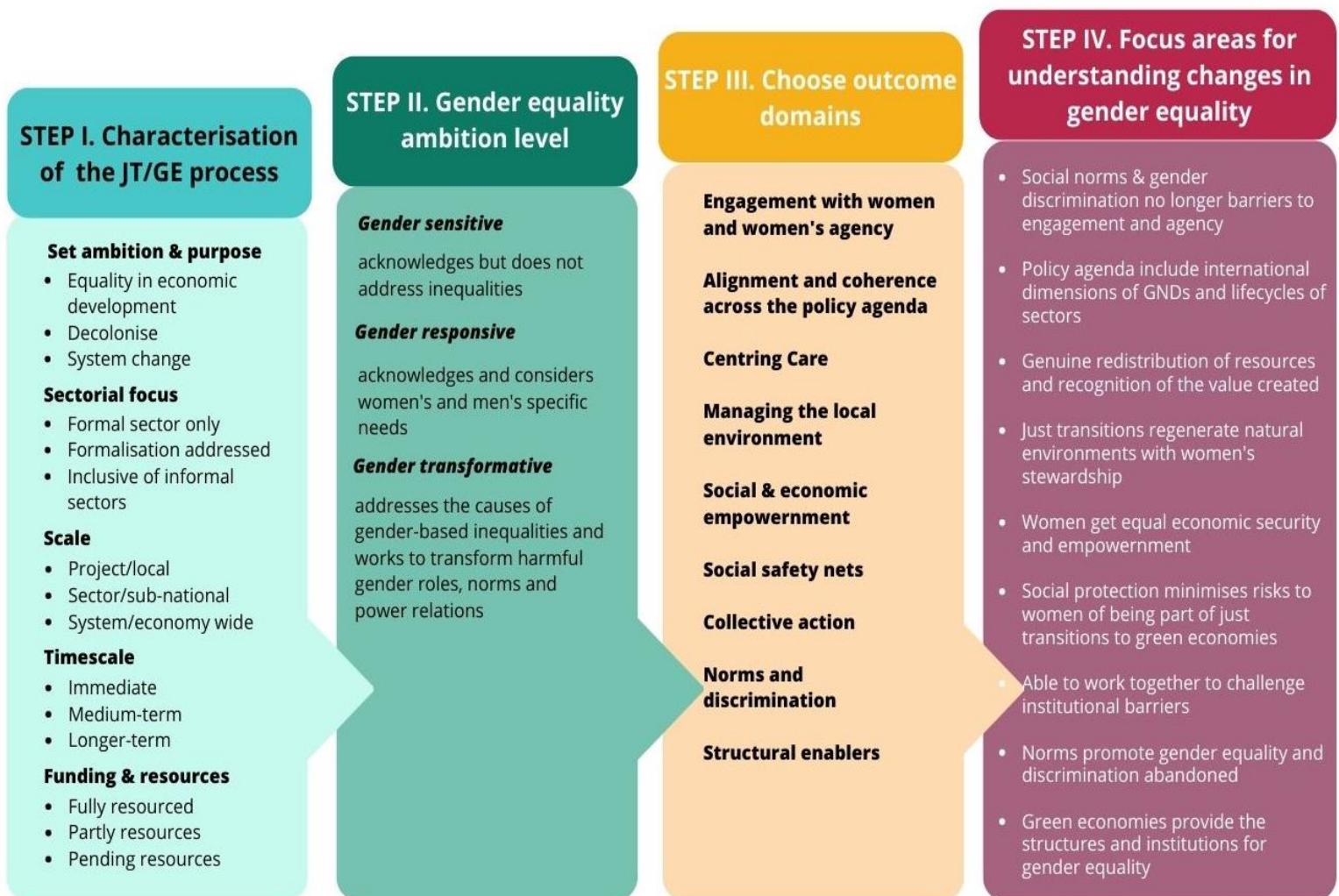
Figure 1: The Lotus



1. Outer Layer: The Gender-Just Transitions Outcomes Framework

The first research question presented is assessed through the lens of the *Gender-Just Transitions Outcomes Framework*. The Framework, which was developed with the intention to understand gender equality outcomes in climate policies, has a four-tiered structure as shown in Figure 1 below. It begins with the identification of the characteristics of the just transition process; namely, setting ambition and purpose; sectorial focus; scale; timescale; and funding and resources. The second level entails evaluating the level of ambition in gender equality based on a three-pronged gender ambition scale that starts with gender sensitive, followed by gender responsive and then gender transformative. At the third level of the framework, policy outcome domains are listed for identification to support users in constructing relevant indicators for *ex-ante* or *ex-post* evaluation. Lastly, these outcome domains can be evaluated considering the guiding questions of one of three feminist theoretical perspectives associated with the level of ambition of the policy - identified in the first tier. A feminist economic perspective would be applied if the ambition corresponds to inclusive economic development, a feminist decolonial approach if the ambition corresponds to a decolonizing economic development and a feminist systemic critique if the ambition corresponds to economic systems change.

Figure 2: The Gender-Just Transitions Outcomes Framework



2. Inner Layer: Application of the Framework through Case Studies

The paper adopts a case study approach to implement the framework by looking at climate policies for Lao PDR, Burkina Faso, Saint Lucia, and Colombia, using their most recent Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs) and smaller-scale policies for Colombia and Saint Lucia respectively. This approach allows the authors to critique the framework, although it does not entirely capture the level of gender ambition in the countries. The policies have been selected from the recommendation of GGGI and the documents used were provided by GGGI itself. The sample of policies, though not representative, tends to confirm a trend illustrated in the literature that gender ambitions are low. The order in which the case studies are presented in an ascending order of gender ambition. For this paper, the authors equate just transitions with climate policy, in line with the approach of the framework but also acknowledge that climate policies are not necessarily just, nor do they always aspire towards a just transition.

This paper analyses four NDCs, for uniformity, which are pledges made under the Paris Agreement of the UNFCCC. Utilising a national scope allows for a higher-level comparison between countries as well as mandates. NDCs often rely on the development of further national and subnational documents which the authors did not have the capacity to analyse. Therefore, the findings can only be limited to the NDCs themselves. The countries were selected to represent different contexts and geographies by having a dynamic mix of a small island state (SIDS); emerging economies and least developed countries (LDCs) as well as a communist politico-economic state.

This report dives into the cases of Colombia and Saint Lucia by applying the framework to specific sectoral policies. By having a comparative look at sectoral and national policies, differences between the two can be understood as the challenges in local policies may not always be reflected in national policies. With regards to Colombia, this report will evaluate Phase II of the subnational Project Preparation Facility (PPTAF) programme conducted by GGGI in collaboration with the Kingdom of Norway. The programme entails an annual capacity training in the years 2020-2022 to strengthen the green growth capacities of rural women in Guaviare. With regards to Saint Lucia the report will evaluate the drafted 2022 National Electricity Act alongside the government's expectations in the National Energy Policy for the years 2022-2032 prepared with the assistance of Mercados – Aries International. While these projects are less comparable to each other, they provide insight into understanding the framework from another perspective, outside of national policy.

In general, each step of The Framework was followed to the extent that was possible. For example, it was not feasible to proceed beyond the second level of the framework, namely the gender ambition's analysis, in the case of the evaluation of the NDC for Lao PDR. To address some of these complexities, the authors incorporated new elements into the framework. Firstly, to ensure a consistent determination of the level of ambition as required at the first step, an additional and prospective sub-framework was developed by the authors. Drawing from authoritative but non-exhaustive literature, the sub-framework offers metrics for defining and delineating *inclusive* sustainable development, *decolonising* economic development and economic *systems change* as in Figure 2. Secondly, in applying and assessing the framework, the need for a detailed understanding of each country's context was realised. Therefore, a comprehensive yet brief overview of the political, social, economic, environmental, and financial context of each country is provided in Annex. The authors analysed the policies of Colombia and Burkina Faso in Spanish and French, respectively. The author who wrote the analysis on Colombia did so using translation tools combined with their knowledge of written Spanish. The author analysing the documents on Burkina Faso is a native French speaker.

Figure 3: The Sub-framework



Sources: Adams & Estrada-Villalta, 2017; Harger & Meyer, 1996; Kirchherr et al., 2017; Pouw & Gupta, 2017; Abercrombie et al., 2015

3. Penultimate Layer: Synthesis of The Discussion of Case Studies and Assessing The Gender-Just Transitions Outcomes Framework

a) Discussion of Case Studies

The discussion of the case studies in the penultimate layer of the lotus allows for a cross-country comparison of the level of gender ambition in climate policy. Despite the difficulty in comparing different national contexts, these diverse case studies are useful in drawing conclusions on how gender ambition is included and could be scaled using the feminist theories shown in Figure 4 in the examined climate policies.

Figure 4: Feminist Theories



b) Assessing The Gender-Just Transitions Outcomes Framework using a SWOT Analysis

The authors employ a SWOT analysis because it is a comprehensive tool allowing the analysis of a complex framework. In this sense, a SWOT goes beyond looking only at strengths and weaknesses to also explore opportunities and threats. Strengths and weaknesses refer to internal dimensions of The Framework, whereas opportunities and threats are external. Threats, in this case, are conceptualised as other alternative frameworks which are necessary to consider as The Framework co-exists in an ecosystem of knowledge. The SWOT approach is adopted to address the report's second research question, *“to what extent is this Gender-Just Transitions Outcomes Framework effective in conceptualising ambition for gender transformative actions?”*

4. Last layer - Findings of the research: Recommendations

The recommendations are generated based on the findings of the case studies and the SWOT analysis. The aim of the recommendations is to enable The Framework to better bridge the gap between climate policy and the gendered realities on the ground, and with that enhance the policy's ambition in promoting gender just transitions. To do as such, the questions coming from the feminist theories are deemed necessary for policymakers. The next steps and the limitations of this report are also underlined in this section.



1. INNER LAYER: APPLICATION OF THE FRAMEWORK THROUGH CASE STUDIES

This section will now implement the case study through an analysis of Lao PDR, Burkina Faso, Saint Lucia, and Colombia. This is ordered based on increasing gender ambition. The latter two case studies, Saint Lucia, and Colombia will also present a project-level analysis.

