Applying a Gender Lens to Climate Risk Finance and Insurance
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On behalf of the InsuResilience Global Partnership Secretariat

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### List of Abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AFI</td>
<td>Alliance for Financial Inclusion</td>
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<td>A2ii</td>
<td>Access to Insurance Initiative</td>
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<tr>
<td>BMZ</td>
<td>The Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ)</td>
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<td>COP</td>
<td>Conference of the Parties</td>
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<td>CRI</td>
<td>Climate Risk Insurance</td>
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<td>FAS</td>
<td>Financial Access Survey</td>
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<td>FSP</td>
<td>Financial Service Provider</td>
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<td>G7</td>
<td>Group of Seven</td>
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<td>G20</td>
<td>Group of Twenty</td>
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<td>GAP</td>
<td>Gender Action Plan</td>
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<td>GCF</td>
<td>Green Climate Fund</td>
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<td>GEF</td>
<td>Global Environment Facility</td>
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<td>GPFi</td>
<td>G20 Global Partnership for Financial Inclusion</td>
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<td>GRiF</td>
<td>Global Risk Financing Facility</td>
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<tr>
<td>HLCG</td>
<td>High Level Consultative Group</td>
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<td>IAIS</td>
<td>International Association of Insurance Supervisors</td>
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<td>IIS</td>
<td>International Insurance Society</td>
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<td>IFC</td>
<td>International Finance Corporation</td>
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<td>IMF</td>
<td>International Monetary Fund</td>
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<td>IPCC</td>
<td>Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change</td>
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<td>KYC</td>
<td>Know Your Customer</td>
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<td>LWPG</td>
<td>The Lima Work Programme on Gender</td>
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<td>NCs</td>
<td>National Communications</td>
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<td>NAMAs</td>
<td>Nationally appropriate mitigation actions</td>
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<td>NAPs</td>
<td>National adaptation plans</td>
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<tr>
<td>PCRAFI</td>
<td>Pacific Catastrophe Risk Assessment and Financing Initiative</td>
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<tr>
<td>REDD+</td>
<td>Reducing emissions from deforestation and forest degradation</td>
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<td>SDGs</td>
<td>Sustainable Development Goals</td>
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<tr>
<td>TNAs</td>
<td>Technology needs assessments</td>
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<td>UNFCCC</td>
<td>United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change</td>
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<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations International Children’s Emergency Fund</td>
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<td>UN Women</td>
<td>United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women</td>
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<td>V20</td>
<td>Vulnerable Twenty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WG</td>
<td>Working Group</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Content

1. Introduction ................................................................................. 6
2. The Gender Context of Climate Risk Insurance ................................. 8
3. The Policy Context of Gender-sensitive Climate Risk Insurance .......... 14
4. Integrating Gender into Climate Risk Insurance Models ....................... 21
5. Stocktake of Existing Gender Considerations in Climate Risk Insurance Examples ........................................................... 22
6. Key Findings and Recommendations .................................................. 30

   Endnotes ................................................................................... 34
   References .................................................................................. 36
   Weblinks ................................................................................... 42
1. Introduction

Increasing climate risks require new adaptation and resilience building mechanisms for women and men. In October 2018, the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) called for immediate and urgent action to avoid the world suffering from catastrophic effects of climate change. If global temperatures exceed the Paris Agreement goal of global warming less than 1.5°C compared to pre-industrial levels, the earth will face an increase in extreme weather; such as higher temperatures, an increase in the frequency, intensity and/or amount of precipitation, and the intensity of droughts. The planet is already 1°C above pre-industrial temperatures and witnessing extreme and chaotic weather. The resulting disasters have significant economic and social impacts. Annual economic losses are calculated at more than US$300 billion, rising to US$520 billion/year when factoring in a loss of consumption and a drop in wellbeing, plummeting 26 million people into poverty each year. Consequently, despite greater mitigation efforts, some climate change impacts are unavoidable, and climate risk management strategies are urgently required. As a result, adaptation and resilience building mechanisms remain of the utmost importance in order to help the most vulnerable sectors, regions and communities cope with these climatic risks and unexpected shocks.

