INTEGRATED RISK MANAGEMENT

RESOURCE BOOKLET

Developed by Partners for Resilience in the Horn of Africa

PARTNERS FOR RESILIENCE

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The powerpoint presentations can be found in the 'IRM Advocacy Training Manual Collection' in the Partners for Resilience digital library via
https://library.partnersforresilience.nl'

The Netherlands Red Cross

care

Cordaid
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Wetlands INTERNATIONAL

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Ethiopian Red Cross Society

Kenya Red Cross

South Sudan Red Cross

Uganda Red Cross Society

eco Ecological Christian Organisation

Contents of the Resource Booklet

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Introductory module:

Training Preparations

References for this module:
Nippissing University Lecture Evaluation Forms
Uganda Red Cross:- A manual for first aid trainers

1. Needs Assessment Sheet

Sample Integrated Risk Management Training Needs Needs Assessment Sheet
Introduction for the trainer:

Why is it important to start a lesson preparation by identifying the training needs?
It allows you as a trainer to focus on the relevant and required knowledge, skills and attitudes for the targeted trainees. It is easier for you as a trainer to motivate your trainees since what you are talking about is relevant for the participants. The IRM session will be at the level of the trainees this will facilitate learning. The lesson will not be too difficult or too easy since it starts from the needs.

Section A – to be filled out by the trainees

1. Do you have expertise in Integrated Risk Management process?
   Yes No (If no, go to question 3)

2. When last did you have a training in Integrated Risk Management? Tick what's appropriate

6 months		24 months	
12 months		None of the above (please specify)	
18 months			

3. How often are your identified training needs reviewed in the period from one assessment to the next?

Not at all		Annually	
Monthly		Other (please specify)	
Every six months			

4. Is this process documented or recorded in any way?
   Yes No

5. On a scale of 1 to 5 (1 being the worst and 5 being the best.) how confident are you to apply Integrated Risk Management approaches in your day to day work?

Not at all confident		Confident in most regards	
Not confident in most regards		Completely confident	
Moderately confident			

6. Please give a brief explanation of why you believe this to be your score in question (5) above.

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7. Do any of the following factors prevent you from meeting or achieving your Integrated Risk Management training needs? Please tick those that apply.

Cost		Length of training	
Capacity of workforce		Personal circumstances	
Geography and location of venue		Training not available	
Lack of managerial support		Other (Please Specify)	

8. Please list 3 ways, in your opinion, how the Integrated Risk Management training could be improved. (Please answer this question even if no planning process exists within your organisation)

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9. Thinking about the technical area of environment and climate change where you currently work or have an interest in. Please list below any training you believe would be beneficial to you and is not, to the best of your knowledge, currently being planned?

10.

Stakeholder engagement		Understanding Ecosystems Management	
Policy Advocacy and influencing		Communication with the Media	
Understanding Climate Change Adaptation		Establishing, creating and managing Knowledge	
Understanding Disaster Risk Reduction			

11. Thinking back over the last 12 – 18 months, have you attended any unique or distinctive climate change, disaster risk management focused training courses that you feel were of value and that you would recommend to others? Please state the name of the course/s, training provider/s and give a brief description of the course/s.

Section B: Personal Details

Please note all information will be treated in strictest confidence. However it will be helpful to have some personal information for the purposes of analysis.

12. Which field do you work within? Please tick what's applicable.

	Policy		Research		Programming		Media		Others (specify)

13. Please tick which of the following best describes your current role(s)?

	Senior Management
	Manager
	Officer
	Technical staff, (including secondments or fixed term appointments)
	Other (Please Specify)

14. Please indicate the core area of environmental health you currently work in?

	Food Safety		Environmental Protection and Enforcement
	Health and Safety at Work		Health Development
	Consumer Protection		Pest Control
	Public Health and Housing		Animal Health
	Licensing		Emergency Planning
	Other (Please Specify)		

We would like to take this opportunity to say Thank You for taking the time to complete this questionnaire. Your co-operation is greatly appreciated.

2. Session Preparation Sheet

Sample Session Preparation Sheet

1. Lesson Plan Information	
Course:	Date:
Topic:	Length of Period:

2. Expectation(s) *(What do I want the learners to know and/or be able to do?)*

Expectation(s) : By the end of the session, trainees should be able to:-

- ----------
- ----------
- ----------

Learning Skills

- ----------
- ----------
- ----------

3. Assessment (collect data) / Evaluation (interpret data)

(Recording Devices (where applicable): anecdotal record, checklist, rating scale, rubric)

Based on the application, how will I know students have learned what I intended?

- ----------
- ----------
- ----------

4. Learning Context

A. The Learners

(i) *What prior experiences, knowledge and skills do the learners bring with them to this learning experience?*

- ----------
- ----------
- ----------

(ii) *How will I differentiate the instruction (content, process and/or product) to ensure the inclusion of all learners?* (Must include where applicable accommodations and/or modifications for learners identified as exceptional.)

- ----------
- ----------
- ----------

B. Learning Environment

- ----------
- ----------
- ----------

C. Resources/Materials

- ----------
- ----------
- ----------

6. Teaching/Learning Strategies

INTRODUCTION

How will I engage the learners? (e.g., motivational strategy, hook, activation of learners' prior knowledge, activities, procedures, compelling problem)

- ----------
- ----------
- ----------

MIDDLE:

Teaching: *How does the lesson develop?*

How we teach new concepts, processes (e.g., gradual release of responsibility - modeled, shared, and guided instruction).

- ----------
- ----------
- ----------

Consolidation and/or Recapitulation Process: *How will I bring all the important ideas from the learning experiences together for/with the students? How will I check for understanding?*

- ----------
- ----------
- ----------

Application: *What will learners do to demonstrate their learning?* (Moving from guided, scaffolded practice, and gradual release of responsibility.)

- ----------
- ----------
- ----------

CONCLUSION: *How will I conclude the lesson?*

7. My Reflections on the Lesson
What do I need to do to become more effective as a Trainer in supporting student learning? ● ---------- ● ---------- ● ----------

3. Training Agenda

Sample training agenda

TRAINING NAME: ----------
DATES: ----------
VENUE: ----------
PARTICIPANTS ----------

Date & Time	Activity	Person responsible
Day one		
08:30-08:40	Pretest	
08:40-9:00	Quick remarks from coordinator	
09:00-9:20	Introductions with a name game. Training objectives and expectations	
09:20-10:20	Understanding climate variability and climate change	
10:20-10:45	Health Break	
10:45 - 12:00	Effects of climate change on water resources	
12:00 – 13:00	Lunch Break	
13:00 – 14:00	Economic Impact of Climate Risks	
14:00 – 15:00	Day evaluation	

4.Training Evaluation Tool

This is just a guide that should be modified and adopted to the local training situations. This evaluation tool should be filed for future learning when organising another training programme, and the Managers can also use it for follow up on training activities

1. What were your top 3 expectations from this training workshop?

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2. How did the training workshop meet your expectations?

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3. What new things have you learnt from this training workshop?

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4. Please, evaluate the following aspects of the training program by ticking in the appropriate column and making any comments:

Evaluation criteria	Very good	Good	Fair	Poor
Relevance of the content				
Effectiveness of training method				
Usefulness of IRM manual				
Organization of the workshop				
Effectiveness of trainers				

5. The duration of the program/training was:
- Too long
- Too short
- Just right

6. Are there any IRM and related topics in which you feel you need more information or further training? Which ones?

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7. Name any 3 things you liked about the workshop

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8. Name 3 things you think could be done better in future IRM training workshops

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Module 1: Introduction to Integrated Risk Management

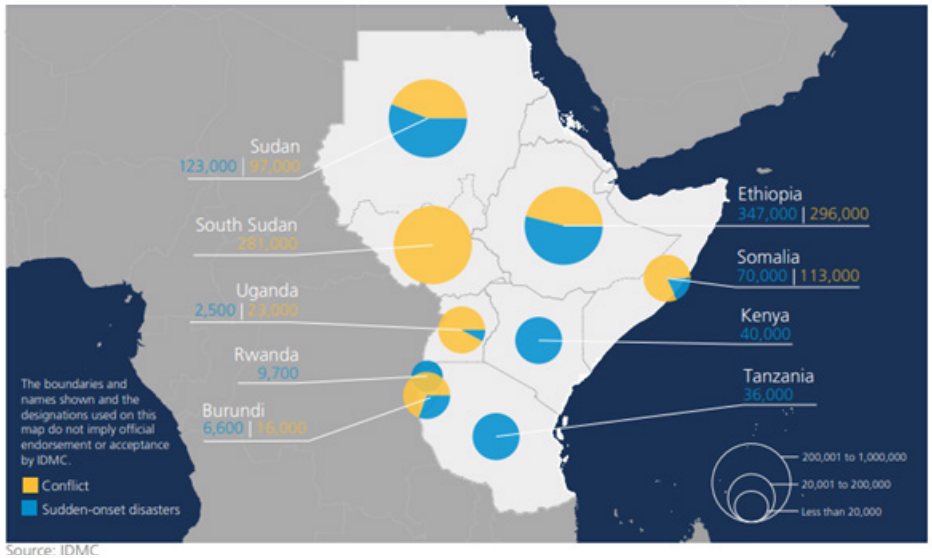
1.1 Background to IRM

Background information on disasters in the Greater Horn of Africa

Disasters have the potential to reverse development gains. The risk of disasters is exacerbated by climate change, population growth, urbanization, the degradation of ecosystems, and uncontrolled or unplanned large scale investments. Poor and marginalized communities are often adversely affected, with disasters trapping them in a vicious circle of poverty and vulnerability.

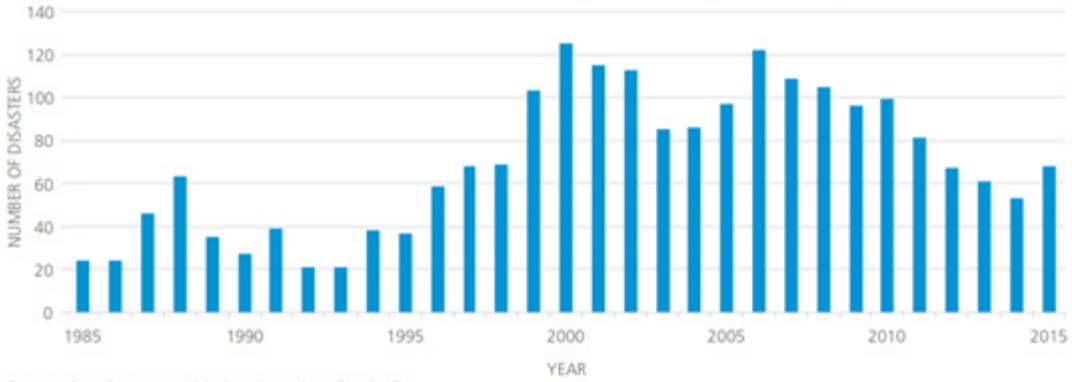
Displacement in the Greater Horn of Africa is a highly complex and large-scale phenomenon. Sudden-onset hazards, primarily floods, caused more than 600,000 new displacements in 2016. Slow-onset events and processes such as drought and environmental degradation added considerably to that figure, but quantifying their impacts is difficult with the data currently available. At the same time, conflict and violence triggered at least 800,000 new displacements in 2016. It can be misleading, however, to attribute particular displacements to a single cause, when in reality a range of interlinked triggers and drivers are at play. Disasters tend to increase competition for land and resources, which in turn may trigger violence and conflict, while the latter increases communities' vulnerability to the impacts of natural hazards. To add to the complexity, the region appears set to be among those worst affected by the multiplier effects of climate change through above average temperatures, excessive or insufficient rainfall, desertification and environmental degradation. Its countries all rank high or very high on INFORM's risk index for humanitarian crises and disasters, their institutions and infrastructure are ill-prepared to cope and socioeconomic vulnerability is rife. The need to address the risk and impacts of displacement caused by disasters and exacerbated by climate change is a global and regional priority. To do so, however, one must first measure it. Governments and other stakeholders need a baseline against which to measure their progress.

Figure 1.1: New displacements associated with conflict and sudden-onset disasters in 2016, in the Greater Horn of Africa



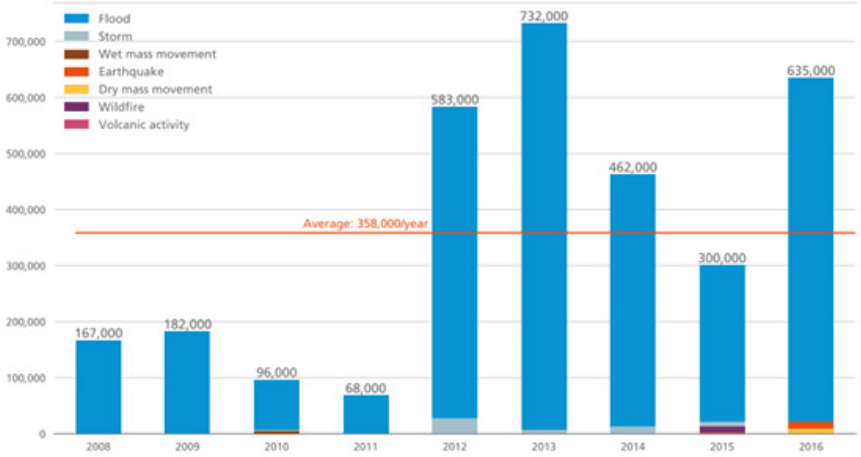
Source: IDMC

Figure 1.3: Number of intensive natural hazard events reported each year in Africa, 1985–2015



Source: Development Initiatives based on EM-DAT

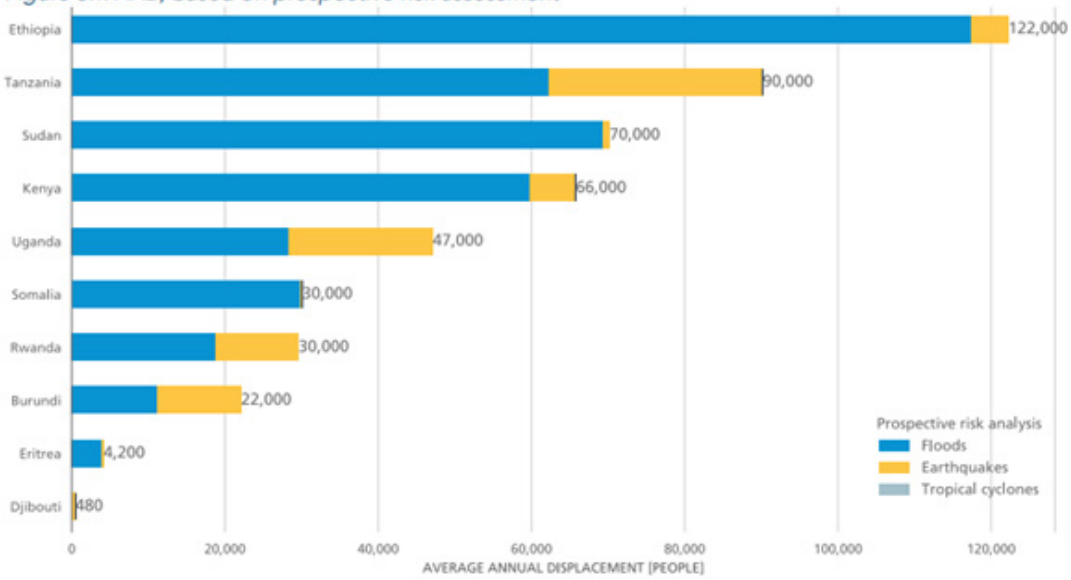
Figure 1.4: New displacements associated with sudden-onset disasters by hazard type, in the Greater Horn of Africa



Source: IDMC

Figure 1.5: New displacements associated with sudden-onset disasters by scale of event, in the Greater Horn of Africa

Figure 3.1: AAD, based on prospective risk assessment



Source: IDMC

Module 1.2: Why Integrated Risk Management

Powerpoint PfR presentation

1.4 Key Programming Principles of IRM

Powerpoint on IRM Key aspects

Module 2:

Disaster Risk Reduction

2.1 What is Disaster Risk Reduction?

Hand-out - DRR basic concepts

Capacities	Individual and collective strengths and resources that can be enhanced, mobilized and accessed, to allow individuals and communities to shape their future by reducing disaster risk. This includes prevention, mitigation, and survivability of the individual and readiness of the community
Community Capacity Assessment	Identification of the strengths and resources present in individuals, households and the community to cope with, withstand, prevent, prepare for, mitigate or quickly recover from a disaster
Community Risk Assessment	Process of gathering all relevant data about the capacity of the community (physical characteristics such as location, natural resources and climate, demographic features, economic and sociopolitical aspects of the community and environmental issues), and of determining the nature and extent of risks by analyzing the characteristics of hazards, the degree of vulnerability and the capacity of the community
Community Vulnerability Assessment	Process of estimating the susceptibility of 'elements at risk' in the community to various hazards
Disaster	Serious disruption of the functioning of society causing widespread human, material or environmental losses, which exceed the ability of the affected communities to cope using their own resources. Disasters occur when the negative effects of the hazards are not well managed
Disaster Risk	Probability of meeting danger, suffering or harm
Disaster Risk Management	Systematic process of using administrative decisions, organization, operational skills and capacities to implement policies, strategies and coping capacities of the society and communities to lessen the impacts of natural hazards and related environmental and technological disasters. This comprises all forms of activities, including structural and non-structural measures to avoid (prevention) or to limit (mitigation and preparedness) the adverse impacts of hazards, within the broad context of sustainable development
Disaster Risk Reduction	Framework and tool that determines the degree of risk and describes measures to increase capacities and reduce hazard impact on the elements at risk so that disaster will be avoided
Early Warning	Provision of timely and effective information, through identified institutions, that allows individuals exposed to a hazard to take action to avoid or reduce their risk and prepare for effective response
Hazard	Potential event that could cause loss of life, or damage to property or the environment
Hazard Assessment	Analysis of the nature and behavior of a particular hazard and understanding its threats. The assessment brings out information on the characteristics of hazards, specifically warning signs and signals, forewarning, speed of onset, frequency, period of occurrence and duration

Hazard Mitigation	Minimizing the destructive and disruptive effects of hazards and thus lessen the magnitude of a disaster through specific measures. Mitigation measures can range from physical measures such as flood defenses or safe building design, to legislation and non-structural measures as training, organizing disaster volunteers, public awareness, food security programs and advocacy on development issues
Preparedness	Measures in anticipation of a disaster to ensure that appropriate and effective actions are taken in the aftermath
Prevention	Measures designed to impede the occurrence of a hazard event or prevent such an occurrence from having harmful effects on communities and facilities
Recovery	Decisions and actions taken after a disaster with a view to restoring or improving the pre-disaster living conditions of the stricken community, while encouraging and facilitating necessary adjustments to reduce disaster risk
Resilience	Ability of a system, community or society exposed to hazards to resist, absorb, accommodate, adapt to, transform and recover from the effects of a hazard in a timely and efficient manner, including through the preservation and restoration of its essential basic structures and functions through risk reduction measures
Vulnerability	Degree to which an area, people, physical structures or economic assets are exposed to loss, injury or damage caused by the impact of a hazard.

Background information

$$\text{Disaster risk} = \frac{\text{Hazard x Vulnerability}}{\text{Capacity}}$$

The formula can be explained as follows: disaster risk increases, when hazard force/strength/impact increases; or when communities or people are more vulnerable due to exposure to the hazard/poor housing/poor health; or when they have less capacities (no assets, no social networks to fall back on; no knowledge and skills to cope).
Disaster risk decreases when the hazard is less strong, vulnerability is less, and/or the capacities of communities/people are increased.

DISASTER MANAGEMENT CYCLE

Figure 3:Disaster management cycle

The central message: Building local capacity is key to prevent hazards turning into disasters and be more resilient to withstand and adapt; to be prepared in case of hazards so that damage/impact of hazards will be reduced; and in case a hazard does turn into a disaster despite of being prepared, people know how to respond immediately to avoid or limit further damage and loss; and to start the rehabilitation phase already during the emergency response phase, to bounce back. Te phases do not appear in chronological order but will overlap and a disaster can also happen in the middle of the rehabilitation, prevention and preparedness phases.

Powerpoint on DRR Concepts

Module 2.2 Why Disaster Risk Reduction?

Powerpoint Why disaster risk reduction – Consequences of different disaster types

Module 2.3 Local context of DRR – What does DRR look like?

Case study on DRR

Box 2.1: What DRR Look like? The case of Drought Risk Reduction

I. Context analysis

This small case study shares the Caritas Kotido-Cordaid partner organization experience in implementing community managed Disaster Risk Reduction focusing on drought risk reduction in two districts in Karamoja, Uganda. Karamoja area covers a vast dusty landscape in northeastern Uganda, is the country's most disadvantaged region. Economically majority of households in the areas surveyed did not own any livestock. The assessment also shows that 93.9% and 69% of households in Kotido and Kaabong Districts respectively live below the poverty line.

The prevalence of natural hazards such as drought is one of the factors to contribute for high level of poverty situation in the area. Other hazards such as livestock disease outbreaks, floods, temperature extremes and wild fires are also common hazards in the area. Invasion of crop fields by wildlife from Kidepo Valley National Park also among the hazards identified in some part of the districts. These wild animals were reported to have destroyed huge acres of crop fields worth millions of shillings in the wildlife corridor causing household food insecurity and malnutrition among children.

Drought is characterized by the prolonged dry spell period which leads to crop failure or low/poor crop yields, in some instances coupled with strong winds which results in inadequate pasture and water for animals which leads to death of livestock, humans and migration of pastoralists. Participatory disaster risk assessment and also other survey findings shows that all the age categories were vulnerable to drought but the most vulnerable were children (96.6% in Kotido and 92.3% in Kaabong) and women (93.3% in Kotido and 67.7% Kaabong). This drought occurred annually, lasted 3–5 months and severity was high causing household hunger, leading to resource based conflicts, food insecurity, malnutrition among children and elderly persons. Drought induced migrations to neighboring tribes which often causes friction among the different ethnic group leading to insecurity.

II. Intervention

Based on the above community disaster risk assessment background that Caritas Kotido focused its attention to empower target communities with resources, knowledge and skills to be able to address drought hazards mainly during the period 2013-2015. Additional intervention supported by the other donor supported program-GIZ/ IWRM non-regret measures interventions were also implemented in the area to complement the drought risk reduction effort in the area. In summary the interventions includes:

- Supporting farmers in conserving the available moisture in the soil
- Supporting in water harvesting structure construction
- Introducing high value drought tolerant crop varieties
- Introducing improved pasture seeds and support the multiplication of improved pasture
- Livelihood diversification through improved bee keeping, honey processing, etc.
- Planting of tree, promoting farmers managed natural tree regeneration, planting of trees around homesteads, etc

III. Result

The above interventions contributed to have improved capacity at the household and community level to mitigate the impact of drought, specifically the interventions contributed to have:

1. Increased access to water resources including during the dry periods
2. Increased on households adopting drought tolerant farming practices
3. Increase on the vegetation cover on selected woodlots and regenerated shrubs
4. Increased households income from the diversified livelihoods
5. Increased community awareness on the drought and its risk reduction practices

Module 2.4: Global, Regional and National DRR Frameworks

Powerpoint on Sendai Framework

Module 3: Ecosystems Management and Restoration

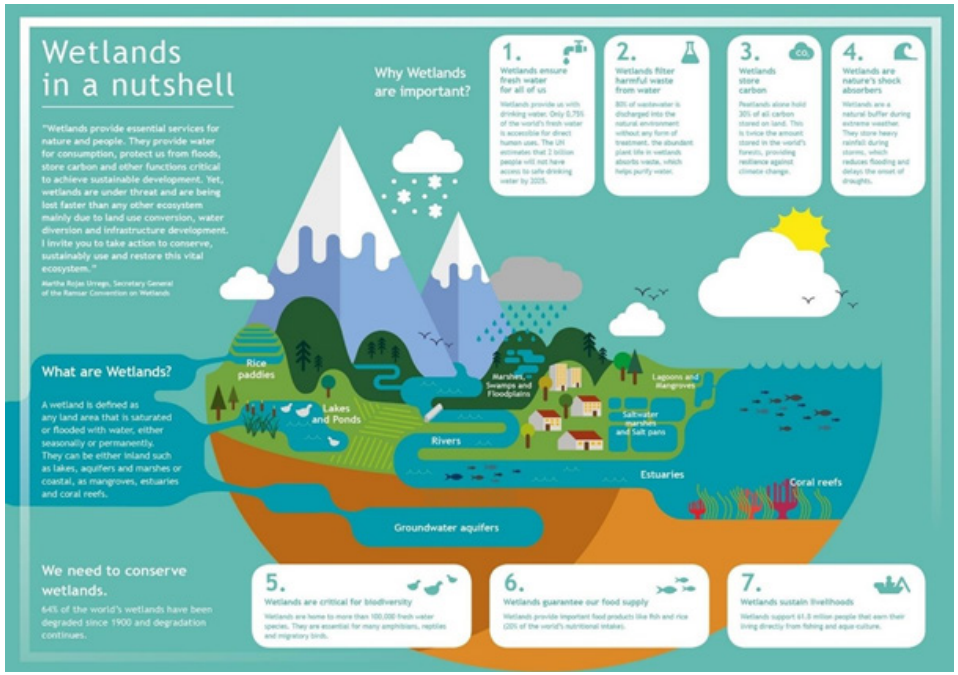
3.1: Introduction to EMR, definitions, basic concepts

Swamp City

Source:
http://www.theeastafrican.co.ke/news/Kampala-Swamp-City-degradation-wetland/2558-4297688-xhvkdz/index.html

Powerpoint EMR Introduction

Ecosystem	Hazard mitigation
Mountain forests and other vegetation on hillsides	• Vegetation cover and root structures protect against erosion and increase slope stability by binding soil together, preventing landslides.
	• Forests protect against rockfall and stabilize snow reducing the risk of avalanches.
	• Catchment forests, especially primary forests, reduce risk of floods by increasing infiltration of rainfall, and delaying peak floodwater flows, except when soils are fully saturated.
	• Forests on watersheds are important for water recharge and purification, drought mitigation and safeguarding drinking water supply for some of the world's major cities.
Wetlands and floodplains	• Wetlands and floodplains control floods in coastal areas, inland river basins, and mountain areas subject to glacial melt.
	• Peatlands, wet grasslands and other wetlands store water and release it slowly, reducing the speed and volume of runoff after heavy rainfall or snowmelt in springtime.
	• Coastal wetlands, tidal flats, deltas and estuaries reduce the height and speed of storm surges and tidal waves.
	• Marshes, lakes and floodplains release wet season flows slowly during drought periods.
Coastal ecosystems, such as mangroves, saltmarshes, coral reefs, barrier islands and sand dunes	• Coastal ecosystems function as a continuum of natural buffer systems protecting against hurricanes, storm surges, flooding and other coastal hazards – a combined protection from coral reefs, seagrass beds, and sand dunes/coastal wetlands/coastal forests is particularly effective. Research has highlighted several cases where coastal areas protected by healthy ecosystem have suffered less from extreme weather events than more exposed communities.
	• Coral reefs and coastal wetlands such as mangroves and saltmarshes absorb (low-magnitude) wave energy, reduce wave heights and reduce erosion from storms and high tides.
	• Coastal wetlands buffer against saltwater intrusion and adapt to (slow) sea-level rise by trapping sediment and organic matter.
	• Non-porous natural barriers such as sand dunes (with associated plant communities) and barrier islands dissipate wave energy and act as barriers against waves, currents, storm surges and tsunami.
Drylands	• Natural vegetation management and restoration in drylands contributes to ameliorate the effects of drought and control desertification, as trees, grasses and shrubs conserve soil and retain moisture.
	• Shelterbelts, greenbelts and other types of living fences act as barriers against wind erosion and sand storms.
	• Maintaining vegetation cover in dryland areas, and agricultural practices such as use of shadow crops, nutrient enriching plants, and vegetation litter increases resilience to drought.
	• Prescribed burning and creation of physical firebreaks in dry landscapes reudces fuel loads and the risk of unwanted large scale fires.



3.2 Understanding the Context of Ecosystems Management and Restoration

Additional background information

Link to suggested reading materials for trainer's preparation are provided below.
https://www.unpei.org/sites/default/files/PDF/Training-Resource-Manual-DEPI-ETB-DTIE.pdf

http://base.dnsgb.com.ua/files/book/Agriculture/Management-in-Agriculture/Ecosystem-Management-Adaptive-Community-Based-Conservation.pdf
https://www.nature.org/ourinitiatives/urgentissues/global-warming-climate-change/redd-training-manual.pdf?redirect=https-301
https://www.cbd.int/sbstta/sbstta-22-sbi-2/EbA-Eco-DRR-Guidelines-en.pdf
https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/EcoDRR_Discussion_paper_web.pdf

https://www.cbd.int/sbstta/sbstta-20/sbstta-20-inf-cc-eba.pdf
https://elti.yale.edu/sites/default/files/rsource_files/2014_sep_restoration.pdf
https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/Manual-for-implementing-ecosystem-restoration-1.pdf

Powerpoint Ecosystem Management and Restoration

3.3 Ecosystem Approaches and Resources

Background information

Integrated Coastal Zone Management: a multi-sectoral, multi-disciplinary approach to managing the **coastal zone** in a sustainable manner. Provides an opportunity to address coastal hazards and risks in an integrated manner by including planning, resource management, information bases, and community involvement.

Integrated Water Resource Management: a process which promotes the coordinated development
and management of **water, land** and related **resources** in order to maximise economic and social
welfare in an equitable manner without compromising the sustainability of vital ecosystems and the environment (GWP, 2000). (Similar to Catchment Management Approach and Landscape approach)

Integrated Fire Management: an approach to balance the beneficial and negative effects of fire on the natural environment and **socio-economic** circumstances in a given landscape or region and reduce risk of **wildfire disasters** threatening human life and healthy ecosystem functions.

Protected Area Management: a means of ensuring that Protected Areas (PAs) are managed to protect their values for the foreseeable future.

Assessments cover the significance and value of protected areas, threats to PAs, PA vulnerability to threat and issues relating to PA stakeholders, whether local or national. It generates recommendations concerning conserving the integrity of natural ecosystems; cultural, spiritual and aesthetic values; socio-economic and community engagement; governance and capacity to manage.

Community-based Natural Resource Management: the collective use and management of natural
resources in rural areas by a group of people with a self-defined, distinct identity, using communally owned facilities. The focus of CBNRM is not merely wise management of natural resources. As important, if not more so, is the need for community development, local self-government, and the creation of local institutions for managing common property resources.

3.5 Integrating Ecosystem Management and Restoration into Plans, Policies and Programmes

Background information

Protection and management of ecologically sensitive and valuable areas, so that these can recover and achieve their full-potential in terms of ecosystem system services. Experience shows that control or even exclusion of agricultural activities, grazing of livestock, and collection of natural products from delineated areas stimulates the germination of seeds, promotes seedling survival and allows vegetation to grow faster. These developments can be supported by planting trees and disposing urban waste (water) in a safe manner.

Protection and restoration interventions are best implemented in close collaboration with communities, as implementation and enforcement are to a large extent dependent on communal efforts. In general protection and management measures contribute to erosion control, improve the availability of fodder, stimulate groundwater recharge have a positive impact on biodiversity.

Soil and water conservation (SWC) targets the conservation of soil, water and related natural resources on agricultural land. SWC measures are often directed primarily to either soil or water conservation, but most contain an element of both. Water conservation mostly entails the implementation of land use changes or physical structures, which often also counteract erosion. Similarly, soil conservation usually involves reducing splash erosion, crust formation or breakdown of soil structure, all of which also increase infiltration, and hence contribute to water conservation. The application of SWC-measures results in higher and more reliable yields.
Depending on the conditions the implementation of SWC measures may come with the possibility to produce higher market-value crops. SWC measures also improve groundwater recharge, water flow regulation, soil formation and biodiversity.