1.1. Lao PDR's NDC Analysis

The framework is applied on the 2021 and updated version of Lao PDR's NDC which was originally ratified by the state in 2016. The NDC presents a baseline, unconditional and conditional mitigation scenario, and an overview of adaptive measures. The conditional mitigation scenario for 2030 is conditional based on additional financing from developed countries.

Step I. Characterization of the Just Transition Process

1. Ambition & Purpose

The country's ambition does not fit neatly into the categories established by The Framework and the NDC does not utilise terminology familiar to The Framework to indicate its scope.

Thus, referencing the sub-framework proposed this analysis identifies Lao PDR's aims to be the achievement of economic development that is sustainable - without a focus on inclusivity - and economic systems change.

Firstly, circularity is described as the cornerstone of the Sustainable Solid Waste Management Strategy and Action plan for the capital city of Vientiane and 9th National Socio-Economic Development Plan (p.7-9). The shift towards circularity represents *economic systems change* because it entails displacing the 'end-of-life' concept embedded in production and consumption systems with reducing, reusing, recycling, and recovering (Kichherr, 2017). Secondly, Lao PDR aims to realise economic development that is sustainable. The NDC emphasises its alignment with the country's sustainable development goals which are to be detailed in Lao PDR's new five-year National Socio-Economic Development Plan (2021- 2025) (p. 1). However, the goal of economic development excludes the notion of inclusivity. There is scarce reference to the inclusion of marginalised or vulnerable actors, indigenous knowledge and the redistribution of power and decision making.

2. Sectoral Focus (Including Informality)

There is no explicit reference made in the NDC to the phenomena of formality or informality even though the informal sector is a sizable aspect of the economy. According to the ILO (2017) unpaid family workers and own-account workers comprise 43 percent and 38 percent of employed workers which indicates the salience of informal workers. Furthermore, there is a gender divide, where 61 percent of women in the labour force are unpaid family workers in contrast to 26 percent of men.

3. Spatial Focus

Lao PDR takes an economy wide focus for climate action. The scale is denoted by the breadth of economic sectors included in the NDC: energy, agriculture, waste, public health, education, water, transport and urban development and land use and forestry. Within these sectors, the scope of change is also at the national level, for example energy targets are aimed at increasing national renewable energy capacity.

4. Timescales

Lao PDR has immediate, medium- and long-term objectives for climate action. It has several projects in operation such as increasing the share of hydroelectric power and the share of biofuels (p.4). Medium term goals are those set out to be accomplished by 2030 under both unconditional and conditional mitigation scenarios. These are supplemented by the National Green Growth Strategy to 2030 plan, the 10-year National Socio-Economic Development Strategy 2015 – 2025 and the next 5-year National Socio-Economic Development Plan 2021 – 2025 plans. In the long run, mitigation and adaptation efforts are aimed at positioning the country on zero net emissions by 2050 pathway.

5. Resourcing

Development institutions such as the World Bank Group (2017) and the Green Climate Fund (2019) usually allocate a budget for gender-based projects and gender action plans for climate action. However, the government of Lao PDR in the NDC does not earmark funds for gender projects. In general, the government maintains in the NDC that a greater amount of funding is required from international partners and developed countries to finance the conditional

mitigations scenario for effectively meeting emissions reduction targets (p.6).

Step II. Gender Equality Ambition Level

6. Lower tier of gender sensitive/responsive ambition. The conception of gender is male or female.

The NDC demonstrates some gender sensitivity, but teeters on the line of gender blindness. Gender positive targets are mostly addressed in terms of health strategy for adaptation measures. 50 percent participation of women is marked as an indicator for organisational and staff capacity building workshops (p.22). Additionally, targets for gender equality in terms of public health climate adaptation through access to improved water and sanitation in rural areas are stated (p.12). With regards to vulnerability assessment and climate informed health programs there is some mention of women's health, reproductive health, and mental illness (p.23). The importance of participatory processes in sustainable forest management is noted; yet there is a lack of detail pertaining to the communities whose participation is necessary. Overall, cognizance of gendered issues and gender ambition is lacking.

Step III. Relevant Outcome Domains and Timeframes.

Due to the low level of gender ambition and lack of information in the NDC relevant to outcome domains, steps three and four of The Framework could not be implemented.

1.2. Burkina Faso's NDC Analysis

The Framework is applied to the updated version of Burkina Faso's NDC 2021-2025. This NDC was published in October 2021, following the NDC's revision of the 2015-2020 version, including a report analysis on the gender context. The NDC presents a baseline, unconditional and conditional mitigation scenario, and an overview of adaptive measures. The conditional mitigation scenario for 2030 is based on additional financing from developed countries, international organisations, and international financial mechanisms.

Step I. Characterization of the Just Transition Process

1. Ambition & Purpose

The country's NDC does not expressly articulate a clear ambition using The Framework's terms. However, while adopting the sub-framework present in the Annex, the NDC's objective of achieving an Inclusive Sustainable Development can be identified.

Burkina Faso is committed to being inclusive, participative, and open to dialogue in the context of its just transition, aiming to take actions against climate change while contributing to the socio-economic development of its population and improving its resilience (Government of Burkina Faso, p.16). Particularly, the NDC focuses on the reduction of GHGs, on the reduction of deforestation and on the preservation of natural resources through mitigation and adaptation strategies (p. 6). Furthermore, Burkina Faso states that the gender perspective ("analyse genre") will be taken into consideration throughout the NDC's main objectives (p. 6).

2. Sectoral Focus (Including Informality)

Several formal sectors are considered in the NDC such as Agriculture, Forestry and Other Land Use (AFOLU), Energy, Transportation, Waste, and Infrastructure. Even though informality is not explicitly mentioned in the NDC; the majority of the sectors above feature a certain degree of informality.

3. Spatial Scale

The spatial scale is focused on specific sectors such as: Agriculture, Forestry and Other Land Use (AFOLU); Energy; Transportation, Waste, and Infrastructure. In addition, Burkina Faso will develop both national reforms and regional projects under the coordination of the Ministry for the Environment, Green Economy, and Climate Change. The Ministry will work closely with a variety of actors including NGOs, the private sector, the Ministry of Research and Innovation and the Ministry for Women and Gender.

4. Timescales

The timescale is medium-term because the first objectives to be achieved are in a 5-year time frame (2021-2025). It is also long-term because Burkina Faso also has 2050 targets for some plans in the Annex.

5. Resourcing

The funding will come from the government of Burkina Faso, bilateral agreements, multilateral agreement and international funding systems, the private sector, and NGOs. Burkina Faso states clearly that the amount for actions or projects dedicated to the gender field is \$1,379,891 USD and it is part of the budget that still needs to be found. The total expected cost to implement the NDC is \$4,124,231,753 USD, of which \$1,596,368,476 USD has already been acquired and \$2,527,863,277 USD to be found.

Step II. Gender Equality Ambition Level

6. Burkina Faso's NDC is gender sensitive. However, there are only a few references to gender in the NDC. This could be a consequence of the general nature of the document. Burkina Faso also published a "Rapport de l'Analyse Rapide de Cadrage du Contexte Genre dans les Secteurs Clefs de la Contribution Déterminée au Niveau National" (Government of Burkina Faso, 2020) on the interconnection between gender, climate change and policies which discusses including a gender perspective but without further elaboration. This document was drafted in the context of the revision of the previous NDC in the development of the current NDC.

Thus, the NDC is gender sensitive because it accommodates the importance of the gender perspective, but without clarifying how the gender lens will be included in the context of the just transition. A gender analysis is mentioned as one of the criteria to decide the primary objectives of the NDC as well as being adopted to create gender sensitive sectoral plans. The NDC states that the national unit of coordination to implement NDC will work with the Ministry in charge of Gender and Women (p.17). Nevertheless, the NDC is lacking in clarity on how these 'gender' goals will be achieved in practice and how the NDC's 'gender budget' will be allocated to gender specific projects.

Step III. Relevant Outcome Domains and Timeframes

In considering relevant outcome domains, the NDC refers mainly to the Policy Agenda outcome in the immediate-medium term scale. Throughout the NDC, the ‘gender perspective’ is referred to achieve the success of the just transition.

Step IV. Identify Aspects to Focus on in Understanding Changes in Gender Equality

Despite Burkina Faso’s commitment to adopt a gender perspective in its NDC, it needs to be further discussed through a gender roadmap. First, it has to be clear what the ‘gender perspective’ means, through explicit goals/policy objectives that can perhaps also be measured. Second, the NDC should question the existing gaps to achieve gender equality and prepare a roadmap with concrete policy goals and projects. In order to scale up the gender ambition of the NDC and to move towards concrete policy solutions, a joint feminist decolonial and systemic critiques approach would be pivotal. Particularly answering to the following questions would help the Burkina Faso government to concretize its gender ambition:

- How are historically marginalised voices centred in debates of just transitions in postcolonial economies and how are the powerful ones decentred? (Feminist decolonial approaches);
- How have women been engaged in defining the purpose of the transition's agenda itself, not just shaping the implementation? (Feminist systemic critiques).

1.3. Saint Lucia’s NDC Analysis

The Framework is applied to the 2021 updated version of Saint Lucia’s NDC with an increased ambition in mitigation, adaptation and loss and damage processes from the first version ratified in 2016. The conditional 2030 targets are largely dependent on financial and technological multilateral and bilateral support from developed countries.

Step I. Characterization of the Just Transition Process

1. Ambition & Purpose

The country's ambition can fit into the category of inclusive sustainable development, as it emphasises the commitment to implementing the country’s Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) agenda, alongside promoting development outcomes that seek to strengthen the resilience of most vulnerable groups. As specified by the government, the aim is to, as far as possible, try to attain “the social co-benefits of the mitigation measures presented in the NDC” (7).

National economic priorities have been specified to be tourism, agriculture, and infrastructure, whereas healthcare, education and citizen security are the social priorities. Particular attention has been put on the **energy sector** with a strategy for 2030 and 2050 targets that include measures in the areas of renewable energy, efficiency solutions and technologies (7-8).

2. Sectoral Focus

There is no mention of informality or informal economy. The formal sector is the only one considered. The expressed focus is on building strong institutions that are a platform for growth

and development.

3. Spatial Focus

Saint Lucia takes a specific focus on the energy sector for climate action. The plan is to scale-up to consider all sectors that contribute to greenhouse emissions, once the Long-Term Strategy (LTS) is operative.