International climate change experts and frameworks are calling for a gender-sensitive approach to mitigation actions and adaptive responses. Globally, approximately 654.9 million people live on less than US$1.90 a day and slightly more than half of these people are women. The world’s poorest are more likely to live in natural catastrophe areas and in turn are more vulnerable to the impacts of climate change related natural disasters. In this context, the IPCC has acknowledged differential vulnerabilities and exposure to climate change stem from non-climatic factors, including multidimensional inequalities. They recognise that social processes result in these inequalities, such as discrimination on the basis of gender, which shape differential risks from climate change. Moreover, weather events and climate-related disasters can contribute to the complex range of drivers that increase gender inequality. As such, parties to the international treaties of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), the Kyoto Protocol and Paris Agreement recognise that women and men can face differential climate change vulnerabilities, risks and impacts based on their gender, with implications for their livelihoods and wellbeing. Therefore, mitigation actions also need to be gender-sensitive. A ‘Gender Action Plan (GAP)’ was adopted at COP23. It acknowledged the influence of these dynamics on climate policy and called for gender differences to be considered for increasing climate resilience and adaptive responses especially in the case of climate risk insurance.

Gender-sensitive climate risk insurance (CRI) has the potential to play a role in adaptation as part of a wider risk management strategy. CRI is a mandatory or voluntary contract that is legally binding and regulated, in which a government, organization, or individual (the insured) transfers the monetary risk for an agreed upon value (the sum insured) of a potential weather event occurring over a specified period of time to another party (the insurer) in exchange for the advanced payment of premium. There are various public, private and public-private models of CRI and many efforts have been made to increase access to and usage of CRI that can provide some degree of risk protection for affected populations, communities and individuals. In its business models gender-sensitive CRI acknowledges the gender differential vulnerabilities to climate change between men and women due to the dynamics of socially constructed behaviours, norms and relationships, and considers evidence of factors that can result in gender differences in climate change vulnerabilities, risks and impacts, as well as access and usage of insurance.

Box 1

Key Definitions

Gender refers to the social relations between men and women, which is socially constructed and can change over time and from place to place.

Gender analysis is defined by the UNFCCC as utilizing a combination of qualitative and quantitative data in order to understand if, how and why women and men are affected differently within a particular context or sector.

Gender-sensitive CRI acknowledges the gender differential vulnerabilities to climate change between men and women due to the dynamics of socially constructed behaviours, norms and relationships, and considers evidence of factors that can result in gender differences in climate change vulnerabilities, risks and impacts, as well as access and usage of insurance.
as a climate risk management strategy. In doing so, it can strengthen resilience of developing countries and protect the lives and livelihoods of the poor and vulnerable — many of whom are women — against the unavoidable immediate impacts as well as long-term consequences of disasters associated with climate change.15

There is a need to increase access to CRI solutions among vulnerable populations, especially women. Effective and efficient CRI solutions require acknowledging gender differences between women and men, with implications for protection needs. They also require accounting for the gender-gap in financial inclusion, specifically insurance access and usage. The hardest hit countries, populations and individuals are least likely to have access to insurance, or face barriers in its access and usage. Indeed, insurer Swiss Re suggests that globally over the last ten years only about 30% of catastrophe losses have been covered by insurance.16 Currently, only approximately 100 million people in Africa, Asia and Latin America are covered by CRI schemes.17 There is no sex-disaggregated data on individuals in national catastrophe areas with insurance protection, but it can be assumed that there is a gender gap in a context where globally approximately 980 million women18 are excluded from the formal financial system, with a 9% gender gap in financial access across developing economies.19 Since women are more affected by climate risk events due to a complex range of interacting factors including cross-cutting social norms (see section 2), CRI coverage has the potential to more positively impact women than men. This is in the wider context where the women’s insurance market opportunity is estimated to reach US$1.45 and US$1.7 trillion in insurance premiums by 2030.20

A consideration of the gender dimensions of CRI is essential for delivering on the InsuResilience Global Partnership’s vision. Its vision is “to strengthen the resilience of developing countries and protect the lives and livelihoods of poor and vulnerable people against the impacts of disasters by enabling faster, more reliable and cost-effective responses to disasters.” There is a clear case for the Partnership to focus on gender dimensions of CRI, given that women are disproportionately represented in poor and vulnerable populations, impacted by climate change and excluded from the formal financial system. Furthermore, members to the Partnership are committed to the Agenda 2030’s Sustainable Development Goals21 including those relevant to poverty, climate change, gender equality and financial inclusion. Most recently, its G7 members have reinforced this commitment to gender equality through the Charlevoix G7 Summit Communiqué and endorsement of the Charlevoix Commitment on Equality and Economic Growth.22 They pledge to “advance gender equality... ensure better access to financial resources” as well as to “support initiatives to ensure women’s equal access to ...resources and finance.”23