Off-stream water storage includes many typical 3R-interventions (Recharge, retention and reuse of water). Off stream water storage includes all those land interventions that collect water from surface run-off to store it either in open water reservoirs or in the ground. Rock catchments, birkads and ponds are examples of off-stream water storage interventions. Besides directly improving water availability, off-stream water storage contributes to water flow regulation and groundwater infiltration.

In-stream water storage aims at water storage in riverbed sediments of seasonal rivers (shallow groundwater) or in open water reservoirs build across flow accumulation areas (surface water). As with off-stream water storage interventions, these are typical 3R interventions aimed at collecting runoff during the rainy season to make it available in dry periods. An additional advantage of water storage in riverbed sediments is that water quality is hugely improved and water flows are regulated.

Examples of EMR interventions

Module 4: Climate Change Adaptation

4.1 CCA key terminologies and concepts

Terminologies and definitions

(print and cut out for exercise in Module 4.1)

Climate	The statistics of weather over a period of time ranging from months to thousands or millions of years. The classical averaging period is 30 years, as defined by the World Meteorological Organization (WMO). Climates can be described as tropical, arid, polar etc. Characteristics of a climate are often described by seasons such as winter and summer, or the wet and dry times of year. In contrast, weather is the day-to-day experience of the climate, for example, a dry day during the rainy season.
Climate Change	A statistically significant change in measures of climate (such as temperature, precipitation, or wind) that persists for an extended period (decades or longer). The term climate change can be used to refer to climate change that results from both natural and man-made factors. However, the UNFCCC and this document uses the term to refer to the current human-induced climate change that is occurring, caused by human activities that are changing the composition of the atmosphere (e.g. through burning fossil fuels) and the land use change.
Vulnerability	The conditions determined by physical, social, economic and environmental factors or processes, which increase the susceptibility of a community to the impact of hazards. For positive factors, which increase the ability of people to cope with hazards.

Climate Change	
Adaptation	Ad Adjustments in response to actual or expected climate change, to reduce negative impacts or take advantage of opportunities.
Climate Change	
Mitigation	Initiatives and measures to reduce the sources, or enhance the sinks, of greenhouse gases.
Climate Variability	Variations in the state of the climate that can last from months to decades. Climate variability can result from natural and man-made process. However, this document uses the term to refer to natural processes. An example of such processes includes El Niño and La Niña.
Adaptive capacity	Refers to the potential, capability, or ability of a system to adapt to climate change stimuli or the effects or impacts. (IPCC)
Community resilience	The ability of individuals and communities exposed to disasters, crisis and underlining vulnerabilities to anticipate, prepare for, reduce the impact of, cope with and recover from the effect of shocks and stresses without compromising their long-term prospects (IFRC).
Climate Risk Management	An approach to systematically manage climate-related risks affecting activities, strategies or investments, by taking account of the risk of current variability and extremes in weather as well as long-term climate change. Climate risk management is doing what we have always done in terms of disaster management, health and care, food security and so on, but paying attention to (1) the way risks are changing, and (2) options to reduce the risks in addition to being prepared to respond after the event.

Seasonal Forecast	Provides a general indication of the likely character of the season over the next 3 months –specifically what the chances are that temperature or precipitation is likely to be normal, above-normal and below-normal for the given place and time of year, based on conditions in the climate system. Seasonal forecasts indicate the likelihood of the general conditions for a particular season ahead and do not provide any information regarding day-to-day weather or extreme events.
Early Warning early action	Routinely taking humanitarian action before a disaster or health emergency happens, making full use of scientific information on all timescales

Powerpoint Presentation:
Introduction to Climate Change Adaptation

Slide 1

4.1 Introduction to Climate Change Adaptation

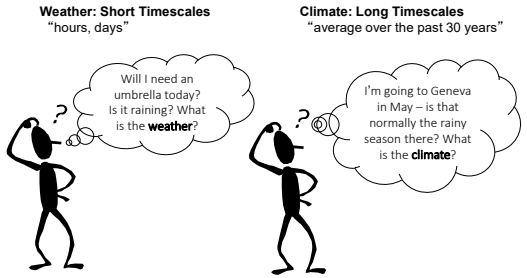
Slide 2

Welcome and introduction of participants,

- incl. exercise on “background" and levelling of expectations
- Invited to move to different corners of the workshop room to indicate different positions and viewpoints
- (for instance: Corner 1. I don’t know much about climate change Corner 2. I have some knowledge on climate change, but not on how it relates to my work
- Corner 3. I have some knowledge on climate change and understand how to apply it in my work
- The exercise may be used to gauge initial perceptions on climate change in relation to RCRC work, and be repeated at the end of the workshop to assess changes, i.e. "base- and end line survey.
- "Remember to make room for any formal op

Slide 3

Weather or climate?



Before we go on let us clarify the difference between weather and climate: (ASK the participants to describe how they perceive the difference)

Then wrap up:

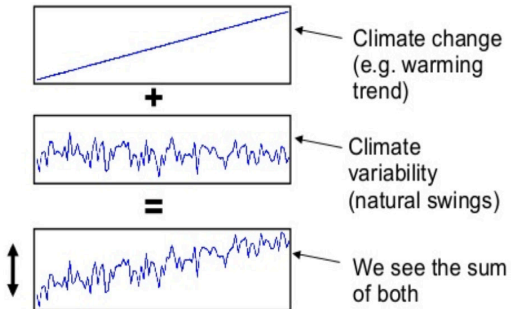
- **climate is what *usually* happens** in a location (i.e.: it usually rains in May),
- **weather is what happens on any given day** (i.e.: it is not raining on May 10).

Here, we are talking about changes to the climate system, which means changes to what is usual for a location.
Therefore, if th
e climate of a location is expected to get warmer, it means that location will be warmer on average, but we can't predict how the weather will turn out on any given day far into the future.

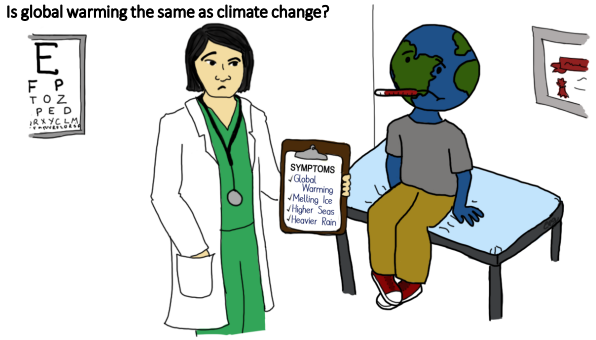
An easy way to remember the difference: "Climate is what you expect, weather is what you get."

Slide 4

Climate change and variability



Slide 5



Slide 6

First question: Why is it getting warmer?

Answer: The rapid global warming of the past 100 years is caused mostly by human activity, mainly:

Burning fossil fuels (e.g. coal, oil, natural gas) at unprecedented rates, sending "greenhouse gases" (= GHG") into the atmosphere

Widespread deforestation (trees contain a lot of carbon, and when burnt CO_2 is released)

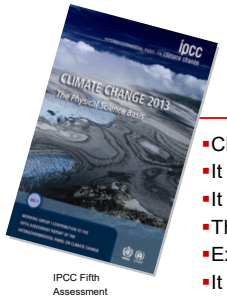
Changing agricultural and land-use practices (agriculture releases other GHGs, CH_4 and NO_2)

Historical records show that our climate has always varied naturally over time, for instance due to changes in the intensity of the Sun's energy reaching the earth, volcanic eruptions, and natural changes in greenhouse gas (GHG) concentrations. However, the rather rapid warming in recent decades cannot be attributed only to natural causes. Scientific consensus now tells us that human activities are "extremely likely" (>95% "probability") to blame.

CO2 is the most important GHG - some other greenhouse gases are methane, nitrous oxide, water vapor.

Slide 7

IPCC – the 'key reference' on climate change



IPCC Fifth Assessment Report, 2013

Main findings of 5th Assessment

- Climate change is already happening
- It is mostly caused by man
- It will continue
- The rate of change is alarming
- Extreme weather is getting more frequent
- It is urgent to stop further warming

The IPCC is the "Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change", the leading international body for the assessment of climate change, established by the United Nations Environment Programme and the World Meteorological Organization in 1988. Thousands of scientists worldwide contribute to it and their highly detailed reports are accompanied by a "Summary for Policymakers" (SPM), approved line-by-line at formal UN meetings and endorsed by all governments. The SPM then becomes the agreed scientific basis for international negotiations about climate change and is used for national policy-making on climate by many countries.

The latest report – launched in September 2013 – added considerable strength to the previous (2007) report, which was already an eye-opener to the larger public. Its statements were clear and alarming: climate change is now unequivocal, it is bound to continue at an alarming rate unless substantial measures are taken to reduce greenhouse gas emissions and it already is and will continue to bring the world more extreme weather events.

Find the full report – and shorter summaries especially for the Red Cross Red Crescent – on www.climatecentre.org/AR5
and further background on the IPCC at www.ipcc.ch or www.climatechange2013.org

Slide 8

The earth is getting warmer – what does that mean?


Rising temperatures, heat waves


Sea level rise


Melting ice


Ocean acidification


Changing rainfall patterns


Changes in extreme events

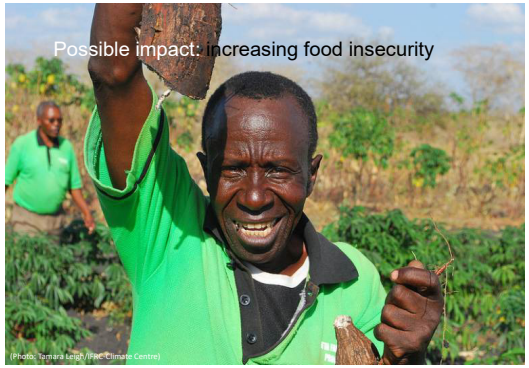
Slide 9

Slide 10

Slide 11

Potential impact: Drought

Slide 12



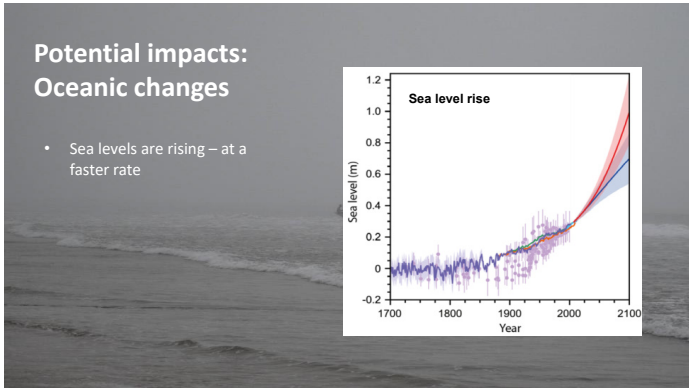
Linked to increasing likelihood of drought in major food producing areas (for instance: China, southern Europe and the Mediterranean region, central Europe, central North America, Central America and Mexico); agricultural yields may decline due to climate change.

More people will be at risk from food insecurity if yields decrease and food prices increases.

http://www.ipcc.ch/pdf/special-reports/srex/SREX_Full_Report.pdf

Slide 13

Slide 14



4.1 Additional information on climate change related to the powerpoint

Weather or climate?

- Weather: short timescales – hours, days
- Climate: long timescales – average over the past 30 years

Climate variability or climate change?

Is global warming the same as climate change?

- *Global warming* refers only to the Earth's rising surface temperature, while climate change includes warming and the "side effects" of warming–like melting glaciers, heavier rainstorms, or more frequent drought. Said another way, global warming is one symptom of the much larger problem of human-caused climate change. https://www.climate.gov/news-features/climate-qa/whats-difference-between-global-warming-and-climate-change

Why is it getting warmer? (RCCC slide)

- The rapid global warming of the past 100 years is caused mostly by human activity, mainly:
  - Burning fossil fuels (e.g. coal, oil, natural gas) at unprecedented rates, sending "greenhouse gases" (= GHG") into the atmosphere
  - Widespread deforestation (trees contain a lot of carbon, and when burnt CO_2 is released)
  - Changing agricultural and land-use practices (agriculture releases other GHGs, CH_4 and NO_2)

IPCCC – Main Findings of 5th Assessment (RCCC slide)

- Climate change is already happening.
- It is mostly caused by man.
- It will continue
- The rate of change is alarming.
- Extreme weather is getting more frequent.
- It is urgent to stop further warming.

Global guidance for climate change policies and programming:

COP: Conference of Parties; The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) Conference of the Parties (COP) is the annual meeting of all states that are members (parties) to the UNFCCC.
UNFCCC: United National Framework Convention on Climate Change; A

global treaty that aims at preventing dangerous levels of climate change.
Climate change is a global problem. Countries therefore agreed to address this problem in the context of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change that was signed in 1992. Initially the main focus of the UNFCCC was to address the root cause: the emission of greenhouse gases.
But it became increasingly evident that mankind also needed to start adapting to the changes already beginning to affect us. In 2001, at COP 7 in Marrakesh, Parties established the Least Developed Countries(LDC) Work Programme to develop national climate change mechanisms and build capacity, including NAPAs: Through National Adaptation Programmes of Action LDCs identify and report their adaptation needs.
And at COP 13 in 2007 'climate change adaptation' was formally recognized as a topic in the UNFCCC negotiations, along with mitigation of greenhouse gas emissions.
Within the adaptation 'pillar', risk management was identified as a key issue.
Finally, at COP 21 in Paris, December 2015, a global agreement was accomplished

The measures in the Paris Agreement include:

- To peak greenhouse gas emissions as soon as possible
- To keep global temperature increase "well below" 2C and to pursue efforts to limit it to 1.5C
- To review progress every five years
- $100 billion a year in climate finance for developing countries by 2020.

Note: Part of the funds are for "adaptation" – and the NAPs and NDCs largely define how they should be spent

4.2 Climate Change and Urban Risk

Slide 15

4.2 Climate change and urban risks

- Extreme climate variability and rapid, unplanned urbanization are magnifying risks to the most vulnerable people. These changing risk patterns, compounded by poverty, epidemics and demographic shifts, can exacerbate the vulnerability of communities.
- The convergence of these trends and the corresponding exposure to risk have affected communities' preparedness, coping strategies and resilience. Similarly, the short and medium- term risk factors from climate change require different risk reduction approaches, especially in urban environments where the density of risks, stakeholders and communities are unprecedented.

Slide 16

What is driving urban risk?

- **Urban concentration** – higher numbers of people in most countries living in urban places provide conditions for the magnifcation of risk and eventual disaster or crisis, including the potential for the rapid spread of health-related epidemics.
- **Climate change** – will add a layer of additional risk and uncertainty. The extent to which cities will be affected by changes in climate is influenced by different factors. Location is one of them and, for example, cities have historically developed along coastlines and food plains that supported economic development.

Slide 17

What is driving urban risk cont…

- **Rapid and unplanned urbanization** – has generally taken place on marginal lands and in hazardous areas since, particularly in developing countries, people who move to cities seek shelter in marginal, high-risk areas such as hillside slopes, food plains or subsiding land because they are more affordable.

Slide 18

Urbanization of Risk

Change in means	Possible impact on urban areas
Temperature	Increased energy demands for heating or cooling Worsening of air quality Extremes that are exaggerated by urban heat islands
Sea-level rise	Coastal flooding Reduced income from agriculture and tourism Salinization of water sources
Precipitation	Increased risk of flooding Increased risk of landslides Distress migration from rural areas as a result of crop failures Interruption of food supply networks

Slide 19

Urbanization of Risk

Changes in extremes	Possible impact on urban areas
Extreme rainfall/ tropical cyclones	More intense flooding Higher risk of landslides Disruption to livelihoods and city economies Damage to homes and businesses
Drought	Water shortages Higher food prices Disruption of hydroelectricity Distress migration from rural areas
Heat or cold waves	Short-term increase in energy demands for heating or cooling
Abrupt climate change	Possible significant impacts from rapid and extreme sea-level rise

Slide 20

Urbanization of Risk

Changes in exposure	Possible impact on urban areas
Population movements	Movements from stressed rural habitats
Biological changes	Extended vector habitats

Urban Risk, World Disaster Report 2010, IFRC

Increased understanding of the changing climate impacts and vulnerabilities AND gender including linking Climate Change to Urban Risks.