4. Timescales

There is a medium-term strategy that points to the mitigation-centric target of reducing by 7% Greenhouse Gas (GHG) emissions in the energy sector relative to 2010, by 2030 (p. 3).

Saint Lucia is also developing a Long-Term Strategy, and the energy modelling timeframe extending to 2050. The LTS will consider all sectors contributing to GHG emissions.

5. Resourcing

The country is partly resourced as it has in place a Climate Financing Strategy under the NAP, which considers different sources of financing such as domestic public resources, international public finance, and domestic and international private finance.

As a SIDS, Saint Lucia has limited resources and is expected to mobilise a significant amount of international technical and financial resources to address the impacts of climate change. Therefore, international support is needed considering how mitigation actions are estimated to cost approximately US\$368 million. No specific resources for gender equality outcomes have been allocated.

Step II. Gender Equality Ambition Level

6. The NDC shows elements of gender sensitivity. The conception of gender is male or female.

The NDC places the country in line with SDG 5 on gender equality. Gender is now more prominently featured in policies, shifting from a non-inclusion in Saint Lucia's First National Communication of 2001 to inclusion of gender considerations in Saint Lucia's National Adaptation Plan (NAP) and supplements of 2018 and beyond, including the Sectoral Adaptation Strategies and Actions Plans (SASAPs) in Water, Agriculture, Fisheries (2018), as well as the more recent Resilient Ecosystems Adaptation Strategy and Action Plan (REASAP, 2020).

Saint Lucia's Gender Relations Department is developing the national gender equality policy and strategic plan, which includes environmental sustainability with focus on climate change as a thematic priority.

The country's Climate Change Adaptation Policy (CCAP) considers its success linked to the extent of stakeholder (including women and vulnerable groups) ownership and participation in the implementation of the CCAP priorities.

In the NDC, it has been stated how the country continues to address gender considerations systematically and adequately in the project design, consultation, implementation and monitoring stages when project concepts are being developed, amalgamated or expanded for

funding consideration.

Step III. Relevant Outcome Domains and Timeframes.

7. In considering relevant outcome domains, the NDC refers to engagement and agency as it states the need to engage women and women's agency in just transition processes in the Immediate timescale

Moreover, it also points to the policy agenda domain by:

- Including gender equality as a policy objective of just transitions to green economies in the immediate timescale.
- Launching In 2019, a regional project benefitting nine Caribbean countries called Enabling Gender-Responsive Disaster Recovery, Climate and Environmental Resilience in the Caribbean (EnGenDER). The EnGenDER project will be the starting point for a more substantive gender integration in climate change and should act as a catalyst for the acceleration of gender equality initiatives in Saint Lucia

Step IV. Identify Aspects to Focus on in Understanding Changes in Gender Equality

8. In the document the most relevant outcome domain appears to be engagement and agency as it specifies how the NDC, to be successful, needs to broaden its scope and engage different stakeholders including women alongside ownership and participation in the implementation.

9. Key aspects within the policy domain comprises women's participation and inclusion. In the span of twenty years women have been gradually referred to in the policy outcomes of the country (CCAP, NAP, SASAPs, REASAP). In this respect a feminist economic perspective could be useful to ask about what formal and informal roles are women undertaking within the sector and what roles are envisaged for them in the transition?

1.4. St Lucia's Sectorial Policy-Level Analysis

Given the central role of the energy sector in the country's NDC, a further attempt is made to apply The Framework to Saint Lucia's 2022 (draft) National Electricity Act and National Energy Policy.

National Electricity Act (draft)

The draft National Electricity Act fails to mention gender, female, equality, and/or informality in its three parts and fifteen divisions; therefore, such a low level of gender ambition puts the Act in the gender-blind category, making The Framework inapplicable. However, the feminist theories posited in the framework can be useful in asking relevant questions which answers could positively upgrade the Act:

- What formal and informal roles are women undertaking within the sector? What roles are envisaged for them in the transition?
- To what extent do women benefit from the skills development and productivity support for green enterprise?
- To what extent do social and cultural norms support better working conditions and roles

- for women?
- What roles are envisaged for caring and community responsibilities within the shift to a green economy or the just transition?
- Do women have access to assets they need to benefit from the transitions such as land or financial systems?

National Energy Policy (NEP)

The NEP represents the Government's aims of developing and transitioning to a greener and more resilient energy sector for the years 2022-2032. It is structured around a vision statement with seven vision goals and twenty-eight objectives drafted under it.

Energy sector overview

Due to Saint Lucia's insular nature, geographical position and territorial specificities, the country is isolated from bigger network structures and needs to achieve energy self-sufficiency. The country is 92% dependent on imported fossil fuels, thus vulnerable to fluctuation and volatility of the international oil market. In 2020, 4.8 % of the country's GDP was spent on importing fuel and diesel oil, in line with the upward trend in oil consumption over the last decades. Moreover, there is only one electrical company in the country, LUCELEC, that has exclusive access to fossil-based generation, transmission, distribution, and the sale of electricity. The latest BUR report highlighted how the electricity sector consumed the largest fossil fuel imports (45% of the energy sector's total emissions).

STEP I. Characterization of the Just Transition Process

1. Ambition & Purpose

Goal 6 of the NEP has specific references to gender: "Ensure that human, technical and institutional capacity is aligned with the needs of the energy sector and objectives of the policy by the Integration of social and gender aspects in the development of the sector."

Objective number 4 aims at ensuring female participation in the energy sector therefore entailing that the ambition and purpose of the policy falls in the inclusive sustainable development category. Indeed, the NEP explicitly wishes to address the needs of disadvantaged and marginalised people across the sector by promoting a greater involvement of women and women NGOs within the sector as only 31.7% of the energy sector workforce was occupied by women in 2020.

2. Sectoral Focus

The NEP does not focus on the informal sector despite recognising the persisting gender bias differences in end-user profiles for instance women performing a "disproportionate share of unpaid energy intensive activities such as cooking and laundry" (60).

3. Spatial Focus

The scale is sectorial (only the energy sector is considered) and seeks to achieve gender equality at the societal level.

4. Timescales

The NEP has a ten-year timeframe 2022-2032, therefore having an immediate and medium-term scale. No specificities have been given on what must be achieved when.

5. Resourcing

Goal 7 refers to financing for renewable energy by facilitating local financing to green projects and by facilitating access to innovative ways of financing green projects. No specific funding opportunities have been made towards gender equality outcomes. Only value addressed is on the “promotion of investments with high level of local participation” (p. 63).

STEP II. Gender Equality Ambition Level

6. Gender sensitive

The NEP can be considered as gender sensitive as it seeks to have a greater engagement of women and women NGOs within the energy sector, recognising the existing inequalities. Moreover, through a greater female participation, it also seeks to improve the adaptation of the policy to address the needs of beneficiaries.

STEP III. Relevant Outcome Domains and Timeframes

7. Outcome domain

The recognised outcome domain in the policy is engagement and agency with an immediate time frame.

STEP IV. Identify Aspects to Focus on in Understanding Changes in Gender Equality

8. Only the policy outcome domain of engagement and agency has been recognised in the policy. The NEP favours gender equality by promoting a higher involvement of women and women NGOs in the energy sector to also better respond to the needs of end-users. In this respect a feminist economic perspective can be useful to employ as it asks relevant question and consideration for the application of the NEP:

- What is the role of women in the energy sector?
- What formal and informal roles are women undertaking within the sector? What roles are envisaged for them in the transition?
- To what extent do women benefit from the skills development and productivity support for green enterprise?

1.5. Colombia's NDC Analysis:

The Framework is applied to the Government of Colombia's updated NDC for the period of 2020-2030. The NDC includes three components, i) GHG mitigation, ii) adaptation to climate change, and iii) means of implementation as a key component of the policies and actions towards reducing emissions, adaptation, and ensuring climate-resilient development (Gobierno de Colombia, 2020).

Step I. Characterization of the Just Transition Process

1. Ambition & Purpose

The purpose of Colombia's NDC is to address climate change within the country with the plan being shared at the international level to the UNFCCC. It is difficult to confine the NDC to one of the three categories: inclusive, decolonizing, or systems-change. This is because Colombia's NDC pulls from each of them. The government points to their 2019 Estrategia Nacional de Economía Circular [National Circular Economy Strategy], which draws upon an economic systems-change mindset. However, the NDC integrates a human rights-based approach, drawing upon concepts of intergenerational equality and the just transition. Thus, this analysis will classify Colombia's NDC as one which is based on inclusivity with a strong emphasis on systems-change.

Colombia's NDC, as framed in the introduction and in the first section on integrated elements, falls in the inclusive category as it highlights the need for gender approaches, while also incorporating other inclusive principles from the Paris Agreement including human rights.

2. Sectoral Focus (Including Informality)

Colombia's NDC targets nearly all sectors, taking a whole-of-society approach, as the updated NDC was carried out by the government with the sectoral ministries (Gobierno de Colombia, 2020, p. 5). The NDC combines both a top-down governmental approach with a bottom-up approach which incorporates the input of grassroots organisation.

Colombia's NDC deals largely with the formal sector, as it mentions the inclusion of climate change into the formal instruments of sectoral and territorial planning, through the formulation of the Comprehensive Climate Change Management Plans at the sectoral level (PIGCCS) and territorial (PIGCCT) (Gobierno de Colombia, 2020, p. 1). Only one goal, in table 4, explicitly has a focus in the formalisation of sectors, however this goal is for only the department, also known as a province, of Antioquia (Gobierno de Colombia, 2020, p. xlvi). Thus, there is relatively little focus on the informal economy despite it having a significant impact.

3. Spatial Focus

The updated NDC is system or economy wide as it targets Colombia at the national, department, and local levels. Gender mainstreaming will therefore be taken at all of these levels.

4. Timescales

Colombia's updated NDC is set from the period 2020-2030. It also includes specific timescales for each ambition to be accomplished ranging from 2025 or 2030 (Gobierno de Colombia, 2020, p. 43). However, the updated NDC draws upon other plans, namely the la Estrategia de Largo Plazo E2050 [Long-Term Strategy E2050], which seeks to have Colombia be carbon neutral by 2050, with a 90% reduction in emissions with the remaining 10% being offset (E2050 Colombia, n.d., pg 12). As reflected in both the Long-Term Strategy E2050 and the updated NDC, Colombia plans to have a 51% reduction in emissions by 2030 (Gobierno de Colombia, 2020, p. 32; E2050 Colombia, n.d.).