In preparation for the convening of the Partnership and the High Level Consultative Group (HLCG) at the COP 24 Meeting,24 the Partnership Secretariat has commissioned this background paper. This paper aims, to explore the link between gender and disaster risk financing and insurance — with special focus on CRI — and potential challenges and opportunities for women; provide a stock take of existing CRI schemes that incorporate gender; and set out recommendations on how to further mainstream this topic within the Partnership.
2. The Gender Context of Climate Risk Insurance

THE CHALLENGE: WOMEN AND GIRLS ARE INCREASINGLY MORE VULNERABLE TO THE IMPACTS OF CLIMATE CHANGE FOR MULTIPLE INTERACTING REASONS.\(^{16,17}\)

Disasters generally hit women harder than men. Women’s mortality due to natural disasters, including droughts, floods, and storms, is higher than men’s.\(^{18}\) Data on specific disasters illustrates the gender differences in mortality rates. For instance, women represented more than 70% of the dead from the 2004 Asian tsunami,\(^{19}\) 61% of the deaths in the 2008 cyclone Nargis in Myanmar, and 91% of the deaths in the 1991 cyclone in Bangladesh.\(^{20,21}\) Further, UNICEF estimates that women and children represented more than three quarters of those displaced in 2007 when an estimated 1.5 million people were left homeless due to rains and flooding in 18 African countries.\(^{22}\) Indeed, it is estimated that women and children are 14 times more likely to die than men during natural disasters.\(^{23}\)

Social norms and unconscious bias can result in women receiving less support and suffering more, including from gender-based violence, in the aftermath of a disaster. The London School of Economics analysed disasters in 141 countries and found that boys are likely to receive preferential treatment in rescue efforts. It found that in the aftermath of disasters, women and girls suffer more from shortages of food and from the lack of privacy and safety of toilet and bathing facilities, and sleeping arrangements.\(^{24}\) Gender based violence has the potential to increase during periods of emergency as families and communities are displaced and lives are disrupted. For example, in 2011 there was a 300% increase in new domestic violence cases reported in one centre after two tropical cyclones hit Tafe Province in Vietnam.\(^{25}\)

Women’s child bearing role can increase their morbidity resulting from climate change impacts. Due to biological differences related to pregnancy and childbirth, women can be more vulnerable to environmental hazards and infectious diseases resulting from climate change.\(^{26}\) More broadly, gender influences susceptibility to extreme heat and so biological differences between women and men can result in gender differential climate change impacts on health.\(^{27}\) Moreover, when a disaster hits, women generally prioritize their children’s safety over their own.

Women are poorer with lower levels of economic participation resulting in greater vulnerability to climate change. UN Women state that it is difficult to establish if women are, across the board, more likely to live in poverty than men, due to a lack of sex-disaggregated data. However, women are more likely than men to live in the poorest households, in 41 out of 75 countries researched with an even greater risk of poverty among separated women, widows, and single mothers, including heads of household without a male partner.\(^{28}\) As such, women are disproportionately represented within scope of the target population of the Partnership.\(^{29}\) ILO data suggests that the labour force participation rates (LFPR) of women are lower than male rates in all regions and almost every country of the world.\(^{30}\) This is a result of multiple interacting factors including gender discriminatory laws and social norms related to caring responsibilities. For example, in its latest research the World Bank Group’s Women Business and the Law 2018 found that 104 economies still have laws preventing women from working in specific jobs.\(^{31}\) When women do work, in many countries it is more likely in the informal sector. For example, women are indeed more exposed to informal employment in more than 90% of sub-Saharan African countries.\(^{42}\)

“WOMEN ARE DISPROPORTIONATELY AFFECTED BY CLIMATE CHANGE IMPACTS SUCH AS DROUGHTS, FLOODS AND OTHER EXTREME WEATHER EVENTS. THEY ALSO HAVE A CRITICAL ROLE IN COMBATTING CLIMATE CHANGE, BUT NEED TO BE BETTER REPRESENTED AT ALL LEVELS IN THE DECISION-MAKING. EMPOWERING WOMEN WILL BE A SIGNIFICANT FACTOR IN MEETING THE CLIMATE CHALLENGE.”