Resources:
Increasing impacts on communities and ecosystems based on vulnerabilities (gendered impacts, impacts on those with disabilities, impacts on urban areas, FHHs, child headed households, other marginalized groups etc.)

Share general climate change trends, vulnerabilities and impacts in the HoA. Information on trends http://www.care.or.ke/images/PDF/GWI_CVCA_CS_Sept11.pdf

Climate change in East Africa:

Climate change is altering the context within which disasters and their impacts are felt. In East Africa, the impacts of climate change are already being experienced by the increase in average temperature, a decrease in surface water availability, increase in the intensity and frequency of extreme weather events, decline in food security, sea level rise and the destruction of coral reef, the increased occurrence and intensity of disease outbreaks which may increase the spread of diseases in some areas, altered biodiversity as species struggle to adapt to changing conditions [1] and many other effects.

The trends are deeply concerning:

- Seven of the last ten years have seen chronic droughts in East Africa due to poor or failed rains.8
- The long rains, which go from March to May/June, are failing much more frequently.9 As of last year, in Eastern Kenya and Southern Somalia, 10 out of the last 16 have been dry compared with historic averages.10
- Temperatures across East Africa are rising, and have been much higher in recent years compared with historic averages (see Box 1).
- https://d1tn3vj7xz9fdh.cloudfront.net/s3fs-public/mb-climate-crisis-east-africa-drought-270417-en.pdf

Increasing vulnerabilities:

- Already struggling from competing vulnerabilities such as unstable political climate, terrorism, etc the Horn of Africa Region(HoA) region is extremely vulnerable to climate change impacts such as the most recent and still ongoing drought 2015-2018.[2]

Gender and climate change:

- Vulnerability to climate change is socially differentiated; that is, the causes of women and men's vulnerability to climate change are many and varied (see Boxes 1 & 2). Gender intersects with social, cultural and economic inequalities to create this vulnerability. In many parts of the world, women's unequal access to resources, education, legal protection, decision-making and power make them more vulnerable to the impacts of climate change. For example, lower levels of education and literacy of some women can limit their ability to access important information and support in order to prepare for disasters or adapt to longer-term climate change.
- While it is evident that some women will be more vulnerable to climate change, it is also important to note that women are key actors in implementing positive change. Experience shows us that when equipped with the proper resources, women have the power to help their families and entire communities prepare for disasters and the negative impacts of climate change. Women have a strong body of knowledge and expertise that can be used to address the implications of climate change. The skills, experience, and capacities of women need to be harnessed alongside those of men by those implementing 'climate smart' disaster risk reduction programs. Of course men can also be champions for gender equality and promote the inclusion of women in key decision making processes. Male champions of gender equality work across many sectors to promote behavioural change (DFAT). Remember: It is important to consider that women are not a homogenous group; marital status, age and economic status can influence their particular needs and interests (IFRC 2003).
- Minimum standards for local climate-smart and gender sensitive disaster risk reduction
    - o Programs that include gender respond better to men and women's needs – climate smart programs are no different. Such programs can recognize the differential impacts of climate change on men and women, identify the issues and structures that can result in women's disempowerment and transform disadvantage.

_____

[1] WWF: Climate Change Impacts on East Africa, A review of the Scientific Literature. https://www.wwf.or.jp/activities/lib/pdf_climate/environment/east_africa_climate_change_impacts_final.pdf

[2] https://reliefweb.int/report/somalia/horn-africa-humanitarian-impacts-

drought-issue-12-8-december-2017

4.2 Background information

Climate change and urban risks

- Extreme climate variability and rapid, unplanned urbanization are magnifying risks to the most vulnerable people. These changing risk patterns, compounded by poverty, epidemics and demographic shifts, can exacerbate the vulnerability of communities. The convergence of these trends and the corresponding exposure to risk have affected communities' preparedness, coping strategies and resilience. Similarly, the short and medium- term risk factors from climate change require different risk reduction approaches, especially in urban environments where the density of risks, stakeholders and communities are unprecedented. http://www.climatecentre.org/downloads/files/VCA%20guidance/1260200-VCA-EN-LR.PDF

What is driving the urbanization of risk?

- Urban concentration – higher numbers of people in most countries living in urban places provide conditions for the magnifcation of risk and eventual disaster or crisis, including the potential for the rapid spread of health-related epidemics. Population density means also that, when a disaster occurs, more people are likely to be killed and injured within a small space, and the level of needs may overwhelm the ability of the humanitarian system to provide support. The density of construction means that there will also be more damaged infrastructure that will need to be managed, such as buildings, roads, business areas and sewers (ALNAP 2012), or whose ruins will make access more diffcult for relief workers.
- Climate change – will add a layer of additional risk and uncertainty. The extent to which cities will be affected by changes in climate is infuenced by different factors. Location is one of them and, for example, cities have historically developed along coastlines and food plains that supported economic development. Today more than 360 million people live in coastal urban areas and they, amongst others, will be directly affected by rising sea levels and coastal erosion (exacerbating the risk of fooding), salinization of agricultural land and water intrusion, and increased storm surges.
- Rapid and unplanned urbanization – has generally taken place on marginal lands and in hazardous areas since, particularly in developing countries, people who move to cities seek shelter in marginal, high-risk areas such as hillside slopes, food plains or subsiding land because they are more affordable. In extreme cases, vulnerable populations living in informal settlements trade

off environmental safety and protection from disasters for living in proximity to the economic opportunities urban environments offer. These informal settlements are often characterized by lack of safe water and sewage services, poor sanitation, lack of garbage collection services and other health issues (including contagious and vector-borne diseases). The vulnerability of urban populations to external shocks is greatly increased by poor urban infrastructures. During rapid urbanization, compliance and enforcement of building codes and safety requirements might be ignored. As a result infrastructures might be more vulnerable to the impacts of more intense and frequent hazards resulting from Climate Change

4.2 Exercise on Urban Risks

(Print and cut out Changes and related impacts)

Source: http://www.climatecentre.org/downloads/files/VCA%20guidance/1260200-VCA-EN-LR.PDF

Change in climate	Possible impact on urban areas
Changes in means	
Temperature	– Increased energy demands for heating or cooling – Worsening of air quality – Extremes that are exaggerated by urban heat islands
Sea-level rise	– Coastal flooding – Reduced income from agriculture and tourism – Salinization of water sources
Precipitation	– Increased risk of flooding – Increased risk of landslides – Distress migration from rural areas as a result of crop failures – Interruption of food supply networks
Changes in extremes	
Extreme rainfall/ tropical cyclones	– More intense flooding – Higher risk of landslides – Disruption to livelihoods and city economies – Damage to homes and businesses
Drought	– Water shortages – Higher food prices – Disruption of hydroelectricity – Distress migration from rural areas
Heat or cold waves	– Short-term increase in energy demands for heating or cooling
Abrupt climate change	– Possible significant impacts from rapid and extreme sea-level rise
Changes in exposure	
Population movements	– Movements from stressed rural habitats
Biological changes	– Extended vector habitats

Urban Risk, World Disaster Report 2010, IFRC

4.3 Adaptation

4.3 Enhanced knowledge on effective adaptation to climate change impacts.
List of Adaptation Strategies

Climate change adaptation strategies are suggested based sectors in agriculture and livestock, water, natural resources, energy and public health. The following are examples of climate change adaptation strategies;

- promotion of early maturing/drought resistant crop varieties,
- investment in early warning and disaster prevention systems,
- conservation agriculture,
- investment in animal disease surveillance systems,
- use of renewable energy sources,
- promotion of agroforestry,
- investment in irrigation and water harvesting technologies,
- protection of coastal marine resources and the use of traditional methods of forest management
- crop diversification,
- changes in cropping pattern and calendar of planting,
- conserving soil moisture through appropriate tillage methods,

- improving irrigation efficiency, and afforestation and agro-forestry.
- Financial mechanisms can contribute to climate change adaptation. The insurance sector – especially property, health and crop insurance – can efficiently spread risks and reduce the financial hardships linked to extreme events. Financial markets can internalise information on climate risks and help transfer adaptation and risk-reduction incentives to communities and individuals (ABI, 2004), while capital markets and transfer mechanisms can alleviate financial constraints to the implementation of adaptation measures.
- seasonal climate forecasting,
- famine early warning systems,
- Reactive or ex-poste adaptations, for example, emergency response, disaster recovery, and migration

If you are aware of these innovative adaptation strategies you can also share them: : Access to climate information, FbF, EW/EA, REDD+, LUC,

4.3 Powerpoint Climate Smart Communities

For more information see: http://www.climatecentre.org/downloads/files/2014-Gender-and-Climate-Change.pdf

Climate Smart Communities

Climate smart' activity	Examples of gender sensitive approaches
Community carries out 'vulnerability and risk assessments' that note observed changes in weather, seasonality and hazard patterns **and uses the information to develop local action plans.**	Understanding gendered divisions of labour (eg. who collects water, who is responsible for preparing communities, who manages money, who makes decisions, who manages food and water, who provides care for the sick) helps to understand various challenges faced by men and women in communities. It can then help determine who has knowledge of various changes occurring in their environment, the impacts of these and solutions to them. Encourage men and women to be meaningfully involved in decision making processes.
Community monitors and evaluates approaches to disaster risk reduction and learns from experience in order to adjust plans to adapt to climate variability and change.	Collect gender disaggregated data during monitoring and evaluation. Use this time to reflect on whether the various needs, knowledge and capacities of men and women have been harnessed in implementation.
Community advocates for its adaptation needs towards appropriate climate-related authorities and stakeholders	Both women and men have the opportunity to share their challenges and needs with climate related stakeholders.

4.4 Climate Finance

Introduction to Climate Finance:

What is climate finance and where will it come from?
Climate finance refers to: "finance flowing to developing countries, including support for mitigation, adaptation, 'climate' policy and capacity building" 1 (UNEP BFI CCWG). Climate change mitigation includes funding of renewable energy projects, energy efficiency, forestry and land-use, sustainable urban transport, etc. With regard to funding for adaptation, in general funding is geared towards enhancing resilience to the impacts of climate variability.

Climate finance is both public and private, with public funds being channelled through different institutions, mostly bilateral and MFIs or national government aid agencies.2 A recent study estimates that approximately 343-385 billion US dollars (USD) of climate finance was available in 2010-2011 at the global level (CPI 2012). According to the Climate Policy Initiative, the majority of this funding comes from the private sector, mostly from developed
countries, which invest approximately 217-243 billion USD (63 per cent of global contributions). Public and private intermediaries, (i.e., particularly national development and commercial bank) were key in channelling and raising climate finance.
http://www.climatecentre.org/downloads/files/IFRCGeneva/IFRCClimateFinance.pdf

The commitment
The Copenhagen Accord: Developed countries' promises to fund actions to reduce greenhouse gas emissions and to adapt to the inevitable effects of climate change in developing countries. Developed countries promised to provide US$30 billion for the period 2010-2012, and to mobilize long-term finance of a further US$100 billion a year by 2020 from a variety of sources.
http://unfccc.int/meetings/copenhagen_dec_2009/meeting/6295.php

4.4 Powerpoint Climate Finance

Slide 1

Climate Finance

Taking local resilience action to scale!

Slide 2

Mobilising investment is a means to an end:
1. Mitigation of GHGs to curtail negative impacts +
2. Adaptation to unavoidable effects.

UNFCCC

2009 Copenhagen Accord goal: $100b/yr by 2020 for developing countries

Funding will come from public, private, bilateral, multilateral & alternative sources of finance

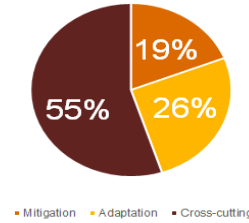
Explain the UNFCCC: United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change – with its annual negotiations.

The 2009 Copenhagen Accord says:
"In the context of meaningful mitigation actions and transparency on implementation, developed countries commit to a goal of mobilizing jointly USD 100 billion dollars a year by 2020 to address the needs of developing countries. This funding will come from a wide variety of sources, public and private, bilateral and multilateral, including alternative sources of finance."

Ambition is to be raised in 2025: see next slide

Slide 3

Thematic distribution of concept notes in GCF funding (%)



Source: GCF/B.13/Inf.10 – Status of the Fund's portfolio: pipeline and approved projects

Slide 4

Why are Climate **Finance needs growing?**

- **Climate Risks are changing**
  - **Extreme events**
  - **Slow-onset**
- **Vulnerability and exposure are changing**
  - **Poverty, ecosystem degradation, food & livelihoods security**
  - **Urbanization & cities as "disaster traps"**

- **Our concern: Needs aremuch greater than $100b Not enough & not fast enough…**

Mobilisation of Definitions are purposefully new additional $100 billion is much weaker than the Fast Start Finance Commitments to 'provide' $30 billion by 2012
There is uncertainty and lack of prioritisation between the sources of finance not given in order to reach agreement and allow heads of state flexibility in application

Concerning to us: just a small chunk ends up for adaptation. Most goes to financing action on mitigation. Only a tiny bit benefits both adaptation & mitigation.
Now let's look at who **receives the money** – the biggest part goes through the private sector. NGOs and foundations' part is very very small. CSOs nevertheless need to help ensure that this money finds its way to address local realities and reduce vulnerability there.
Not all of this slide is relevant to bring our messages across, but you can point out that NGO/CSOs mostly receive their funding through donor Government grants.
Question: how could this finance landscape become more favourable for CSOs and adapation funding in the future? An incredibly difficult question to answer, but policy work is needed to point out the reality of these difficulties to climate finance providers.

Slide 5

Is development aid being diverted?

Climate change & development agendas are inextricably linked.
Investments that reduce emissions or increase resilience often deliver development benefits.

Therefore it is important that all aid must become climate sensitive.
Most climate finance that developed countries report comes from official development assistance budgets, fueling concerns about diversion of aid from poor countries.
In reality climate finance a small fraction of total spending: 16% of total ODA in 2013.

Climate finance flows must igrow AS WELL AS increasing the share of development assistance going to the poorest countries.

Slide 6

How to Access Climate Finance?

➢ CHALLENGES to uptake capacity
- ✓ Lack of climate information
- ✓ Lack of awareness of adaptation needs or funding sources
- ✓ Difficulties stemming from lengthy burdensome fund procedures
- ✓ Low technical capacity in project & programmes design and M&E
- ✓ Limited capacity to integrate CCA in development processes: lack of coherent policies, legal & regulatory frameworks & priority actions

➢ Opportunities for reducing the burden
- ✓ Must not come at the expense of oversight and / or due diligence
- ✓ Growing emphasis on investing in climate finance 'readiness'
- ✓ Strengthening capacity of institutions to plan for and make effective use of available finance that can support their efforts to respond to climate change

In 2014 the Green Climate Fund created an inventory of readiness related activities of existing development finance institutions and climate funds (based on self-reporting by these entities in response to a survey circulated by the secretariat), in order to situate its own efforts in this regard (see also GCF 2013)

Climate Funds such as the GCF and the Adaptation Fund have launched dedicated readiness initiatives to support counterpart institutions to both meet their standards, and to prioritise and develop proposals to make effective use of climate finance. Bilateral development organisations such as GIZ, and multilateral organisations including UNDP, UNEP, the Asian Development Bank (ADB), the World Bank Group, and others (sometimes in partnership with international think tanks and NGOs such as WRI) have also launched programs to this end (Masullo et al 2015, GCF 2014). The

importance of such initiatives was recognised in the Paris Agreement on Climate Change which states that "the institutions serving this Agreement… shall aim to ensure efficient access to financial resources through simplified approval procedures and enhanced readiness support for developing country Parties, in particular for the least developed countries and small island developing States."