5. Resourcing

Colombia's NDC includes a detailed table in the Annex of the financial support needed, ranging from donations to other financing instruments, but lacks explicit gender references (Gobierno de Colombia, 2020, p. xxiii).

Step II. Gender Equality Ambition Level

6. This NDC is best classified as gender responsive because it acknowledges and considers women's and men's specific needs. The introduction sets out the level of gender ambition as it integrates considerations key to climate action such as “la igualdad de género y empoderamiento de la mujer [gender equality and women's empowerment]” (Gobierno de Colombia, 2020, p. 1). In section 5 on the Means of implementation, the government has created a timeline with goals geared towards climate education from a gender approach. Their first goal for 2030 includes updating the National Policy for Environmental Action [la Política Nacional de Educación Ambiental] to incorporate the importance of climate action with a gender, as well as human rights, intergenerational, and intersectional, approach (Gobierno de Colombia, 2020, p. 43). Annex M1, table 3 references advancing SDG 5 on gender equality in relation to energy, although this link with gender could be more explicitly developed (Gobierno de Colombia, 2020).

Colombia's NDC commits to the mainstreaming of a gender approach in Colombia's public policy. This mainstreaming will also be incorporated by the Política Pública Nacional de Equidad de Género [National Public Policy on Gender Equity] which will be updated to include climate change considerations in line with the UN Gender Action Plan. As a broad document which covers numerous sectors, the success of implementing gender-responsive policy from the updated NDC relies on supporting policies. The Estrategia de Largo Plazo E2050 [Long-Term Strategy E2050], has strategic message 10 which focuses on the need to integrate a gender perspective in all dimensions of climate action, similarly one of the 17 fundamental principles is gender equality (E2050 Colombia, n.d., p. 13 & p. 41).

Step III. Relevant Outcome Domains and Timeframes

Colombia's updated NDC outcome domains are most closely aligned with Engagement and Agency as well as Policy Agenda.

Step IV. Identify Aspects to Focus on in Understanding Changes in Gender Equality

Gender is incorporated in the Engagement and Agency domain as the gender approach is explicitly included in the process of participation section (Gobierno de Colombia, 2020, p. 7). The substantial work will likely be done in the medium-term. However, the immediate term has included gender considerations in the awareness and dialogues for the creation of the updated NDC. The inclusion of a gender approach to climate change has been discussed in general terms throughout the NDC, and likely would result in the outcome domain of Policy Agenda as gender equality is included in the immediate term as a policy objective.

Depending on the level of gender mainstreaming Colombia achieves, the updated NDC could also lead to other outcome domains such as structural enablers. Questions to be asked with the implementation of the NDC include:

- Are the lived experience of women and gender diverse individuals affected by the NDC prioritised in reviews and evaluations?
- How does the National Public Policy on Gender Equity understand the role of gender in climate change and the just transition?

1.6. Colombia's Rural women Guaviare Workshop Analysis

The Framework will now be applied to GGGI's country programme, run in partnership with the Kingdom of Norway, in Colombia (Global Green Growth Institute, n.d.). It will look at Phase II of the subnational program to analyse the specific Project Preparation Facility which led an annual capacity training in the years 2020-2022 to strengthen the green growth capacities of rural women in Guaviare. The analysis comes from an unpublished document by GGGI entitled, "Rural women Guaviare - GGGI Colombia" (2022).

Step I. Characterization of the Just Transition Process

1. Ambition & Purpose

Over the last three years, GGGI has been working together with the subnational government to build the capacities of rural women's organisations in Guaviare (Colombia) bringing knowledge to the field and supporting rural women to understand what green growth is, to develop their finance skills and to acquire tools for sustainable tropical agriculture.

The workshop takes an inclusive approach as it works to build social infrastructure and capacities for marginalised groups, rural women, to realise opportunities.

2. Sectoral Focus (Including Informality)

This workshop focused on themes of agricultural, rural development, environmental protection, deforestation, human rights promotion, and efforts to end poverty through formal employment.

3. Spatial Focus

This workshop is local, focused on the Guaviare region, southwest of Colombia.

4. Timescales

The workshop had an immediate timescale, as each year had a different theme and was a stand-alone project lasting between one and four days. However, the effects lasted longer as some of the participating women's organisations have received support from the Government of Guaviare, the United Nations and ONF (l'Office National des Forêts), among others, to access competitive funds with the Terramaz program operated by ONF Andina.

5. Resourcing

This project was fully resourced and resources for this workshop were provided by the Kingdom of Norway and GGGI.

Step II. Set the Gender Equality Ambition Level

6. This workshop can be most closely classified as gender transformative in its work to target women and women's associations. However, it could be made more inclusive to other genders by including gender diverse participants. This could be useful for those who fall outside of the gender binary and therefore face additional difficulties getting access to resources. The workshops in 2020 and 2021 took place on International Rural Women's Day of 2020 and 2021, highlighting the fundamental role that rural women play in deforestation control and in the green economic development of Guaviare. As a caveat, it is important to note that these workshops had representatives of around 33 women chosen by the local government, so the

success depends on if these women are representative. This is because the government selected participants and as found in the context section, women environmental human rights defenders face barriers including intimidation.

Step III. Relevant Outcome Domains and Timeframes.

The outcome domain is based on the Local Environment as the workshop focuses on women's stewardship of natural resources. However, as it resulted in access to competitive funds the outcomes of the workshop could also be classified as Economic Empowerment.

Step IV. Identify Aspects to Focus on in Understanding Changes in Gender Equality

Given that this was a workshop which has only taken place three times, the changes are primarily focused on increased capacity building. Questions could be asked from the different feminist theories of:

- Who is participating and has power and agency in the household, community and democratic decisions that allow such shifts to take place?
- How have women been engaged in defining the purpose of the transitions agenda itself, not just shaping the implementation?

The second workshop, in 2021 focused on connecting the audience with women's associations from the municipalities of El Retorno, Calamar, and San José del Guaviare. By working on topics such as “construct a family life plan to organise and ensure in the short, medium and long term, both food sovereignty and their own household system of abundance, autonomy and wellbeing,” as was an objective in 2022, these women could gain more knowledge into such topics. However, it is important that the women's associations are able to engage in the way that makes the most sense for them and can share their own issues and needs.

Table 1: Summary of NDC Case Study Analysis

NDC Case Study Analysis					
Country		Lao PDR	Burkina Faso	Saint Lucia	Colombia
Characterisation of the just transition & gender equality process	<i>Ambition & Purpose</i>	Sustainable development (not inclusive) & economic systems change	Inclusive sustainable development	Inclusive sustainable development	Inclusive sustainable development, economic systems change
	<i>Sectorial Focus</i>	Informal economy not explicitly considered	Informal economy not explicitly considered	Formal economy	Formal & informal economy
	<i>Scale</i>	System and economy wide	Local, sub-national, and economy wide	Energy Sector	System & economy wide
	<i>Timescale</i>	Immediate, medium term (5 & 10-year plans), & long term (2050)	Medium term (5-year plan) & long term (2050)	Medium term (2030) & long term (2050)	Immediate (2025), medium term (2030), & long term (2050)
	<i>Funding & Resources</i>	No national funding for gender	Pending resources	No funding for gender	Partly resourced
Gender Equality Ambition Level		Slightly gender sensitive	Gender sensitive	Gender sensitive	Gender responsive
Outcome Domains		N/A	Policy agenda	- Engagement & agency - Policy agenda	- Engagement and agency - Policy Agenda
Focus Area Within Outcomes Domain		N/A	Policy Agenda	Engagement & agency	Engagement & agency
Potential Feminist Theory		- Feminist systemic critique - Feminist economic perspective	- Feminist decolonial approach - Feminist systemic critique	Feminist economic perspective	Feminist systemic critique

Table 2: Summary of Sectoral Policy Case Study Analysis

Sectoral Policy Case Study Analysis				
Policy		Saint Lucia: Draft National Electricity Act	Saint Lucia: National Energy Policy	Colombia: Rural women Guaviare Workshops
Characterisation of the just transition & gender equality process	<i>Ambition & Purpose</i>	Sustainable development (not inclusive)	Inclusive sustainable development	Inclusive sustainable development
	<i>Sectorial Focus</i>	Formal economy	Formal economy	Formal & informal economy
	<i>Scale</i>	Energy sector	Energy sector	Project level and local (Guaviare region)
	<i>Timescale</i>	N/A	Immediate & medium term (2022-2032)	Immediate (2020-2022)
	<i>Funding & Resources</i>	N/A	N/A	Fully resourced
Gender Equality Ambition Level		Gender blind	Gender sensitive	Gender transformative
Outcome Domains		N/A	Engagement & agency	- Local environment - Economic empowerment
Focus Area Within Outcomes Domain		N/A	Engagement & agency	Local environment
Potential Feminist Theory		N/A	Feminist economic perspective	Feminist economic perspective



2. PENULTIMATE LAYER: SYNTHESIS

a) Discussion of Case Studies

In these climate policies, what is the level of gender ambition? Given the above section, the application of The Framework to the NDCs and to specific policies laid common trends for our discussion.

One major observable factor is the presence of a gap between the aspirations of the policies and their actual implementation. Such a gap is wider when there is a lower gender ambition, despite all the cases commitment to climate action. Lao PDR's general ambition is to catalyse economic systems change through renewable energy infrastructure and revamping of several sectors, with a push towards a circular economy. Yet, such transformative ambition is lacking with regards to gender equality and inclusivity, as gendered disparities, and the need for incorporating gender lens to policy planning and implementation is nearly absent. It would be exceedingly difficult to realise the systems level shift the country envisions without accounting for gender gaps. Similarly, Burkina Faso does not clarify how the government will in practice implement its gender ambitions. For instance, a clear roadmap to scale up 'green' policy projects to include the gender perspective is absent. The same is noticeable for Saint Lucia as no concrete plan of actions has been portrayed in the policy with a detailed outline of what will be achieved, when or how the objectives and goals will be attained. The extent to which The Framework is applicable to national level policies is conditional to the level of gender ambition of the documents. NDCs are highly reliant upon a variety of national and subnational policies, thus a holistic approach to The Framework is critical to understanding chances of success for implementation.

Moreover, clear financial opportunities are deemed necessary to achieve any gender equality outcome. In this sense, Burkina Faso has allocated finance for implementing gender budgeting, yet it lags on how and on which mechanism such a budget will rely on and be distributed.

The application of The Framework further underscores the need for a thorough understanding of the country contexts to conclude if such gender ambition in policy will equate to gender ambition on the ground (Annex). As mentioned in the Colombia case study, Oxfam identified various gaps in preventing regulatory frameworks from being implemented (Oxfam, 2019). These gaps should be further elaborated upon and included when conducting such policy analyses to ensure that gender-transformative policy can best support a gender-transformative reality. It is important that strong policy does not overshadow weak realities, as Colombia faces high rates of murder and intimidation for female environmental human rights defenders (Global Witness, 2021). In this sense, a greater enabling environment must be established to ensure that such policies are implemented.

Notably, aside from a small mention by Colombia, there is no acknowledgement of the informal economy which is experienced differently by different genders. This has inherent consequences for patterns of consumption and production which policies seek to transform in the case of Lao PDR. To avoid unintended negative impacts, safety nets are critical in addressing informal work.

A lesson learnt by the development of the workshop in Colombia that can be generalised for future projects refers to the enabling positive environment created for the specific knowledge of women. Their work was elevated and empowered through being connected with other women's groups, leading to increased capacity building. However, it is important that women's

associations are actively engaged, and their needs and perspectives are included in the development of effective policies and programmes. In this sense, The Framework also can include the specific knowledge production of women and marginalised genders and groups including Indigenous forms of knowledge.

To analyse and scale policy to achieve gender transformative outcomes, it is pivotal to ask questions coming from different feminist theories. As such, the feminist proposals for gender just transitions that use entry points from feminist economics, post-colonial and intersectional feminism and feminist systemic critiques, are useful to further develop the The Framework's outcome domains.

Given Saint Lucia's NDC and NEP as well as Colombia's NDC having as the most relevant outcome domain engagement and agency, a feminist economics approach will start by asking what formal and informal roles are women undertaking within the sector? What roles are envisaged for them in the transition? Through these questions, it is possible to rethink the women's role in society, also considering their contribution in the unpaid care economy. A decolonial and intersectional perspective applied to the same outcome domain will consider the local power dynamics with attention paid to the informal economy and gendered social construction that could prevent gender justice, specifically within the energy sector. The starting point would be asking what is the full lifecycle of the transitioning energy sector proposed? How are women enrolled in the full lifecycle of these technologies? What relationships of (re)production does this sector set up within the selected contexts? How are historically marginalised voices centred in debates of just transitions in postcolonial economies and how are the powerful ones decentred?

Burkina Faso's most relevant outcome is policy agenda. In fact, the 'gender perspective' is included in the NDC as a policy priority but without clear indication of how it will be implemented in practice. For instance, policymakers could provide a 'gender roadmap' with detailed policy plans. In this case, the starting point would be asking what has been the role of women and marginalised people in the process of just transition: How are historically marginalised voices centred in debates of just transitions in postcolonial economies and how are the powerful ones decentred? (Feminist decolonial approaches); How have women been engaged in defining the purpose of the transitions agenda itself, not just shaping the implementation? (Feminist systemic critiques). Adopting a feminist systemic critique will highlight how the growth paradigm must also shift to fulfil a low-carbon growth agenda. The critique frames the social exclusion faced by women from the system, networks and opportunities that would enable them to thrive. Additional questions to ask include: How and how well is centring care work integrated into the transition agenda? How are women's aspirations met in the energy transition agenda?

Unlike the policies of the other countries, Lao PDR's NDC provided no clear outcome domains for gender equality. Yet, in this case it is possible that instead of being *ex-post* categories, the outcome domains can be aspirational and *ex-ante* in nature for policy makers. In contrast to the NDC, ADB's (2022) analysis of Lao PDR's laws and policies on gender equality in climate change and disaster risk management finds most recent legislation, such as the National Action Plan on Gender Equality (2021–2025), to be gender responsive and have clear policy outcome domains. However, the analysis also points to the nonexistence of gender integration, the lack of acknowledgment of gendered differences in key laws and policies on the environment, climate change, disaster risk management and agriculture which is also reflected in the NDC. Considering the NDC's goal to achieve sustainable economic development, questions pertaining to the status quo and future of informal work and the care economy in a just transition

are immensely relevant for Lao PDR, like the case of Saint Lucia and Colombia. The ambition to achieve systems change by shifting to a more circular model indicates that policies are already questioning traditional models of growth. In applying feminist systemic critiques, the next steps entail a consideration of the opportunities for collective action to move to new systems of consumption and production, the role of women in shaping such an agenda and the ways in which the aspirations of all genders can be met in that agenda for a just transition.

Overall, these policy outcome domains are not empty signifiers but carry deeper visceral reflections of social contextual dynamics which can be unpacked by feminist theories.

b) A SWOT analysis of the The Gender-Just Transitions Outcomes Framework

In order to address “To what extent is this Gender Just Transitions Outcomes Framework, effective in conceptualising ambition for gender transformative actions?” which is the second research question of this report, a SWOT analysis is conducted.

Strengths

The Framework functions as a diagnostic tool that acknowledges the heterogeneity of national ambitions and indicates gender ambition gaps which in the case of national policy may be reflective of the overall situation of gender equality in a country. Moreover, it innovatively pushes for the inclusion of informal work as a characteristic and metric of ambition. This is notable given the difficulty of measuring the phenomenon despite its socio-economic relevance, size in specific country contexts and gendered nature. In many countries, the informal economy is feminised where the informal nature of women’s work makes it difficult for women to organise to enforce rights, safety, and labour standards, obtain stable employment and sufficient pay on a regular basis.

Furthermore, unpaid care work - which gendered norms disproportionately thrust upon women - is another aspect of work that policies and statistical measures often overlook owing to the complexity of quantifying and qualifying such work (Ferrant et al, 2014, p.1). The double burden of engaging in income generating activities and care work depletes the scarce resource of time, amongst other things such as mental and physical health, to severely restrict employment opportunities to part-time, informal, and other vulnerable forms of work (p. 6). The causality between informality and unpaid care work can also be theorised in reverse: Boeri (2018) argues the informalisation and feminization of work drives women to the low paying, insecure and irregular jobs such as home-based work that makes it possible for care and domestic responsibilities to be enforced as the continued prerogative of women. Thus, it is significant for The Framework to push for the consideration of the informal economy, gendered gaps in informal labour and the care economy and the link between these gaps and the just transition.

It is important to note that any framework is a reflection of the values and assumptions held by the creators. These values and assumptions influence the selection of factors that constitute The Framework, what and how it evaluates. Due to this process of selection, each framework can only chart a “crude model of reality” (March et al., 1999, p.22). Tools based solely on the efficiency approach - which sees the exclusion of women when determining resource distribution as inefficient - may fail to address relational power dynamics and even entrench gender disparities by privileging a purely economics-based approach to resource allocation (March et al., 1999). The strength of The Framework thus lies in it valuing and recognising the potential for gender transformative change and empowerment, especially in certain outcome

domains. The framework would benefit from the inclusion of a greater variety of feminist theories which could propose other outcome domains and decolonial perspectives.

The list of questions associated with each of the three feminist perspectives - feminist economics, decolonial and systemic perspectives - further support a means of approaching analysis in a systematic and bounded manner, potentially yielding insights that go beyond the surface. This enables a holistic understanding of climate policies which in turn, has the potential to achieve both climate and gender justice.

Weaknesses

While some level of subjectivity cannot be avoided in the application of analytical tools, there is a need to add greater objectivity and definition to the metrics of The Framework. In the case of the definitions for different levels of ambition, the authors of this report felt the need to create a sub-framework. Increasing objectivity through more precise criteria enables consistency in the application of The Framework and allows findings to be comparable. Furthermore, the terminology used though meaningful is not easy to adopt or to understand, leading to arbitrary articulation by users. As a result of these factors, The Framework does not appear easily accessible to users without a strong background in gender or familiarity with relevant academic literature. In their seminal guide to gender analysis frameworks, March et al. (1999) maintain that the utility of gender frameworks is undermined if they are found to be “confusing, too bureaucratic, or restrictive” (p. 22). The difficulty of use is not unique to The Framework. Different analytical tools are built based on differing assumptions regarding the levels of skill and expertise of target users (WHO, 2002). Australia Aid’s guide to gender and development, for example, is designed for programme officers without expecting them to be familiar with gender and social analysis. On the other hand, the Social Appraisal Annex created by the United Kingdom's Department for International Development and the Guide to Gender-Sensitive Indicators by the Canadian International Development Agency are intended for users who are knowledgeable about gender analysis (WHO, 2002).

Second, The Framework is apt for diagnosing the level of gender ambition in just transition processes but its use in proposing ways to advance beyond current levels of ambition is less intuitive and straightforward. For an interactive process of ratcheting up gender equality ambition, The Framework’s application would therefore most accurately be done with those involved in the design and implementation of such climate policies to allow for dialogue on increasing ambition. How a policy can scale up its ambition is critical to address to make progress; however, The Framework’s more static nature makes it difficult to identify and mechanise the dynamism needed to change the gender ambition level of a policy. According to March et al. (1999), “no gender analysis can be static” stressing the need for development workers “to recognise both actual and potential changes in gender relations” (p.23). Moving beyond creating situational awareness to guiding how gender issues can be addressed, however, is also not inherent to other landmark gender analysis tools. The Harvard Framework and the Longwe Framework do not explicitly incorporate the consideration of changes over time (March et al., 1999). Although the Social Relations Approach pioneered by Naila Kabeer (1994) focuses on change over time, mechanising change can still be challenging in practice as monitoring processes and learning tools are required to capture what changes have taken place and what need to occur (Hillenbrand et al., 2014).