Slide 7

How to maximise climate finance?

- Bring national-level coherence across global policy frameworks
  - ✓ **Use our resilience framing to help identify concrete synergies**
- Mainstreaming: across sectors - making development climate-resilient
  - ✓ **Apply, hone & develop our risk screening tools**
- Linkages with DRR financing
  - ✓ **Build from our DRR base - what we are already good at**
- NAPs: National Adaptation Plans need You
  - ✓ **Help responsible agencies understand needs of most vulnerable & basics of resilience-building**
- NDCs: Nationally determined contributions need You too!
  - ✓ **Ensure resilience-building contributions count**

We promote risk screening tools: let's share and use them.
Disaster risk management is recognized in international climate negotiations as a core component of adaptation.
There are actions that humanitarians can take to link with adaptation efforts at national and local levels:

- Scale-up disaster preparedness at all levels and help build the capacity of disaster-prone countries to adapt to the adverse humanitarian impact of climate change;
- Position themselves as key players in the adaptation debate and framework, especially at the country level, where the majority of adaptation decisions will be made, as well as at the regional level;
- Engage in country-level adaptation policy and programming, especially by promoting the inclusion of preparedness and by working closely with government counterparts and demonstrating the added value of humanitarian action in adaptation efforts so as to be considered as implementing partners of country-driven adaptation and preparedness processes;
- Together with development, DRR, and environment actors, develop common approaches to adaptation financing to ensure appropriate scale and type of funding;
- Ensure that preparedness and early-recovery activities address immediate and future extreme weather risks as well as contribute to longer-term development objectives as part of a single, integrated effort;
- Be aware of relevant adaptation funding mechanisms and ensure that, as applicable, applications for preparedness funding are submitted;
- Influence bilateral donors to earmark a sufficient proportion of their overall adaptation funding for humanitarian activities.

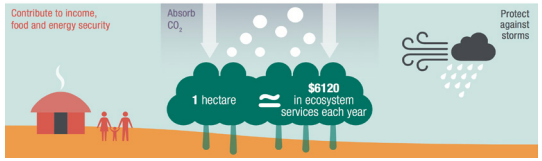
Slide 8

Mainstreaming: what counts as climate action?

…there are a wealth of climate change actions

Do we need to separate climate action from development?

…for example building food security, sustainable livelihoods, and reducing disaster risks all strengthen resilience and adaptive capacity



These are often part of mainstream development efforts, and as climate financed actions can therefore be difficult to distinguish from wider investments for development. Indeed, mainstreaming understanding of climate change risks and opportunities to respond into core development efforts is an important dimension of adaptation

Slide 9

What about those Nationally Determined Contributions & National Adaptation Plans?

- The Climate Action agenda is gaining momemtum
- Sub-national government & non-state actors are stepping up
- NDCs & NAPs will be leading in implementation of climate finance

So NGO/CSO engagement in these processes will be important to inform and influence planning of climate action in your country: let's engage in investment & development planning in NAP/ NDCs/ Development/ DRR planning processes.

Disaster risk management is recognized in international climate negotiations as a core component of adaptation. There are actions that humanitarians can take to link with adaptation efforts at national and local levels.

Rather than focussing on positioning Red Cross or CSOs this area of work, it could really make a difference if we also try and influence the bigger investment flows and systems in such a way that they take better note of community priorities. Looking at how our inclusive resilience principles are embedded (or not) in existing financial instruments, systems and private or public investments, can help us to try and make changes which can reach scale. Also the private sector can be an interesting ally for sustained climate action.

Related to the UNFCCC ambitions - government and non-state actors (CSOs, Private Sector, etc) are gearing up under the Climate Action agenda, which hopes to further increase levels of ambition as currently defined under the UNFCCC in the Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs) and the National Adaptation Plans (NAPs). The NDCs and NAPs will by leading in the implementation of climate finance, so Red Cross and overall CSO engagement in the NAP and NDC processes will be important to understand further planning of climate action in your country.

Slide 10

Are the needs of the vulnerable at the centre of national policies?

- Climate finance workplan for PfR: what do we need?
- Managing expectations: what can we realistically achieve?

A short term "to do" list:

- ✓ ***Scale-up*** disaster preparedness and risk reduction
- ✓ ***Build coalitions with*** CSOs and other stakeholders to ensure vulnerable people are benefitting from climate finance.
- ✓ ***Engage*** in country-level adaptation policy and implementation
- ✓ **Ensure *extreme weather*** risks addressed in DRM activities and in sectorial planning processes under the NAP/ NDCs.
- ✓ **Be aware of *funding*** flows for adaptation & preparedness
- ✓ ***Influence*** **donors** to fund humanitarian work from adaptation budgets
- ✓ ***Contribute*** **to long-term development**

Disaster risk management is recognized in international climate negotiations as a core component of adaptation.
There are actions that humanitarians can take to link with adaptation efforts at national and local levels.
Information in this slide is from 2010 OCHA background paper *Potential new climate change adaptation funding sources for disaster preparedness activities.*

- Scale-up disaster preparedness at all levels and help build the capacity of disaster-prone countries to adapt to the adverse humanitarian impact of climate change;
- Position themselves as key players in the adaptation debate and framework, especially at the country level, where the majority of adaptation decisions will be made, as well as at the regional level;
- Engage in country-level adaptation policy and programming, especially by promoting the inclusion of preparedness and by working closely with government counterparts and demonstrating the added value of humanitarian action in adaptation efforts so as to be considered as implementing partners of country-driven adaptation and preparedness processes;
- Together with development, DRR, and environment actors, develop common approaches to adaptation financing to ensure appropriate scale and type of funding;
- Ensure that preparedness and early-recovery activities address immediate and future extreme weather risks as well as contribute to

longer-term development objectives as part of a single, integrated effort;
- Be aware of relevant adaptation funding mechanisms and ensure that, as applicable, applications for preparedness funding are submitted;
- Influence bilateral donors to earmark a sufficient proportion of their overall adaptation funding for humanitarian activities.

Slide 11

Bottom line:

- **We need to work together with different players and…**
- **Sometimes, the lack of finance is a function of lack of capacity, information, and/or enabling environments**
  - ✓ Not receiving fundable proposals – need to strengthen capacities to develop risk-informed climate-smart proposals
  - ✓ Need to understand better climate resilient financing and need support from various groups to understand basics of resilience building
  - ✓ The system (especially policy) is not yet in place in the country to provide the enabling environment for CF
  - ✓ Banks have limited awareness & experience with climate risk issues
  - ✓ Growing perception of high cost in complying with green investments
  - ✓ Need to establish a clear business case
- **Reinforcing the need for advocacy, mainstreaming and engaging!**

Disaster risk management is recognized in international climate negotiations as a core component of adaptation.
There are actions that humanitarians can take to link with adaptation efforts at national and local levels.
Information in this slide is from 2010 OCHA background paper *Potential new climate change adaptation funding sources for disaster preparedness activities.*

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- Ensure that preparedness and early-recovery activities address immediate and future extreme weather risks as well as contribute to longer-term development objectives as part of a single, integrated effort;
- Be aware of relevant adaptation funding mechanisms and ensure that, as applicable, applications for preparedness funding are submitted;
- Influence bilateral donors to earmark a sufficient proportion of their overall adaptation funding for humanitarian activities.

Slide 12

What are our key messages?

Who do we want to influence?

Where can we meaningfully engage?

How can we leverage in the dialogues with our resilience programming?

It could really make a difference if we also try and influence the bigger investment flows and systems in such a way that they take better note of community priorities. Looking at how our inclusive resilience principles are embedded (or not) in existing financial instruments, systems and private or public investments, can help us to try and make changes which can reach scale. Also the private sector can be an interesting ally for sustained climate action.

Even though Red Cross National Societies might only be very limitedly able to tap into international climate finance flows (eg from the Green Climate Fund), we can show to climate finance implementing entities who do have

access, and our Governments that we are credible partners in reducing increased vulnerability due to climate change and that local risk perception is crucial for successful NAP planning.

With this slide, the facilitator can initiate a brainstorm on potential key messages , which national societies can convey in meetings with stakeholders in our countries. For instance the following messages could be highlighted if they don't pop up:

- We need to include community needs better in adaptation planning and climate finance investments: we need this flexible finance to reach the most vulnerable, so they can also benefit.

2. We need to try and truly bridge humanitarian, development and climate agendas – for communities it doesn't matter where the strategies align – they want solutions to their (cross cutting) problems.
3. $100bn is not enough to address the problem (or any of the other concerns raised earlier in this presentation). It is too low a target if it is to come from both public and private sources, and too little if it is to be spread between both adaptation and mitigation. Ultimately, it has become an abstract number that Parties fight over in the world of the UNFCCC, which is too far removed from the real business of cutting emissions and supporting vulnerable communities. It is time this changed.
4. An integrated approach it's key for scaling up (not just small adaptation projects, but ambition at the scale needed - getting rid of extreme poverty, getting rid of hunger - at the scale of national and global development planning)

Ultimately, the Red Cross Red Crescent can be assisting in advocating for the most vulnerable, in the implementation of, and accessing funding from, upcoming adaptation funds through national policy dialogues could be an outcome of advocacy efforts.

Slide 13

What are some possible next steps?

1. **Policy dialogue** – necessary as we believe many international commitments made by governments are not yet implemented nationally or locally, or in a way that builds the resilience of the most vulnerable people
2. **Scrutinize CF flows** in PfR countries: get a good understanding if these funds make a difference for the most vulnerable. (Strong knowledge base)
3. **Develop "entry strategies"** with our partners for access to the table during climate proposal design & - ONLY where financial management capacity is high - in also accessing climate finance (emphatically avoid creating false expectations)
4. **Strenghten PfR positioning capacity** - A very good entry strategy is to assist and support partners in positioning themselves with national govt and other partners as implementing partners for national climate finance.
5. **Documentation of good resilience practices** to pitch importance of PfR engagement in NAP/ climate proposal design. NAP plans will become instrumental in defining needs to enhance resilience
6. **Pitch strong DRR/ Resilience case studies in policy discussison** with our Governments to show how we can support them in the implementation of Paris, Sendai and SDG's.
7. **Pipeline proposal influencing**: advocate with implementing climate finance entities (for instance UNEP, UNDP, WMO)

Policy dialogue – advocacy or humanitarian diplomacy – is necessary as we believe many international commitments made by governments are not yet implemented nationally or locally, or in a way that builds the resilience of the most vulnerable people.

Brainstorm To Do's for PfR partners, such as:
1. Scrutinize CF flows in PfR country: get a good understanding if these funds make a difference for the most vulnerable. (Strong knowledge base)
2. Develop "entry strategies" with our partners for access to the table during climate proposal design & - ONLY where financial management capacity is high - in also accessing climate finance (emphatically avoid creating false expectations)
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5. Pipeline proposal influencing: advocate with implementing climate finance entities (for instance UNEP, UNDP, WMO)

Slide 14

CF info worth monitoring:

- unfccc.int
- adaptation-fund.org
- gefonline.org
- gfdrr.org
- climateinvestmentfunds.org
- weadapt.org
- climatefundsupdate.org

Some websites worth monitoring to keep abreast of adaptation funding.
More people will be at risk from food insecurity if yields decrease and food prices increases.

http://www.ipcc.ch/pdf/special-reports/srex/SREX_Full_Report.pdf

4.4 Background information

Why are climate finance needs growing? (refer to slide)

Funding for adaptation vs mitigation?
The UNFCCC conference held in Paris in 2015 confirmed climate finance for developing countries for up to 100 billion USD per year, channeled mostly through the GCF. The decision of the GCF Board to allocate 50% of the Fund's resources to adaptation, makes the GCF the largest multilateral funder of climate adaptation activities.
https://cdkn.org/2016/07/mobilizing-finance-climate-change-adaptation/?loclang=en_gb

Another notable finding is that most of climate change funding goes towards mitigation activities. These account for 350 billion USD out of a total of 385 billion USD (CPI 2012), mostly for renewable energy generation projects and energy efficiency. Emerging economies such as Brazil, China and India received one-third of global mitigation finance flows; most of the investments were raised domestically and went to support development goals. Significantly less funding is geared towards activities that support adaptation to climate change, estimates put figures between 12.3 to 15.8 billion USD. However, overlap between both sectors has not been accounted for. While these resources may seem considerable, a recent estimation carried out by the World Bank (2010) puts costs for adapting to an increase of 2° Celsius global average temperature at approximately 70 to 100 billion USD annually. Current available resources remain; therefore, greatly inadequate and increase the need for more proactive and innovative approaches to access funding to support increased resilience of local communities to current and future shocks.
http://www.climatecentre.org/downloads/files/IFRCGeneva/IFRCClimateFinance.pdf

Spotlight on the Green Climate Fund – What challenges are currently being faced?
As the chief body charged with ultimately overseeing the provision of $100billion in climate finance annually, the GCF will be the centre of attention for many years. But what challenges does it face half a year on from the Paris agreement?

Regarding the twin agendas of adaptation and mitigation, the GCF has declared that it intends to reach a 50:50 split in funding between the two. The thematic split of project concept notes the GCF board has received shows a relatively even split between these which shows that both issues are being evenly accounted for. However – an ambiguity exists, which is often brought up in board meetings – as a third 'cross-cutting' categorisation exists for proposals. This broad catch-all term could lead to controversy as more and more projects are approved under this categorisation. It will be harder and harder to quantify the spending split of adaptation vs. mitigation – which could lead to controversy over the GCFs funding patterns in future.
https://cdkn.org/2016/09/feature-climate-finance-challenges-2016/?loclang=en_gb

Is development aid being diverted? How to access climate finance (additional points on bankability below) ? What counts as climate action? NDCs and NAPs; needs of the vulnerable; bottom line; key messages; next steps (slides)

Bankability:
Bankability – lessons from CDKN's climate finance support (abridged)

From page 6 onwards the paper explores the elements of 'bankability'. The different elements of bankability discussed provides some preliminary insight into the elements that are commonly considered in terms of supporting the development of bankable projects. These are provided here in brief; see the full text for much more detail:

Lesson 1. The definition of bankability for climate change projects goes beyond the standard/ traditional definition of bankability: Bankability in the context of climate change goes beyond that of financial returns to encompass socioeconomic/social metrics, including, for example, improvements in the resilience of communities, and/or alignment with national priorities. In many instances, these additional elements are not easily quantified, which contributes to the grey area between bankability and eligibility, which in this context refers to the degree to which the project fits the criteria of the specific fund in question.

Lesson 2. Bankability is understood and perceived differently among stakeholders, yet is at the core of developing successful project proposals: For example, most international climate funds place emphasis on (amongst other aspects) a project's scalability and contribution to long-term transformation at country level, and consider these to be important determinants of a project's bankability. For national funds a bankable project is one that responds to national priorities as well as the fund's priorities (for examples see the full text).

Lesson 3. The determinants of bankability vary depending on whether the source of funding is public or private: For example, from the private sector perspective, the costs and benefits of the project, and hence the profitability and potential financial returns of the project are key aspects of bankability and are given prominent weighting. There is also a notable difference in the language used by the public and private sectors with reference to bankability.

Lesson 4. Successful access to climate finance depends on understanding the funder's perspective of 'bankable': For example, the Adaptation Fund does not typically refer to projects as being 'bankable' because the focus of the fund is on grants, which implies that there is no need for projects to be bankable in the financial sense of the word. Instead, the Adaptation Fund refers to projects as being 'fundable' or 'financeable' and describes a successful project as one that has impact, contributes to longer-term resilience in the project area, and one that has considered possible project risks, amongst other factors. Considering the varying priorities of different climate funds makes developing bankable project proposals an increasingly complex task. CDKN projects have, however, identified a number of lessons associated with the demonstration of bankability, including:

- The need for coordinated climate project identification and appraisal structures at national level.
- The need to enhance national capacity for financial and economic analysis.
- Costing and availability of climate data.