Based on findings from the application of The Framework, NDCs can promise to deliver on transformative gender ambition. Yet, this promise cannot always be taken at face value as policy aims may not necessarily be linked with the realities on the ground. One important risk

is that policies or projects like capacity building workshops can be transformative on paper, but may not get implemented, may have adverse effects of gender-washing or privileging certain groups, or may not include the full participation of marginalised voices. Thus, it becomes important to understand the bigger context which a limitation was found in this report. To circumvent and mitigate this restriction, an empirical overview of each country's context was researched and presented in Annex. The gap between theory and practice found in policy documents, project reports and similar data also extends to frameworks in general. March et al. emphatically state, "no framework will do the work for you. It may help you plan the work that can be done to confront women's subordination. Afterwards, the work must still be done" (p. 22).

The authors have found that The Framework can also lead to difficulty in being translated or applied from the global context to the local context. In fact, the problem of translation is critical since the middle person (in this case, the person who is applying The Framework) has huge power because "intermediaries or translators work at various levels to negotiate between local, regional, national, and global systems of meaning." (Merry, 2006, p. 39). However, at the same time, intermediaries are also "vulnerable to manipulation and subversion by states and communities" (Merry, 2006, p. 38). Furthermore, translation from the global to the local implies "that any process of description, interpretation and dissemination of ideas and worldviews is always already caught up in relations of power and asymmetries between languages, regions and people" (De Lima Costa, 2016). Thus, the relationship between the global and the local in the context of translation should be further unpacked in The Framework to acknowledge possible biases and various relations of power.

Opportunities

Objectivity and clarity can be improved by adding criteria or further points of definition to guide the judgement of the user. For example, the meaning of each level of gender ambition (e.g., gender blind), can be elaborated further, with specifications sufficiently differentiating them. The gender equality ambition scale presented can additionally be expanded to include gender exploitative and gender-blind levels so that the possibility of climate policies being exploitative or blind to gendered dynamics can be accounted for. The focus of any such framework should not only be on women. It should be intersectional and inclusive of all genders rather than having a binary gender conception to allow for a comprehensive review of policy outcomes. If The Framework includes intersectionality, it would allow for a deeper understanding of the country's context through exploring identities such as race, colonisation, etc. Moreover, considerations of the role of masculinity and femininity (regardless of gender) on policy decisions being made, for example the prioritisation of masculine ideas of domination over nature or more feminine values of care, advances a more inclusive and comprehensive review.

To acquire dynamism and scalability towards gender transformative outcomes, the authors recognise the opportunity brought forward by adopting a substantial use of the feminist theories posited. These theories can be the catalyst of change in the development and application of national policies.

Threats/alternatives:

There are other credible and authoritative frameworks that have been developed more recently by large international organisations. The Interagency Gender Working Group (IGWG)'s gender integration continuum, European Institute for Gender Equality's (EIGE) gender impact

assessment tool and UN Women's Capacity Assessment Tool are useful diagnostic tools that capture and build on existing approaches to gender assessment. Both the comparative value-add and shortcomings of these alternative frameworks are elaborated below:

a) The Interagency Gender Working Group (IGWG)'s gender integration continuum is formed of five sections: Gender Blind, Gender Aware, Exploitative Gender Programming, Accommodating Gender Programming, Transformative Gender Programming. This tool reflects "a two-tiered process of analysis that begins with determining whether interventions are 'gender blind' or 'gender aware,' and then considers whether they are exploitative, accommodating, or transformative" (IGWG, n.d., p. 2). It is defined as a planning framework that can help determine how to move towards a more transformative gender approach. Despite including gender blind and gender aware levels of ambition, it does not pose constructive questions for unpacking problems or practical examples regarding the way in which the tool can effectively be applied.

b) The European Institute for Gender Equality has also published a three-tiered gender impact assessment (GIA) guide based on five steps. The goal of GIA is not to create additional procedures, "but rather to include the steps of integrating gender into already-existing processes of an organisation," ultimately improving the overall effectiveness of policy making processes (EIGE, 2017). Moreover, it is an *ex-ante* evaluation, therefore able to not only focus on legislation, but also on policy strategic plans and action programmes. The guide, albeit useful for *ex-ante* assessments, does not integrate the concept of gender-transformative outcomes which limits the level of change that can be accomplished by recommendations arising from the conclusions derived through the guide.

c) UN Women published a Capacity Assessment Tool, which is different from the others as it is adopted "to assess the understanding, knowledge and skills that a given organisation and their staff have on gender equality and women's empowerment, and on the organisation's gender architecture and gender policy" (UN Women, 2014). It is mostly formed by questionnaires and guidelines to support gender within the UN system and partners, thus the scope being rather on the internal mechanism of the organisation than on national projects.

Figure 5: SWOT Analysis of The Framework



3. LAST LAYER OF THE RESEARCH: RECOMMENDATIONS

Ensuring Effective Use of The Framework

- Clarify who are the desired users of The Framework.
- Expand The Framework outside of the gender binary.
- Make clear that The Framework is designed to be a dialogue with those implementing or designing the climate policy and its beneficiaries.
- Include a thorough understanding of the country context as a preliminary step in the application of The Framework.
- Engage with specific types of knowledge production to ensure the include marginalised voices.

Scaling Up Gender Ambition

- Understand, for each context, what drives the gap between the intention of the policy and its actual implementation.
- Provide specific financing to achieve gender equality outcomes and for scaling gender ambition. Attention should be given to the lack of financing for country's facing instability or relying on international financing mechanisms which perpetuate colonial dynamics.
- Include the informal sector in the policy's goal. The concept of informal economy should be further unpacked by policymakers.

Creating a Dynamic Framework

- Ensure that users explicitly acknowledge their positionality before adopting The Framework.
- Take into consideration the complexity of translating The Framework from the global to the local.
- Develop specific 'gender roadmaps' to ensure the scaling of gender ambition in practice by using the feminist theories posited by The Framework.
- Include a larger set of feminist theories (e.g., Marxist feminism).
- Adopt a holistic and intersectional approach throughout the process of applying The Framework.
- Allow for a less restrictive classification of outcome domains depending on the different local realities.
- Develop an accessible guide for the users of The Framework that includes all definitions, objectives and sub frameworks that explain the gender ambition, with justification.

CONCLUSION

At COP27, the executive director of UN Women, Sima Bahous clearly articulated, “we must integrate a gender perspective in the design, funding, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation of all national climate plans, policies, and actions [...] Our best counter-measure to the threat multiplier of climate change is the benefit multiplier of gender equality,” (Bahous, 2022). The present report first posits the fact that the impacts of climate change are gendered. For this reason, to achieve a successful just transition, both climate and gender must be considered.

The application of the *Gender-Just Transitions Outcomes Framework* to policy documents can have a pivotal role in scaling both gender and climate ambitions. In fact, The Framework helped the authors to highlight the existing gender gaps between policy intention and practice. In order to scale up gender ambitions in climate policies and effectively reach the objectives in identified outcome domains, the questions coming from the feminist theories are essential. In the next steps of The Framework, the inclusion of other feminist theories, particularly those from the Global South, would also be useful to allow for more expansive ideas.

The research has been limited by the fact that the authors, due to time and resource constraints, looked at a sample of four countries via document analysis. In the analysis of the policy documents, the researchers were able to acquire a baseline understanding of countries’ situation regarding gender ambition. Greater interaction with stakeholders from the countries of the case studies, would have added value to the understanding of the policies and allowed for a less biased application of The Framework.

Moreover, the authors, despite having an intermediate training in gender studies, have found the application of The Framework to policy documents to be sometimes challenging and subjective. This may also pose a difficulty in the application for a user that is not a gender expert nor is familiar with relevant academic literature. One key area for future research is on informality. The invisible nature of informal work and women’s work such as unpaid care has important consequences for a just transition and the transformation of production and consumption systems. Due to little mention of informality in the case studies, the authors see the need for improvement in this area.

The Framework is a useful diagnostic tool for understanding gender gaps in climate policy but needs to be made more user-friendly and dynamic to achieve gender-transformative policies at all levels. Like a lotus which goes through a lifecycle before blooming, The Framework can become an effective and dynamic tool.

ANNEX

Country Contexts

Lao PDR

The Lao People's Democratic Republic (PDR) is a landlocked country situated in Southeast Asia. It shares its borders with Cambodia in the South, China in the North, Myanmar in the Northwest, Thailand in the West and Vietnam in the East. As a developing country facing significant threat from climate change and as one of the few states in the world with communist government, Lao PDR provides a unique context for the assessment of gender ambition in climate action.

Political Context

After gaining independence from France in 1954, Lao PDR was caught in the vortex of a civil war between royalists and communists as well as the spillover of the Vietnam War (BBC, 2018). The Lao People's Democratic Republic was established in 1975 when the Pathet Lao communist party assumed control of government following which Laos became a one-party socialist state (BBC, 2018). The country's population of about 7.3 million people (World Bank, 2021a) is composed of different ethnicities including the Lao, which form the majority, Khmou, Hmong and various other groups (Lao Population and Housing Census, 2015). The ruling Lao People's Revolutionary Party exercises a dominant role in politics as a result of which civil liberties in the country are greatly restricted. This is indicated by a freedom status score of 14 out of 100 on the Freedom House (2020) index where the lower the score the fewer the political and civil rights enjoyed by the citizens of the country.

Economic Context

In terms of economic development, Lao PDR demonstrates an upward growth trajectory and is expected to graduate from its status as a 'least developed country' in 2026 if positive trends continue according to the United Nations Committee for Development Policy (UN, 2021). Over the span of the last 10 years, Lao PDR managed a relatively high average GDP growth rate of 7 percent from 2012-2019. This fell to 0.5 percent in 2020 before rising to 2.5 percent because of the COVID-19 pandemic (World Bank 2021b). However, poverty persists as a developmental challenge. About 70.4 percent of people live below the \$5.50 a day poverty line as illustrated in Figure 1. Furthermore, 23.1 percent of the population experiences multidimensionally poverty while an additional 21.2 percent is at risk of becoming multidimensionally poor (World Bank, 2018).

Social Context

Social measures of development present positive trends for the country. Lao PDR's HDI value improved by 49.9 percent over a span of about two decades, increasing from 0.405 in 1990 to 0.607 in 2021 (UNDP, 2022). Although the HDI score of 0.607 places Lao PDR in the category of countries with medium human development, the HDI decreases to 0.459 after inequality is factored in. Binary gendered disaggregates show that the female HDI value is 0.591 which is lower than the HDI value of 0.623 for males in 2021 (UNDP, 2022). Disparities in gender are additionally evidenced by Lao PDR's GII score. On a scale of zero to one with one representing the least inequality, Laos has a 2021 GII value of 0.478 (UNDP, 2022).