Lesson 5. Bankability of a project depends on the structure of the finance model and the selection of financial instruments: For example, CDKN's experience in Rwanda has shown that some types of project need to be designed for financing through a combination of both grants and loans to ensure their long-term financial viability and their bankability. Blending different types of funding instruments can contribute to the bankability of project proposals from the perspective of the funder.
Lesson 6. The definition of bankability depends on the type of project, whether mitigation or adaptation: In a case of mitigation, emissions reductions would be an essential characteristic to assess, while in an adaptation context, risk and vulnerability reduction are attributes that could contribute to a project being bankable. Mitigation projects are also typically more likely to be revenue-generating and therefore likely to be aligned with financial indicators, while adaptation projects are more likely to be associated with non-financial indicators of bankability, such as social impact and potential for emissions reduction (see full text for further explanation).

Lesson 7. Bankability of a project depends on the ability to demonstrate a programmatic approach and the potential for a paradigm shift: The GCF promotes a programmatic approach to funding proposals, and provides support in the development of country programmes through its Readiness Programme. Any programme developed and submitted for GCF consideration, including the individual projects within it, should contribute to the GCF's ultimate objectives, as defined in the Governing Instrument – including the promotion of a paradigm shift towards low-emission and climate-resilient development pathways. https://www.weadapt.org/knowledge-base/climate-finance/understanding-bankability-and-unlocking-climate-finance-for-climate-compatible-development

ADDITIONAL BACKGROUND INFORMATION:

Maladaptation

Any changes in natural or human systems that inadvertently increase vulnerability to climatic stimuli; an adaptation that does not succeed in reducing vulnerability but increases it instead. Maladaptive actions and processes do not succeed in reducing vulnerability to climate change impacts but instead increase it and/or reduce the capacity to cope with the negative effects of climate change. Maladaptation may deliver short term benefits (e.g. financial profit) but lead to harmful consequences in the medium and long term perspective. Different types of maladaptation should be avoided, including actions that conflict with mitigation (e.g. installation of energy intensive air conditioners), actions that use resources unsustainably (e.g. using ground water for irrigation in dry regions which causes a decreasing groundwater level), actions that distribute the benefits of adaptation unequally across society (e.g. prevention from climate change induced diseases only for affluent people). Maladaptation may be avoided by a detailed assessment of different options to clarify potential impacts of adaptation actions in the long term

Maladaptation could also be those actions taken ostensibly to avoid or reduce vulnerability to climate change that impacts adversely on, or increases the vulnerability of other systems, sectors or social groups. There are at least five distinct types or pathways through which maladaptation arises; namely actions that, relative to alternatives: increase emissions of greenhouse gases, disproportionately burden the most vulnerable, have high opportunity costs, reduce incentives to adapt, and set paths that limit the choices available to future generations. In order to show how these are manifest in practice, we explain these with reference to decisions to (mal) adapt to water stress in Melbourne.

Conclusion
The main barriers to adaptation included inadequate information on adaptation methods and financial constraints, therefore contextual adaptation practices are more desirable for adoption to farmers. Adapting to climate change needs support from government and other stakeholders, however the implementation is more successful when appropriate and suitable choices are employed

Reference:
Agricultural adaptation strategies to climate change impacts in Africa: a review (PDF Download Available). Available from: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/272364792_Agricultural_adaptation_strategies_to_climate_change_impacts_in_Africa_a_review [accessed Mar 08 2018].

Alex Zizinga et.al (2017) Analysis of Farmer's Choices for Climate Change Adaptation Practices in South-Western Uganda, 1980–2009 http://www.mdpi.com/2225-1154/5/4/89

Module 5: Ecosystems Management and Restoration

5.2 The synergies and differences between CCA, DRR and EMR

Activities to print out/copy and cut for the Circles Exercise:

1. Preparing family/household survival kits for disaster situations
2. Raising existing dikes/embankments
3. Relocating to evacuation centres prior to floods/cyclones
4. Diversifying agriculture to also include both drought and flood resistant crops
5. Help coordinate distress selling of livestock (prior to drought)
6. Conduct trainings on the implications of climate change for various groups in society, including men and boys, women and girls
7. Setting up of rainwater harvesting systems
8. Setting up seed storage bank

9. Planting of trees (forestation/reforestation)
10. Conserving existing vegetation cover (forests etc.)
11. Raising of foundation of houses in coastal and flood-affected areas
12. Conserve river wetlands
13. Pre-disaster storage of relief items
14. Use seasonal forecasts to decide on the balance between planting 'normal' crops and drought or flood-tolerant types
15. Having more skype/webinar instead of physical meetings
16. Diversification of livelihood options
17. In flood-prone areas, moving households/villages to higher places
18. Desalination water plants
19. Seasonal migration
20. Integrated water management system
21. Drinking water distribution during drought

22. Mangrove conservation and planting
23. Considering more extreme weather events in participatory community risk assessments
24. Planting wind breakers
25. Awareness raising of communities on changing weather-related risks
26. Providing energy efficient cooking stoves
27. Land use planning based on projections of likely changes in flood levels
28. Use less cars and more public transport
29. Training on climate change for teachers and curriculum developers
30. Carefully planning new relief item warehouse sites
31. Building properly planned cyclone evacuation centres
32. Planting improved rice varieties that can withstand temperature change
33. School-based awareness raising on road safety
34. Introducing swimming lessons for both boys and girls in schools in flood-prone

areas

35. Water catchment area protection
36. Building improved irrigation system to use water more efficiently
37. Pre-disaster co-ordination meetings for seasonal disasters
38. Timely dissemination of seasonal forecasts
39. Contingency planning for the flood next year
40. Increased supply of drinking water
41. Development and improvement of small-scale and community irrigation systems
42. Heat wave actions plans
43. Emergency medical services for deployment to disaster areas
44. More widespread surveillance of vector-borne diseases
45. Erosion control and soil protection through tree planting
46. Relocation of people when weather warnings reach critical level
47. Seawalls and storm surge barriers

48. Enhancing existing seawalls and storm surge barriers
49. Diversification of tourism attractions and revenues
50. Shifting ski slopes to higher altitudes
51. Efficient use of drinking water
52. Development of relevant climate change learning materials
53. Building telecommunication towers to withstand extreme weather conditions
54. Protecting community water supplies against influx of flood water
55. Advocating towards authorities for reforestation of mountain slopes upriver
56. Organising community flood preparedness plans
57. Ensure that women and men's access to and understanding of early warning information is considered in any preparedness planning
58. Facilitate "household earthquake preparedness plans"
59. Protection of schools to withstand more extreme weather-related disasters
60. Upgrade existing disaster and health contingency plans for more extreme future

events

61. Organise flood early warning information flow from upriver to downriver communities

62. Advocating towards authorities for relocating schools and health clinics to higher grounds in coastal areas prone to storm surge

63. Promoting earthquake-proof building codes

64. Promote terracing in farmland on slopes

65. Cleanup of channels and dikes before rainy season

66. Communities gain better access to technical support from Agriculture extension officers to plan food security projects

67. Advocate for mandatory proper impact studies – on environment and people's vulnerability – of any proposed infrastructure projects (roads etc.)

68. Organise micro-insurance schemes to cover impacts of disasters

69. Promote equitable land tenure rights

70. Chlorinate water supply during floods

71. Community education and hygiene promotion on the risks to health during droughts and floods

72. Promote women's secure access to and control over natural resources

73. Land management legislation and activities to reduce severity of floods

74. Organise cleanup of malaria mosquito breeding grounds prior to rainy season

75. Awareness raising on proper reaction to cyclone warnings issued along coastal areas prone to storm surge

76. Engage with disaster management agencies (government and non-government) to draft multi-agency disaster contingency plans

77. Expanded rainwater harvesting

78. Adjustment of planting dates and crop varieties according to seasonal forecasts

79. Land acquisition and creation of marsh lands/wetlands as buffer against sea level rise and flooding

80. Protection of existing natural barriers (e.g. coral reefs)
81. Improved design standards and planning for roads, rails and other infrastructure to cope with changing rainfall and flood conditions
82. Changes in planting and harvesting times
83. Development of drought and flood early warning systems
84. Provide drinking water to coastal communities to combat enhanced salinity due to sea level rise
85. Using a bicycle more often
86. Use of renewable energies for generating electricity
87. Planting energy crops for generating of bio-fuels
88. Replace old lamps with LED lights
89. Greening of roofs in cities
90. Use of bio-gas

(DISASTER) RISK REDUCTION

CLIMATE CHANGE ADAPTATION

ENVIRONMENTAL MANAGEMENT

Module 5.3: IRM in practice

Case studies

Case studies Uganda:
https://library.partnersforresilience.nl/?r=167&k=2aa048d877

Case studies Kenya:
https://library.partnersforresilience.nl/?r=166&k=ec4c97ced5

Case studies Ethiopia:
https://library.partnersforresilience.nl/?r=179&k=b77d1ee6be
https://library.partnersforresilience.nl/?r=173&k=111d71340f
https://library.partnersforresilience.nl/?r=187&k=50f7721ff2
https://library.partnersforresilience.nl/?r=186&k=5464c85086
https://library.partnersforresilience.nl/?r=185&k=abb46e708a
https://library.partnersforresilience.nl/?r=184&k=2bd47e5b87
https://library.partnersforresilience.nl/?r=182&k=02a0e5a130
https://library.partnersforresilience.nl/?r=177&k=be56ec607a
https://library.partnersforresilience.nl/?r=176&k=3532769c22
https://library.partnersforresilience.nl/?r=174&k=46c41bbba1

5.4 IRM in the urban context

Background information

1. Urbanization exacerbates the effects of Hazards. Urban areas accumulates various risks - from *everyday* risks related to food insecurity, diseases, crimes, accidents, pollution, lack of sanitation and clean water to *intensive* disaster risk which can result from the exposure of highly concentrated population and assets to severe intensity hazards. Between these two extremes there is *extensive* risk, which can result from the exposure of less concentrated population and assets to lesser or moderate intensity hazards.

At continuum of risk continuum in urban areas translates into various scales of disasters - from everyday events that occur very frequently in a city but may kill or injure few people, to large disaster events that occur infrequently but often kill or Injure large numbers of people and affecting an entire city and areas beyond it. Extensive risk can translate into small or medium size disasters killing up to 9 people and affecting localized areas of a city.

2. **Disaster risk and urban poverty :** Risk factors contribute to the translation of
Poverty and everyday risk into disaster risk in the context of broader political and Economic process.

Location: Most urban locations are with good accessibility or favorable natural endowments such as a river, a coastal location or fertile volcanic soils that are associated with increased probability of hazard events e.g. landslides , cyclones and storm surges,

Concentration of people and assets: Exposure to hazards is very high in cities due to the intense concentration of people and economic values and assets in confined spaces.

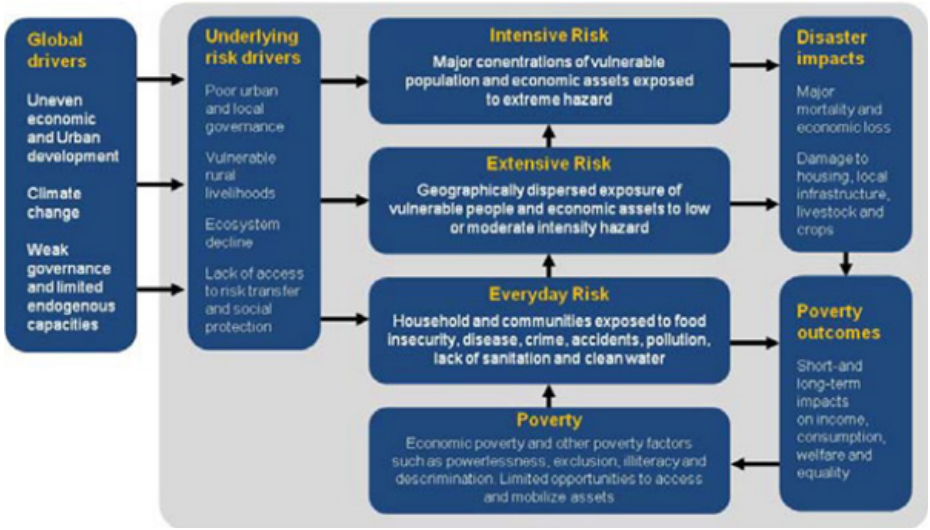
Urban poverty: Urban poverty is high in the cities mostly in of many developing countries.

Urban poor: The urban poor are among the most vulnerable in a city due to (i) limited or unstable income base, (ii) poor quality and overcrowded housing, (iii) Poor quality, inadequate or lack of urban services, (iv) inadequate access to social infrastructure such as schools, hospitals, Daycare, public transportation, etc., and, (v) limited or no safety nets such as availability of food and other basic, needs when income falls or during any crisis.

Spatial expansion in hazard prone areas: Disaster risk is increasing as cities expand into hazard prone areas. This happens either when a city has outgrown its land or whenCompetition for land intense. In these cases the urban growth must take place in new areas, such as peripheral areas, open spaces.

Human actions creating hazardous conditions: Finally, human actions can lead to environmental degradation and technological hazards. These are common in cities grappling with the challenges of urban management and governance. These include leaking sewerage pipes that either cross pollutes water or can trigger rockslides, Garbage mound slides, localized urban floods resulting from blocked drainage due to poor solid waste management or inadequate provision of drains or lack of drains are another example of hazards induced by human actions. Others could be industrial or chemical spills.

Overview of drivers of risk and impacts:



5.5 Gender and vulnerable groups in IRM

Background information

Definition: *Gender is not the biological differences between men and women, boys and girls. Gender is a social construct that defines what it means to be a man or woman, boy or girl in a given society – it carries specific roles, status and expectations within households, communities and culture. Individuals may also self-identify as neither male or female, or both male and female.*

Gender equity: *is the process of being fair to women and men. To ensure fairness, strategies and measures must often be available to compensate for women's historical and social disadvantages that prevent women and men from otherwise operating on a level playing field. Equity leads to equality.*

Gender equality: *- or equality between women and men - refers to the equal enjoyment by women, girls, boys and men of rights, opportunities, resources and rewards. A critical aspect of promoting gender equality is the empowerment of women, with a focus on identifying and redressing power imbalances. Equality does not mean that women and men are the same but that their enjoyment of rights, opportunities and life changes are not governed or limited by whether they were born female or male. https://www.care.at/images/_care_2013/expert/pdf/COE_Resources/Gender/Explanatory_Note_on_CAREs_Gender_Focus_2012.pdf/*

Social inclusion *is defined as the process of improving the terms of participation in society, particularly for people who are disadvantaged, through enhancing opportunities, access to resources, voice and respect for rights. http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/rwss/2016/chapter1.pdf*

5.5 Powerpoint

Slide 1

Slide 2

Aim:

- To understand how **personal characteristics** – gender, education, age, physical differences, wealth etc. and the intersection of those personal characteristics – may give **different vulnerabilities** and capacities in relation to **hazards** as well as the **environment** and, hence, the changing risks coming with **climate change**.

Module 6: Dialogue and advocacy for IRM

6.1 Basics of Advocacy

Background information on advocacy and lobby

Advocacy can be defined as the act of arguing in favor of something, such as a cause, idea or policy with a particular goal/target in mind.The advocacy strategy can include activities such as: articles in newspapers; feature stories about how an individual or group was helped or has benefited from the organisation or action; distribution of promotional materials, etc.
Lobbying can be defined as any attempt to influence specific legislation. This can be done in two ways: (a) CSO contacting or urging the public to contact policy makers for the purpose of proposing, supporting, or opposing legislation, or; (b) by advocating the adoption or rejection of legislation.

Types of Lobbying:

- **Grassroots lobbying:** Any attempt to influence legislation by affecting the opinion of the general public. In this case, CSO encourages the public to lobby by referring to a specific legislation and providing information to the public on how to contact decision makers including through mass media.
- **Direct lobbying:** Any attempt to influence legislation through communication with any member or employee of a legislative body, or with any other government official who may participate in the formulation of legislation. A specific activity constitutes direct lobbying if:
    - The principal purpose is to influence legislation,
    - There is reference to a specific piece of legislation (even if the legislation is not currently under consideration), and
    - A point of view is expressed.

What are the key differences between advocacy and lobbying?

- Advocacy is a broader term while lobbying is a type of advocacy - lobbying makes up a small portion of the total amount of advocacy efforts
- The goals of advocacy and lobbying are similar, but the processes are different. Advocacy is attempting to cause political action using methods such as civil education and public campaigns to influence decision-makers while lobbying is about influencing the government and its leaders.
- Lobbying involves attempts to influence specific legislation at the local and federal/national level while advocacy is focused on educating about a specific issue.
- Lobbying is, in fact, advocacy that attempts to influence the opinions of the legislators or those who are in the government.

Examples of advocacy vs. lobbying

Advocacy

- Telling your Member of Parliament how a donor grant your organization received has helped your constituents.
- Educating a Member of Parliament about the effects of a policy on your constituency.
- Inviting a Member of Parliament to visit your organization so that he/she may see firsthand how donor funding or a policy affects day-to-day operations and the difference it makes.

Lobbying

- Asking your Member of Parliament to vote for or against, or amend, introduced legislation.
- Emailing a “call to action” to your partners urging them to contact their Member of Parliament in support of action on introduced legislation or pending regulations.
- Preparing materials or organizing events in support of lobbying activities.

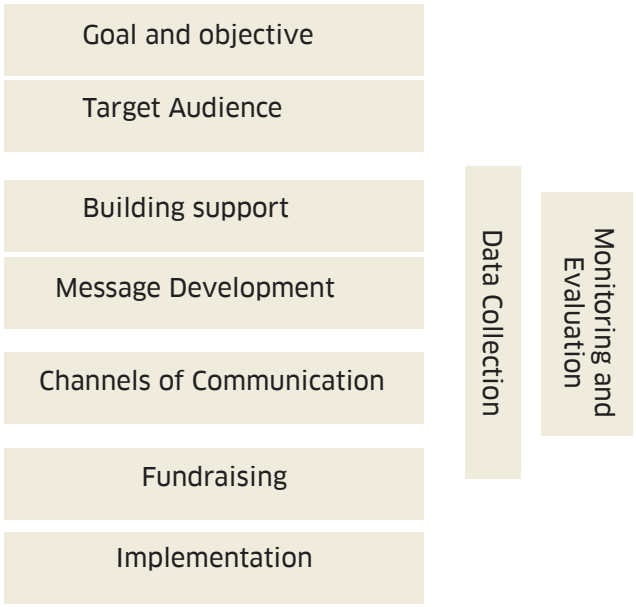
Generally it could be said that advocacy is strategic, while lobbying is tactical. The distinction between advocacy and lobbying is not always easy to describe and in most cases this does not matter. But it is important to keep the definitions in mind particularly in countries where laws limit

lobbying activities. It's important to remember that lobbying is part of a comprehensive strategy to win on an issue or achieve the policy change you want.
All lobbying is advocacy, but not all advocacy is lobbying! (Adapted from Washing Nonprofits and "The Board Advocacy Project").

6.2 Advocacy Strategies

Powerpoint

Steps of the Advocacy Strategy Development



Background information steps of the advocacy strategy

Issue - The problem that requires a policy action.
Goal and Objective - Goal: A statement of the general result you want to achieve. Objective: Incremental steps toward achieving your goal that are • specific • measurable • realistic • time-bound
Target audience - The stakeholders you are trying to influence to support your issue, e.g., parliamentarians, companies, local officials, chiefs, interest groups, ministry officials.
Building support - Building alliances with other groups, organizations, or individuals who are committed to support your issue.
Message development - Statements tailored to different audiences that define the issue, state solutions, and describe the actions that need to be taken.
Channels of communication -The means by which a message is delivered to the various target audiences, e.g., radio, television, flyers, press conferences, meetings.
Fundraising - Identify and attract resources (money, equipment, volunteers, supplies, space) to implement your advocacy campaign.
Implementation - Carry out a set of planned activities to achieve your advocacy objectives (action plan)
Data collection - Gathering, analyzing, and using appropriate quantitative and qualitative information to support each step of your campaign. THIS IS DONE IN ALL STAGES OF THE STRATEGY.
Monitoring and Evaluation - Monitoring: A process of gathering information to measure progress toward your advocacy objectives. Evaluation: A process of gathering and analyzing information to determine if the advocacy objectives have been achieved. THIS IS DONE IN ALL STAGES OF THE STRATEGY.

6.3 Identifying the Issue

Background information

Source: Knowledge Co-Creation Portal Multi-Stakeholder Partnerships
http://www.mspguide.org/tool/problem-tree
Adapted from: This description has been adapted from the ODI Toolkit, Successful Communication, A Toolkit for Researchers and Civil Society Organisations. www.odi.org/publications/5258-problem-tree-analysis.
The opportunity tree is adapted from Participatory Action Research, Theory and methods for engaged inquiry J. M. Chevalier and D. J. Buckles (2012).

Aim of the tool
Create a structural analysis of the causes and effects of an issue or problem.

When to use it?
Problem tree analysis is very useful in planning processes. It fits well in the Shared Language stage of Multi Stakeholder Platforms.

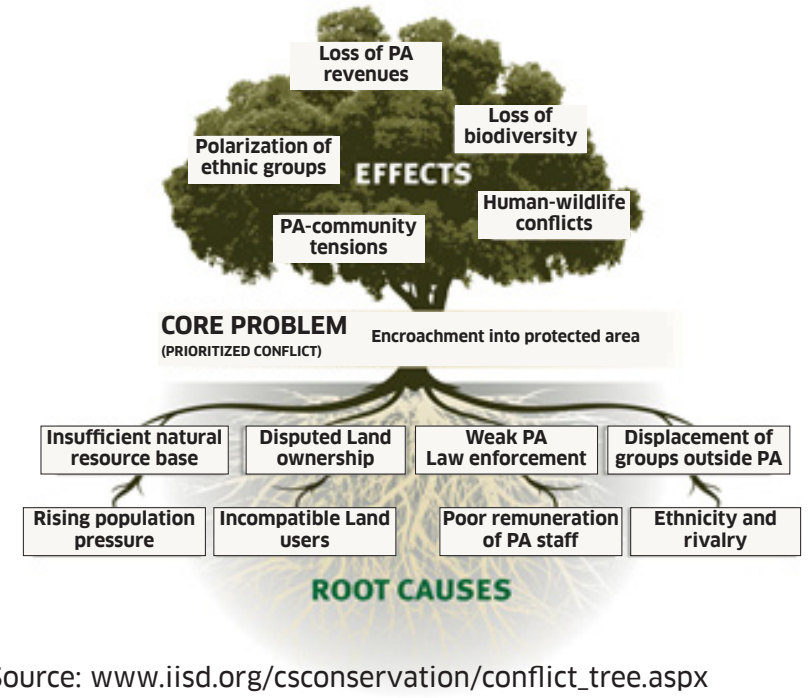
What is a Problem Tree?

Problem tree analysis (also called Situational analysis or just Problem analysis) helps to find solutions by mapping out the anatomy of cause and effect around an issue in a similar way to a Mind map, but with more structure.

Why develop a Problem Tree?
The Problem Tree structure brings several advantages:

- The problem can be broken down into manageable and definable chunks. This enables a clearer prioritisation of factors and helps focus objectives;
- There is more understanding of the problem and its often interconnected and sometimes contradictory causes. This is often the first step in finding win-win solutions;
- It identifies the central issues and arguments, and can help establish who and what the political actors and processes are at each stage;
- It can help establish whether further information, evidence or resources are needed to make a strong case, or build a convincing solution;
- Present issues – rather than apparent, future or past issues – are dealt with and identified;

The process of analysis often helps build a shared sense of understanding, purpose and action.
Example of a problem tree (via: www.iisd.org/csconservation/conflict_tree.aspx):



Source: www.iisd.org/csconservation/conflict_tree.aspx

6.4 Stakeholder Analysis

Background information

Who are stakeholders? http://www1.worldbank.org/publicsector/anticorrupt/PoliticalEconomy/PDFversion.pdf

- Any individual, community, group, or organization with the potential to influence a program/initiative positively or negatively, by its actions, statements, or other behavior.
- Any individual, community, group, or organization with an interest in the outcome of a program/policy initiative as a result of being affected positively or negatively by its outcome.
- Stakeholders are typically diverse and numerous.

What is Stakeholder Analysis?
http://www1.worldbank.org/publicsector/anticorrupt/PoliticalEconomy/PDFversion.pdf

- A methodology to facilitate institutional and policy reform processes by accounting for and often incorporating the needs of those who have a 'stake' or an interest in the reforms under consideration
- Why is it important to do stakeholder analysis?
- Its Identifies the interests of all stakeholders who may either affect or be affected by the proposed program/initiative
- Uncovers potential conflicts or risks that could jeopardize the feasibility of the program/initiative
- Disaggregates larger groupings to capture the concerns of less powerful (e.g. women. PWDs) or marginalized (ethnic minorities)
- Ensures that the policy doesn't overlook or sidestep negative consequences ("Do No Harm" principle)
- Identifies potential participants for a collaborative policy formulation, implementation and monitoring process
- Analyzes key existing relationships (or opportunities to build new ones) that will facilitate implementation of the proposed policy processes

6.5 Developing Key Messages

Powerpoint

Background information on formulating key messages

From: http://www.policyproject.com/pubs/AdvocacyManual.pdf

"Messages: Informing, Persuading, and Moving to Action Background Notes
In today's society, we are bombarded daily by messages.
The intent of the message may be to sell us a product, educate us in some way, or change our opinion about an issue. An advocacy communication strategy follows many of the same principles as an advertising or social marketing campaign. It is essential to know your audience well and to deliver a concise, consistent message that is tailored to your audience's interests. Most people shape their messages to the needs and interests of a particular audience as a matter of common sense.
In other words, the message communicated to an educator stressing the inclusion of family planning in a family life education program would differ from the family planning message transmitted to officials in the Ministry of Health.

Audience research—particularly qualitative research such as focus group discussions and in-depth interviews—helps identify appropriate messages for various policy audiences. Whoever the target audience may be, it is important to remember three other points about messages. First, there should ideally be only one main point communicated or, if that is not possible, two or three at the most. It is better to leave people with a clear idea of one message than to confuse or overwhelm them with too many messages.
Second, messages should always be pretested with representatives of the audience to ensure that the message sent is the one received. When a network develops an advocacy message directed toward the Minister of Health, for example, it is always useful to practice delivering the message to a supportive Ministry official as a test run. The Ministry official, who is professionally close to the Minister, may offer valuable feedback about how

the message is interpreted. Third, the message should not only persuade through valid data and sound logic, but it should also describe the action the audience is being encouraged to take. The audience needs to know clearly what it is you want it to do, e.g., include reproductive health in the national health insurance package, support an advocacy campaign by attending a rally on the steps of Parliament. This unit addresses the essential components of a message–content, language, messenger/source, format, and time/place of delivery. Participants are asked to apply what they know about advocacy message development through role-play scenarios with decision makers.

6.6 Advocacy planning: From strategy to action

Action Plan Format

Targeted Stakeholder	Action / behavior required from stakeholder to achieve advocacy goal	Activities/ Channels of Communication to persuade him/her (e.g. meeting, event, radio, newspaper, twitter, Facebook)	Time line	Who is responsible	Who will also be involved	Who needs to be updated on progress and how will they be updated?
Add rows for more stakeholders targeted						

6.7 Monitoring and Evaluation

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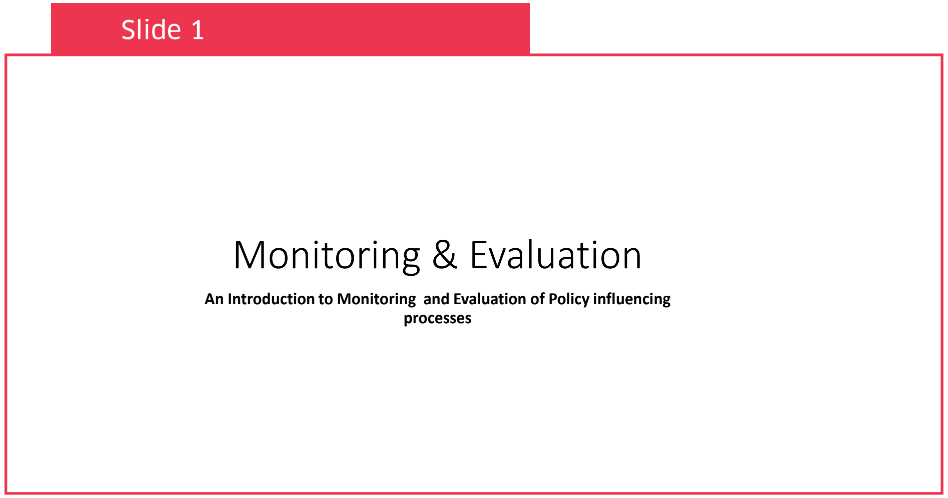

Monitoring and Evaluation are very useful. They are the tool to help us to know what has been achieved and what should have been done. It is a very demanding, but necessary work to do. It is one of the vital parts of the advocacy work.

Slide 2

Evaluation

- Evaluation is "the periodic assessment of the relevance, performance, efficiency and impact of a piece of work with respect to its stated objectives and is usually carried out at some significant stage in the PfR project's development, e.g. at the end of a planning period, as the project moves to a new phase, or in response to a particular critical issue" (Ibid.).

Its ultimate purpose is to:

- draw lessons from experience in order to improve the quality of an advocacy campaign;
- improve the design of future campaigns; and
- demonstrate the PfR's merits to supporters, policymakers, donors, allies.

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Slide 4

Challenges of monitoring & evaluating advocacy

- Atribution problem (It can be very difficult to determine the links between policy influencing activities and outputs)
- Subjectivity & need to change objectives along the way due to external factors.
- Practical problems that constrain the production and use of knowledge about influencing activities. (Staff carrying out influencing work rarely have the time or resources to conduct robust M&E, and individual and institutional capacity is limited in many organizations)

Monitoring and evaluating policy influencing work, however, presents some particular challenges and complexities. These challenges are, in general, integral to policy influencing work and not specific to one particular sector or approach to policy influence. Although they have been well documented and described elsewhere, they provide a useful starting point for looking at approaches to the M&E of policy influence.

First, there are a range of conceptual and technical challenges. It can be very difficult to determine the links between policy influencing activities and outputs, and any change (or stasis) in policy. Policy change is highly complex and proceeds in anything but a 'linear' or 'rational' fashion, with policy processes shaped by a multitude of interacting forces and actors. This makes it almost impossible to predict with confidence the likely consequences of a set of activities on policy, and extremely difficult to pin down the full effect of actions even after the event.
This is about a difficulty in establishing causality, and is known as the 'attribution problem', which has a long history in the field of evaluation (Iverson, 2003).

Second, the nature of policy influencing work presents further challenges to more traditional M&E approaches. 'Outright success' in terms of achieving the specific changes that were sought is rare, with some objectives modified

or jettisoned along the way. There is an element of subjectivity in whether gains were significant, consistent with the wider goals of an organization or campaign, or co-opted. In other words, the policy context is likely to change of its own accord and influencing objectives may need to be altered in reaction to this or to other external forces. This means that objectives formulated at the outset of influencing work may not be the best yardstick against which to judge its progress. Policy changes tend to occur over long timeframes that may not be suitable to measurement in the usual rhythms of projects and evaluations in aid agencies. In addition, much influencing work and advocacy is most effective when carried out in alliances, coalitions and networks, which presents difficulties in judging the specific contribution of one organization to a change (even after some kind of judgement about contribution or attribution has been made).