Environmental Context

Climate change models estimate trends of consistent warming, extreme weather, and periods of increasingly intense rainfall for Lao PDR (World Bank & ADB, 2021). Based on the INFORM risk index, the country is at great risk of flooding given a score of 9.1 on the 0-10 ranged metric. Its vulnerability to floods arises from both riverine and flash flooding. The country also faces exposure to droughts, tropical cyclones, and epidemics. The index also reports a lack of coping mechanisms against these risks. Frequent floods and drought have a high likelihood of inducing extreme poverty. There is a 50 percent probability that such an event should it take place even once every five years would force extreme poverty upon a household (World Bank & ADB 2021). Moreover, women and children have been identified as the most vulnerable groups where gendered disparities access to decision making, policy making, assets and credit and data are some of the factors accounting for the greater risk faced by women (World Bank & ADB 2021)

Tourism, agriculture, and urbanisation constitute key processes affecting the environmental context of Lao PDR. In 2017, tourism contributed to about 4 percent of the GDP with international tourists generating approximately \$700 million in revenue (World Bank & ADB 2021). However, ecological, and cultural preservation are significant concerns pertaining to the expansion of the tourism sector. With regards to agriculture, rice is the primary produce and staple food of Lao PDR. While the effects of climate change on rice production are uncertain, the agricultural sector has contributed significantly to the country's emissions output. As of 2008, agricultural methane and nitrous oxide emissions were responsible for about 90 percent of total emissions (World Bank, 2021c). Unplanned rapid urbanisation is exacerbating heat stress and adding to the Urban Heat Island effect whereby air pollution, lack of vegetation and heat exuded from residences and industry causes temperatures to increase relative to that of rural areas. Carbon dioxide emissions in metric tonnes per capita have steadily increased from 2009 to 2019 (World Bank, 2021c).

Public Spending and Aid on Climate Action

Currently, Lao PDR does not have an official monitoring and reporting system in place for climate. According to the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2021) data, a total of USD 987 million for climate-related development was provided to Lao PDR from 2015 to 2019. Loans financed 61 percent of funds, grants financed 38 percent and equity financed one percent of funds on average. Multilateral development banks, DAC members and other multilateral organisations constitute the main sources of climate-related development finance. In 2019, Lao PDR received its highest flow of the 2015-2019 period of USD 314 million. 80 percent of funds were allocated for adaptation measures, 14 percent for climate mitigation and six percent for cross cutting issues in 2019.

Burkina Faso

Burkina Faso is a West African Sahelian country, without access to the sea. It shares its border with Mali in the Northwest, Niger to the Northeast, Benin to the Southeast and Cote d'Ivoire, Ghana, Togo in the South. It has a population of more than 20 million people, the vast majority of whom reside in rural areas (73.7%) (NDC p.1). It is classified as a low-income country by the World Bank; its economy relies mainly on agriculture, without having much access to natural resources. It is a country that is extremely vulnerable to climate change for a variety of

reasons that will be discussed further below. Thus, a just transition is essential to limit negative externalities coming from climate change. Ultimately, Burkina Faso is characterised by a high level of political instability. Indeed, its political history is marked by several coups d'état, the most recent of which occurred in 2022. Having set these premises, Burkina Faso also recorded an increase of 80% in GEGs emission between 1995 and 2015 and is committed to take just actions towards the environment and beyond.

Political Context

Burkina Faso became a French colony known as “Upper Volta” in 1896. It gained independence in 1960 (Royer 2021, 1). Since 1983, under the revolutionary government of Thomas Sankara, the territory has been renamed Burkina Faso (Royer 2021, 1). Despite its independence, the political and economic situation of Burkina Faso has been highly unstable. This instability is partly derived by internal forces, due to a fragmented population divided between different ethnicities in the east and west (Gur peoples, Mande peoples and Fulbe people), counting more than 60 languages and dialects (Royer 2021, 2), by a complex system of balance of power between “the elites, the army, the traditional chiefs and the Catholic Church [...]” (Koussoubé et al. 2014) and by negative externalities due to the colonial legacy.

The country's political history is characterized by multiple military insurgencies, terrorist attacks, and coups d'état. Burkina Faso had a Fragile State Index score of 90.5 in 2022, making it one of the world's 30 most fragile states (Global Data | Fragile States Index, n.d.). The latest coup d'état happened in January 2022 when former president Kaboré was deposed by a military group, which established the Patriotic Movement for Safeguard and Restoration (MPSR) in office. This event was followed by another military coup in September, with Lieutenant Colonel Damiba being replaced by Captain Traore. Following these events, the ECOWAS and the African Union decided to suspend Burkina Faso's memberships (BBC News, 2022).

Economic Context

The country's economic status is highly unpredictable because of its political instability. Burkina Faso's economy expanded by 8.5% in 2021, up from 1.0% in 2020 to 6.6% in 2021, thanks to a consistent rise in gold exports and service recovery (Overview, n.d.). However, the progressive rise in the inflation rate, possibly reaching more than 5% at the end of the year, is a cause of concern (African Development Bank Group, 2022). In addition, the debt ratio is expected to climb to 52.2% in the coming years, with uncertainties related to the internal and external political instability of the time, inflation pressure and post Covid-19 negative shocks (African Development Bank Group, 2022). From the latest set of data available, Burkinabes people living under the \$1.90 a day poverty line declined rapidly from 55.3% to 36.7% in the time frame 2014-2019 (World Bank, 2020). This is also reflected in the steady decline in inequality over time (Gini Index). Despite this encouraging data, the country has seen a resurgence of socio-political (violence, human displacement, pandemic) instabilities, which will be reflected in future data.

Social Context

Burkina Faso has a population of over 20 million people and almost 40% of its population lives under the \$1.90 a day poverty line, with 45.3% of child poverty compared to 41.9% of adults (GGGI 2019, 5). The poorest areas are the rural areas, where more than 70% of the population resides (GGGI 2019, 5). In addition, women are the most affected by it, with 11 risk points more than men (Government of Burkina Faso, GGGI, NDC Partnership, 2020). This is due to

women being confined to their reproductive labour, to their agricultural labour and to their community role, without remuneration and without gaining a true economic independence (imbalance in the PPP) (Government of Burkina Faso, GGGI, NDC Partnership, 2020).

Burkina Faso's HDI value is 0.452 (UNDP 2020, 2), ranking itself at 182 out of 189 countries. Even though the country is still considered as a low human development type, Burkina Faso in less than 20 years (2000 – 2019) had an increase of 54.3% in HDI. The years expected of schooling rose from 3.5 to 9.3 and life expectancy at birth increased from 50 to 60 years old (UNDP 2020, 2). Similarly, regarding the HCI, the country is positioned at 144th among 157 countries (World Bank 2020). Along these lines, Burkina Faso positions itself in the low category GDI and GII. Respectively, Burkina Faso in 2019 has a GDI of 0.867 (low HDI) and a GII of 0.594 (147th out 162 countries) (UNDP 2020, 5). In conclusion, widespread poverty, huge inequalities between rural and urban areas, as well as structural gender inequalities in education, economic empowerment, and health, combined with climate vulnerability, political instability, and an increase in the number of internally displaced people (more than 300,000) will pose serious challenges to the country in its path to a sustainable and inclusive development (World Bank 2020).

Environmental Context

Burkina Faso being a sahelian country is one of the most affected and vulnerable to climate change places in the world. In the period between 1979 to 2015, the temperatures in the Sahelian region increased 0.3°C per decade (African Development Bank Group 2021, 21). This climate change trend is expected to continue rising, with devastating effects for food security, water scarcity, severe and recurrent drought, quality of arable land and risk for bushfires. The main climate change threats that will affect the country in the near future include: “deforestation, desertification, low rainfall and extreme weather events” (UNDP 2020). For example, for Burkina Faso, 2021 has been the hottest year since decades (1938) with a registered annual mean temperature of 30.01°C and with a low level of rainfall precipitation (World Bank Climate Change Knowledge Portal, n.d.). Moreover, the country's vulnerability is exacerbated by its high dependency on economic activities that are climate-sensitive, namely agriculture (38% of GDP), the production of cotton and extraction of gold (African Development Bank Group 2021, 21).

To conclude, despite Burkina Faso emitted only 0,22 tonnes of CO₂ per capita (Burkina Faso CO₂ Emissions - Worldometer, n.d.), namely contributing to a very little share of global emissions (0.08%), it is considered as one of the most vulnerable states to climate change in the world. For instance, according to the ND-GAIN Index (2020), which ranks Burkina Faso at 161, with a vulnerability score of 0.547 and a climate change readiness of 0.290.

Public Spending and Aid on Climate Action

According to the African Development Bank Group (2022b), Burkina Faso through NDCs has almost achieved SDG 13 on climate change by 2030. In order to complete the aforementioned goal and to successfully implement the NDC 2021-2025, Burkina Faso's financial needs are equal to \$4.12 billion. In the past, Burkina Faso received financial support for climate action through international financial mechanisms, namely FIPs, international loans and grants, IOs and development projects. For instance, Burkina Faso received in 2020 a grant from the Green Climate Fund and other partners, including GGGI, amounting to \$ 1.63 million to develop a National Adaptation Plan over a period of 30 months (Green Climate Fund 2020). Prior to this, the country also received a total of \$131.47 million through the Climate Investment Funds (n.d.)

in the form of foreign investments programs and a total of \$126.9 million through the Green Climate Fund (n.d.).

Saint Lucia

Saint Lucia, second largest of the Windward Islands, is a small island developing state (SIDS) situated in the Caribbean Sea and bordered by the North Atlantic Ocean to the east. Saint Lucia provides for a pertinent case study in its being subjected to the threats of climate change given the small island conformation with most of the population residing on coastal areas (World Bank Group, 2021). The country comprises a unique perspective as a former colony and still a member of the Commonwealth in the assessment of gender ambition in just transition projects.

Political Context

After declaring one of the last colonial independences from the British reign in 1979, Saint Lucia is still an active member of the Commonwealth. Now a Parliamentary democracy modelled on the Westminster system (St. Lucia Tourism Authority, 2022), the country has a total population of around 183,629 (2020) people, with one of the most mixed Anglo-French cultures of the region (World Bank Group, 2021). Since the 1960s the country has been politically dominated by the alternation of the United Workers Party (UWP) and the Saint Lucia Labour Party (SLP), albeit several small parties operate in the country, although potentially disadvantaged by the financing of campaigns entirely through private funds (Freedom House, 2021). Considering the Freedom House (2021) report, the country scored 92 out of 100 despite persistent challenges still exists including government corruption, lack of transparency, police brutality, discrimination against the LGBTQ+ community and the perception of impunity of these abuses.

Economic Context

The country has a small, open economy, highly dependent on tourism. Indeed, Saint Lucia's GDP is 82.8% reliant on services (of which tourism, both direct and indirect, contributes 65%), 14.2% industrial sector and 2.9% agricultural sector (UNDP, UNICEF, UN Women, 2020, 7). Climate change and natural disasters play a relevant role in bringing frequent and significant socio-economic losses. It is classified as an upper middle-class country set to become one of the most economically developed members on the Eastern Caribbean Currency Union (ECCU). However, as a Small Island Developing State (SIDS), economic growth is inhibited by "diseconomies of scale and by a limited capacity" (UNEP). Indeed, between 2010-2019, prior to COVID-19 pandemic, economic growth had been averaging around 1.5, thus volatile and relatively low. Based on projections using the \$6.85 international poverty line and the 2017 Purchasing Power Parity (PPP), about 1 in 4 citizens were poor in 2019 with the pandemic making the situation more critical. The economic activity of SLU rebounded in 2021 and 2022, driven by the tourism sector, which covers more than 40% of the country's GDP, alongside public and private investments to the construction sector and agricultural sector (World Bank, October 2022). However, employment rate is still low (18,3%) with the presence of a high gender gap in the labour market (Female unemployment 18,9% - Male unemployment 14,9%). Such inequality is also denoted in the wage gap which places women's average monthly wage at 22% less than their male counterpart (UNDP, UNICEF, UN Women, 2020, 7-9).

Informal employment in the Caribbean is generally widespread. Nevertheless, as brought forward by the ILO, few estimates of the size of the informal economy are available and they differ according to which indicators are considered. The ILO's report considers data coming

from Peters and the Vuletin and ECLAC estimates. ECLAC's estimate for Saint Lucia is much lower than Vuletin, as in the latter informal economy as percentage of GDP is estimated to be 52% whereas it reaches 8% with the former. Informal employment reached 30.6% meanwhile formal businesses reporting competition with informal businesses comprises 18.2% according to the World Bank or a 23.3% following LACES (ILO, 2017, 1-5).

Social Context

Saint Lucia is considered to have a high human development score, with a 0.759 HDI value, ranking 86 out of 189 countries. Yet, it finds itself below the average for Latin America countries and the Caribbean. In the timeframe 2000-2019 the country saw a 9,2% increase, moving the HDI value from 0.695 to 0.759. Considering each HDI indicator with a twenty year timespan, life expectancy at birth increased by 5.1%, mean years of schooling increased by 1.5% with the expected years of schooling also surging by 1.4 years. The country's GNI per capita also increased by around 74.6% (UNDP, 2020, 2-4). Moreover, looking at the gender development index (GDI), which measures gender gaps in achievements in three basic dimensions of human development in form of ratio of the female to the male HDI, the 2019 female HDI value is 0.752 against a 0.763 for males, whereas the gender inequality index (GII) ranks the country 90 out of 162, with a GII value of 0.401. Such an index can be interpreted with a loss in human development due to gender inequality shown with a scale of zero to one with one representing the least inequality. As such, considering the inequalities in the distribution of the HDI dimensions, Saint Lucia's HDI value falls to 0.629 (UNDP, 2020, 5-6).

Environmental Context

Saint Lucia is highly vulnerable to climate and ocean risks, including the large reliance on tourism to drive the economy, with consequent ecosystem degradation, and the vulnerability of key infrastructure to the impacts of storms and sea level rise. The OECD's vulnerability index noted that the country is 73% more vulnerable than other upper-middle-income countries to natural disasters given its exposure to climate change, remoteness, and size. The International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank ranked Saint Lucia fifth at risk of natural hazards amongst SIDS alongside being in the top 10 for losses related to climate hazards experienced from 1997 to 2016.

The country saw a rapid stream of unregulated settlement constructions and pollution from a lack of waste management that had huge impacts on coastal ecosystems, particularly on coral reefs, mangroves, and seagrass beds. The Climate and Ocean Risk Vulnerability Index (CORVI) which shows scores on a scale from one to ten, with ten denoting greatest risk, framed Saint Lucia in the Medium-High risk category, with ecosystems risk of 6.18 and a climate risk of 5.85 (Rouleau et al, June 2020). Land ecosystems play an essential role in protecting coastal areas from floodings specifically, with the high score in this category coming from the lack of coverage of coral reefs (8.03) and mangroves (7.88), thus negatively impacting marine habitats and nature-based city protections. In the climate category, critical are extreme heat events (8.27), droughts (7.08), floods (5.39), and hurricanes (5.17). The risk of extreme weathers is denoted also in the high score of the number of people affected by such weathers (8.11) (Rouleau et al, June 2020). Therefore, the environmental context of the country is so far denoted by unsustainable land use and environmental degradation deriving particularly from poor resource management and the tourism sector. Climate change will likely exacerbate current negative impacts.

Public spending and aid on climate action

External funding and technical assistance are required for Saint Lucia to meet its NDC targets, as developing partners largely provide for grant and concessional loans. Despite Saint Lucia's access to international public finance and official development assistance (ODA), this approach is not sustainable for the long term. In this respect, GGGI helped Saint Lucia in its financial strategy. Mitigation actions are estimated to cost approximately US\$368 million, with the private sector covering 90% of the required investment (GGGI, 2021, 1). Moreover, NAP processes have been funded through domestic public resources, the International Monetary Fund (IMF), in 2016–2017 Saint Lucia's national budget included USD 120.3 million investments of which USD 31 million (roughly 2% of GDP) was directed toward adaptation-related projects. Multilateral financing institutions have also supported projects in the country, including the Green Climate Fund (GCF) or the Global Environment Facility (GEF), and it also has engaged with the World Bank's Pilot Programme for Climate Resilience (PPCR) (Government of Saint Lucia, 2020). However, Saint Lucia status of an upper-middle-income country limits its capacity to access concessional finance, for instance preferential trade measures are not granted, with ODA levels remaining low and remittances becoming more significant (World Economic Forum, 2021, 12-18). To date more innovative financing mechanisms such as green bonds, blended finance mechanisms, guarantees for development, risk financing facilities, insurance, and infrastructure support funding, is yet to be fully explored (GGGI, 2021, 6).

Colombia

The Republic of Colombia is the fourth-largest country in South America. It is located in the North and borders Venezuela, Brazil, Ecuador, Peru, Panama, and the Caribbean Sea and Pacific Ocean. Colombia has an important context for gender ambition in climate action because of climate change in the region as well as the gendered impacts and roles of climate change.

Political Context

Colombia gained independence from Spain in 1819. Following political divisions, the country adopted its current name, the Republic of Colombia, in 1886. The government today is a democratic presidential republic. The government has been divided between the Liberals and the Conservatives. In 2016, a peace accord between the government and the Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia (FARC) led to decreased violence after fifty years of conflict. However, violence has since increased by non-state armed groups by the FARC as well as the National Liberation Army (ELN) (Human Rights Watch, 2022). This post-conflict phase has led to the availability of support efforts from intergovernmental agencies such as the UN Environment (UNEP, n.d.).

Economic Context

Colombia is classified as a “Non-Annex 1” country under the UNFCCC which classifies it among developing and vulnerable countries (United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, n.d.). Despite being a middle-income OECD country, Colombia has the second most unequal income distribution in South America (ICRC, n.d.). Importantly, there are vast differences between the urban and rural regions in Colombia and over 80% of the population lives in urban areas.

Social Context

Colombia has made progress on gender equality (OECD, n.d.). Despite this, CEDAW flagged the gender wage gap at a worrying 19% (UN Human Rights Council, 2022). Furthermore, women as well as gender diverse persons represent a minority of elected officials, with only 12% of mayors being women (UN Human Rights Council, 2022). Colombia is also a highly patriarchal society. Gender equality is difficult as women have less opportunities to enter the labour market and are more often in the informal economy (Oxfam, 2019).

In Colombia, environmental human rights defenders, face extremely high risks of murder or intimidation, worrying for both gender rights and climate activists. In 2020, 65 environmental defenders were murdered in Colombia, the highest rate of murder of all countries recorded (Global Witness, 2021).

These attacks are even worse for women, Indigenous peoples, and other marginalised groups (Oxfam, 2019). Oxfam identified several gaps in preventing regulatory frameworks from being implemented in practice including; entrenched inequality, inadequate institutional architecture, marginalisation of rural women's organisations, failure to act on the obligation to protect, insufficient budget for gender policies, among some key issues (Oxfam, 2019).

Environmental Context

Colombia is recognized as a “megadiverse” country due to its many ecosystems (Climate Change Knowledge Portal, n.d.). While Colombia is not a historical polluter, the impacts of increased temperatures in Colombia has led to increased flooding and droughts.

In Colombia, the impacts of climate change are leading to human rights being violated. A lack of adequate adaptation planning and disaster risk reduction by the government has led to the right to food and water being violated for Indigenous communities including for the Wayuu people in the north-eastern department of La Guajira who have faced droughts (Human Rights Watch, 2022).

Public Spending and Aid on Climate Action

As a non-Annex 1 country, Colombia is recognized as a developing country to receive aid under the UNFCCC. Colombia has received a mix of loans and grants as well as uses their own funds for climate action. One example of this is the \$750 million loan from the World Bank which is to promote policies that are both to address barriers women face and to support Colombia's climate change mitigation and adaptation efforts (The World Bank, 2022). Colombia has also received loans of \$300 million from the Inter-American Development Bank to fund climate action (Inter-American Development Bank, 2022). It has received in total \$230.9 million from the Green Climate Fund (Green Climate Fund, 2019).

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