Third, there are further practical problems that constrain the production and use of knowledge about influencing activities. Staff carrying out influencing work rarely have the time or resources to conduct robust M&E, and there tend to be further problems of M&E capacity at the individual and institutional level in many organizations that work in advocacy and other influencing activities. This can also result in objectives and goals that are not clearly defined or communicated from the outset. Policy influencing involves political and sometimes highly conflicting processes, leading to difficulties in determining how best to solicit or interpret the accounts of different actors. Influencing work is often unique, rarely repeated or replicated and, even worse, there are incentives against the sharing of 'good practice'.
These challenges present serious difficulties for strategic decisions, for the adaptation of implementation, and for reporting to funders about where their money has gone. There are, however, a number of frameworks and approaches to help users overcome the conceptual and technical difficulties.

The vast majority of these involve, either explicitly or implicitly, developing a 'theory of change' (ToC). This is referred to in various ways, such as a 'logical model', 'programme theory' or 'roadmap', but it is, basically, a model of how the policy influencing activities are envisaged to result in the desired changes in policy or in people's lives (Whelan, 2008).
A ToC is an essential tool for the M&E of policy influence, not only for improving policy influencing projects and enhancing decision-making, but also for accountability and reporting to stakeholders external to the programme.

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The Partners for Resilience(PfR) program is aimed at influencing policy and practices to integrate Integrated Risk Management (IRM) approach and its principles. As a policy process, monitoring and evaluation of policy and practice influencing processes are liable to the challenges. Therefore, use of theory of changes as tool for M&E is crucial. The most widely used and effective theory of changes and approaches that help PfR's M&E activities to come up with valuable information are **Dimensions of influence approach** and **Actor-centered theories.**

Slide 5

Using Theories of Change for Advocacy

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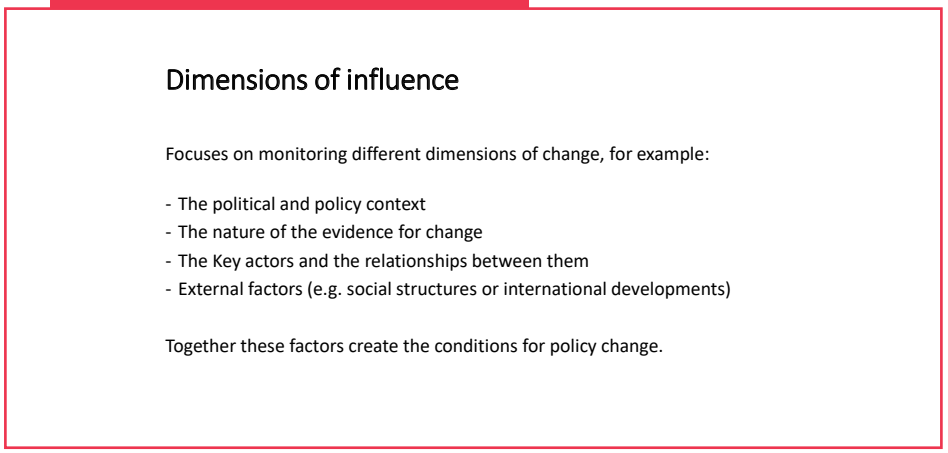
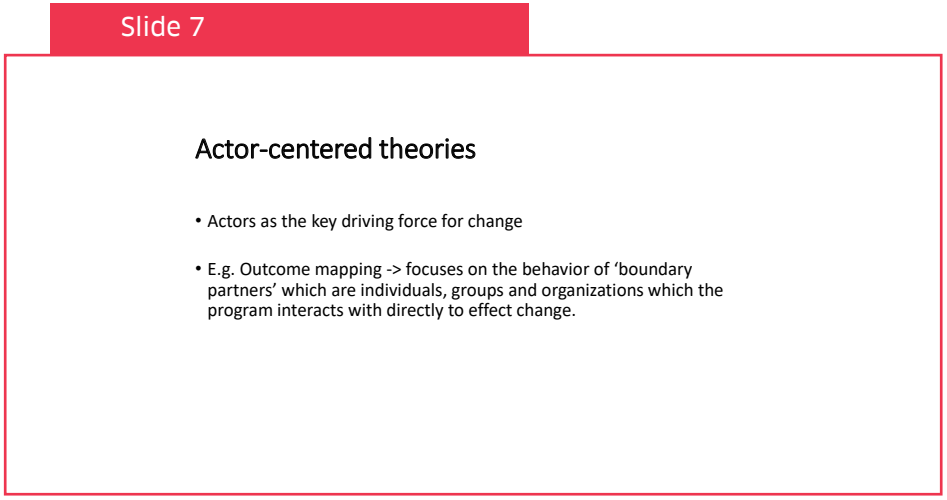
Slide 6



This approach looks at the different dimensions of change. This involves a set of areas of outcomes, each of which is supposed to be important in contributing towards policy influence. For example the 'context-evidence-links' framework developed by the RAPID team at Overseas Development Institute(ODI) specifies four key areas that are crucial in shaping the influence of evidence or researchers on policy: the political and policy context, the nature of the evidence, the key actors and the relationships and networks between them, and external factors, such as social structures or international forces (Court et al., 2005). These represent various changes that, taken together, help create the conditions for policy change. Again, they highlight areas that can be monitored or evaluated.
RAPID: Research and Policy in Development

Slide 7



Actor-centered theories
Some frameworks focus on the behavior change of different actors. Actors are seen as the key driving force for change, with policy-making largely dependent on policy actors and networks, their behavior, relationships, perspectives and political interests. Gearing ToCs around actors provides a clear, concrete focus for M&E activities, namely the behavior changes of those actors. One framework that structures M&E in this way is Outcome Mapping, which focuses M&E activities on the behavior of a programme's 'boundary partners' – 'those individuals, groups, and organizations with whom the program interacts directly to effect change' (Smutylo, 2001). Another is Rick Davies's 'Social Framework', which combines elements of the 'causal chain', mapping out a pathway to change through a series of actors and their relationships to each other (Davies, 2008
There are quite large number of approaches and methodologies in terms of what information is collected, when and how for the M&E of policy influence. These specifics will be based on the ToC for any particular policy influencing project. Below are provided the best approaches and methodologies.

Slide 8

Evaluating uptake and use

- This approach involves looking at the extent to which research or advice is visibly 'picked up' and used by others, such as being cited in a government policy paper or mentioned in a newspaper

Tools:

- ***Uptake logs:*** *this is simply a log (perhaps an email inbox or database) where comments, anecdotes and examples of 'uptake' or influence are recorded.*
- ***New areas for citation analysis****: a more proactive approach to understanding uptake and use is citation analysis. In the academic field, this involves tracking citations in academic journals, but this can be expanded to cover other more policy-relevant areas such as websites, newspapers, international standards, training manuals, policy documents and operational guidelines.*
- ***User surveys****: large-scale questionnaires or smaller scale focus groups can be used to ascertain how much, and in what way, target audiences use and value the outputs provided.*

Slide 9

Time to practice!

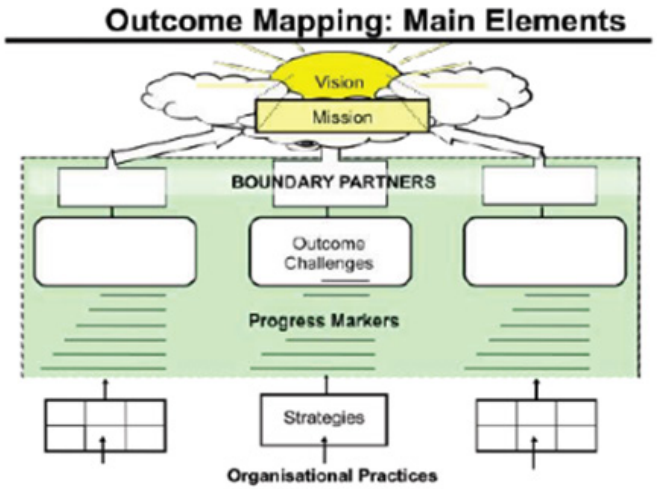
Outcome framework

Country: Ethiopia					
Program/ project	Stakeholder group	Progress marker type	Progress marker title	When?	Description
PfR Program	Regional Disaster Risk Reduction Bureau	Expect	Actively participating in PfR stakeholder events (attendance, questions and comments, dialogue).		
			Participating in discussions and reflections on the research that reflects their knowledge of the issue and the needs of men and women around the issue.		
			Sharing climate information with the public, and with information and venues / delivery appropriate for men and women.		
			Inviting researchers to briefings.		
			Actively participating in PfR stakeholder events (attendance, questions and comments, dialogue).		
		Like to see	Demonstrating planning which mainstreamed IRM		
			Organizing capacity building and communications for their own staff around IRM.		
			Demanding climate change related research that addresses both women's and men's needs. Demanding climate change related research that addresses both women's and men's needs.		
			Inviting PfR researchers or other key stakeholders for policy consultation, particularly for policy that addresses gender equality in climate change.		
			Using PfR research to update their position in international negotiations.		
			Using PfR research to influence and formulate policies and investments, particularly those that are gender-just.		
		Love to see	Influencing external actors (i.e. donors) and using research findings to do so.		

			Using research findings to take policy action / propose, agree and pass laws, mainstream and institutionalize IRM.		
			hanging budget allocations to increase funding for IRM sensitive projects and plans that meets the needs of both men and women equally.		

6.7 Background information

Outcome Mapping Methodology: process steps.



The above picture, illustrates the elements of the Outcome Mapping methodology. In practising Outcome Mapping in the MTR, the following steps are followed;

1. Clarifying Vision and Mission:
First steps in practising outcome mapping is clarifying the overall goals of the cooperation system (in this case ILC) at stake. The vision is the desired societal change that the cooperation system would like to see realised. It is acknowledged that the cooperation system can not make this vision happen on its own, but at best make a contribution to this. This envisaged contribution is the mission of the cooperation system.

In this particular MTR, the vision and mission are already articulated in the Strategic Framework and are taken as a given.

2. Development of Actor map.
As Outcome Mapping is a actor-centred method, aimed at mapping behavioural change of selected actors, first step is a clear identification of the actors who will be the subject for mapping change in behaviour. The actor-map illustrates the connections between the organisations / entities that are involved in the change process in pursuit of the overall mission and vision. In this actor map, so-called boundary partners are identified, which are partners / target audiences outside the scope of control, but inside the scope of influence, through which the cooperation system hopes to realise its desired goals.

Subsequently the most import boundary partners are identified (i.e. those that can be expected to make the biggest difference in the desired change process) as subject for measuring change in behaviour.

3. Formulation of Outcome Challenges.
Next step is the formulation of so-called outcome challenges per selected boundary partner. The outcome challenge

- ✓ Describes behavioural changes
- ✓ About a single boundary partner
- ✓ Sets out the ideal behavioural changes
- ✓ Describes the boundary partner's contributions to the vision

In other words, this outcome challenge describes the ultimate desired behaviour of the selected boundary partner, which in fact is the highest result level being pursued at the level of this particular actor.

4. Development of the Progress Markers in the "ladder of change".
With the outcome challenge as the highest and most ambitious step in the ladder of change, so-called progress markers are formulated.

Progress markers are:

- ✓ A graduated set of statements describing a progression of changed behaviours in the boundary partner
- ✓ Describe changes in actions, activities and relationships leading to the ideal outcome
- ✓ Articulate the complexity of the change process

Subsequent progress markers are supposed to show recognizable gradual change from initial to more profound changes in behaviour in a single boundary partner. Together the progress markers become a "ladder of change" moving from behaviour that we expect to see to what we like to see and ultimately to what we love to see (see also picture below).

5. Identification of illustrative signs to distinguish levels of behaviour.
Outcome Mapping is designed to provide an M&E system that does justice to the unpredictable non-linear nature of social change processes. In practice, this means looking at reality and recognising signs that illustrate a particular level of behaviour (ie. progress marker). Even though these signs can not be predicted, in M&E processes where data collection is carried out by more than one person, it is helpful to identify "illustrative" signs that data collectors can keep in mind while mapping and categorising actual behaviour. Using such signs adds to the transparency of the process, while it also helps in creating uniformity in 'assessing / categorising' reality on the ladder of change.

It is however of key importance that data collectors do not treat the signs as "check-lists" but keep an open mind in mapping reality, as changes in behaviour most likely will be, at least partly, manifested in unexpected different ways / signs.

6.8 Policy Advocacy

Powerpoint

Policy cycle phases and corresponding advocacy actions

Policy Cycle	Integrated Policy Roles
Agenda setting	•bring problems of public concern onto agenda by defining the problems priorities, risks, and opportunities •Harmonize the interests of different stakeholders; • Manage the entry of an issue onto the agenda; and • Seek policy windows.
Policy Formulation	•develop feasible options that will address the root causes of the problems Set up participatory, inter-agency mechanisms; • Set policy objectives; • Formulate policy options.
Decision-Making	•adopt options that best meet the legal criteria and are acceptable to stakeholders •Choose criteria for decision-making; • Establish a baseline; • Assess and compare policy options; and • Make an informed decision.
Implementation	•adopt options that meet legal criteria and are acceptable to stakeholders •Consider implementation challenges throughout the policy cycle; • Get organized and operational fast; • Mobilize resources proactively; and • Manage stakeholder dynamics.
Evaluation	•review implementation of the adopted policies against pre-selected objectives as well as criteria reflecting legal considerations •Specify the type, scope, and criteria of evaluation; • Collect data and isolate policy effects; • Conduct Participatory Monitoring and Evaluation (PME); and • Ensure policy learning.

IRM Policy Exercise

Copy/print the policy slips for the exercise or use policies/programmes participants encounter in their daily work.

International level	
SDGs	Paris Agreement
Sendai framework	Global Framework for Climate Services (WMO)
UN Global Compact	Ramsar Agreement
National level	National Adaptation Fund Guidelines
National Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction	Gender Equality and Equity policy under DRR law
Climate Change Law	National DRR Law
National regulatory framework of wetlands	Wetlands Conservation and Management Rules
National Rural Employment Guarantee Act	National Disaster Management Law
Minimum Service Standards on Disaster Management	National Adaptation Plan on Climate Change
Mid-Term City Development Plan	National Medium-Term Development Plan 2015-2019
National action plan on the implementation of the national strategy for disaster risk reduction	National Medium-Term Development Plan 2015-2019
River Basin Strategy	Methodological Guidelines for the Reduction of Risk
National wetland policy	Climate Change Law
Environment and Natural Resources Law	National Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction
National Sustainable Development Plan	Land Use Law
National Action Plan for the integrated management of water resources	National Policy on the Protection of the Environment
Sub-national level	
Strategic plan for government guidelines to manage wetlands ecosystems	Mangrove national strategy
Ministerial Joint agreement on Ecosystem Restoration Cost	Peatland restoration guidelines
Local regulation on mangrove ecosystem management	District watershed management plan
Local Ordinance on Environmental Degradation	Local Climate Change Action Plan
Regional Multi Risk Contingency Plan	Regional Flood and Drought Contingency Plans
Interagency Strategic Agenda on Education	Water Policy
Wetlands, River banks, Lake Shores and Sea shore Management Regulations	Environmental Assessment Regulation
Law on the management of fisheries and aquaculture	Strategic framework for economic and sustainable development
Law on Access to Agriculture Land	Law on Fisheries
Law on Water	National Strategy on Climate Change
Crop diversification programme	Life insurance policy
Health insurance policy	Land ownership policy
Displacement/rehabilitation guidelines	Relief and response policy
Irrigation programme (agriculture sector)	Afforestation programme
Decentralised energy programme	Village Development Plan

6.9 IRM Law and Policy Checklist

Will be available in PfR library in early 2019.

www.partnersforresilience.nl

Partners for Resilience (PfR) is an alliance of the Netherlands Red Cross (lead agency), CARE Netherlands, Cordaid, the Red Cross/Red Crescent Climate Centre, and Wetlands International. The name originates in the fundamental belief of its five members in the central role of resilience as the way to deal effectively with disasters. This means they use an integrated approach to mitigate disaster risk and enhance livelihoods, particularly by addressing climate change and ecosystem management and restoration. The Partners for Resilience programme is supported by the Dutch Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

PARTNERS FOR RESILIENCE