CHRISTIANA FIGUERES, FORMER UNFCCC EXECUTIVE SECRETARY\(^{43}\)
Women’s economic activity is concentrated in the agricultural sector, which is the hardest hit by climate change. Women make up half of the agricultural labour force or more in the least developing countries. For instance, they make up over 60% of all working people engaged in agriculture in Southern Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa. A range of factors contribute to the differences in climate change vulnerabilities and coping capacities of men and women working in agriculture including: gender specific roles in the value chain, poorer agricultural yields, and limitations in ownership and use rights over resources (e.g. land, water, livestock, grazing and fisheries), as well as in access to finance and technology. For example, women receive less than 10% of the credit granted to smallholder farmers in Africa and without financial resources, women farmers cannot buy the crucial inputs needed to adapt to environmental changes, such as new varieties of plant types and animal breeds intended for higher drought or heat tolerance, and new agricultural technologies.

Women’s adaptive capacity can be lower. Women’s capacity to accommodate their lifestyle changes due to shifts in weather conditions is weaker because they have lower levels of education, skills and access to information that can support their adaptive capacity. Higher rates of illiteracy among women and girls, as well as, lower levels of access to information can exacerbate exposure to climate risk. Literacy levels remain lower for women despite the fact that mean years of education have increased faster for women than for men in most regions, leading to narrowing gender gaps in education. For example, in India, women often have less access to critical climate data and information on weather alerts than men. In addition, girls may not have had the same opportunities to develop their survival skills, such as swimming, compared to their male counterparts. Factors including mobility and time constraints due to unpaid care responsibilities may restrict women’s access to participation and information including on safety measures for housing, or new agricultural technologies. Furthermore, there is a gender gap in women’s access to mobile and other technologies. For instance, women in low- and middle-income countries are, on average, 10% less likely to own a mobile phone than men, which translates into 184 million fewer women owning mobile phones. Consequently, women may face barriers in paying for CRI premiums via mobile distribution channels. Overall, these factors can compromise women’s capacity to diversify into alternative livelihoods or increase their resilience within the agricultural sector and more generally.

Women disproportionately shoulder greater responsibility for unpaid care work with implications for adaptation. Preserving livelihoods in a changing climate comes at a greater cost to women. In many of the world’s poorest countries social norms dictate that women and girls play the primary role in household food production and care work. Across 66 countries covering two-thirds of the world’s people, women take on an extra ten or more weeks per year of unpaid care work in countries where the care load is heavy and most unequal. They tend to be more directly reliant on natural resources and are particularly vulnerable as resources become scarce. For instance, in drought-prone regions affected by desertification, the time for water and fuel collection increases as women and girls have little option but to travel greater distances. A study in Ethiopia showed that as water sources are being depleted, girls are spending more time traveling and collecting water for drinking, cooking and washing for household purposes.
Women have lower levels of resource and asset ownership to build resilience. Women are less likely to own agricultural land or property, due to legal and socio-cultural barriers. For example, Women Business and the Law 2018 identified that in 36 of the 189 economies covered, widows are not granted the same inheritance rights as widowers. Further, 39 economies prevent daughters from inheriting the same proportion of assets as sons. Even where legal barriers do not exist, customary practices related to inheritance norms result in land or property being inherited by a male heir. Cultural factors can also result in land being registered in a man’s name even if it is bought or inherited by a woman. The lower levels of economic resources can stem from the gender gap in labour force participation, and well-established gender pay gap, with women concentrated into lower paid sectors and being paid less than men for work of equal value. These interacting factors result in lower levels of female asset ownership and control over productive resources such as arable land, which can be drawn on at times of economic shock. Moreover, while there are differences across countries, ethnic groups and based on other factors, women generally have less resources and opportunities to invest in preventive measures, and to draw on to support their recovery after disasters.

Fewer women are covered by social protection schemes than men. Women, who make up the majority of the world’s informal-sector workers, are often excluded from social protection schemes, which may offer protection in times of disaster. This is because many women are informally employed or self-employed and do not have access to social protection, which is usually conditional on formal sector employment. Notably, only 5% of women in South Asia, for example, are in formal employment, with 11% in Sub-Saharan Africa and 22% in East and South East Asia. Nevertheless, informal women workers can often have higher levels of access to social assistance schemes targeting the poor, which can be of relevance for macro level CRI schemes.

Low-income women clients may exhibit the following profile characteristics:

- Want basic, affordable, and valuable products;
- Value relationship with providers;
- Focus on providing for her family’s basic needs;
- Rely on family, friends, and neighbours for support and financial advice;
- Worry about leaving debt to her children;
- May live in rural areas, without access to infrastructure or population centres;
- Limited use of formal banking services;
- Often not technologically savvy; and
- May be financially illiterate.
THIS CONTEXT OF WOMEN’S VULNERABILITY TO CLIMATE CHANGE, HAS IMPLICATIONS FOR WOMEN’S RISK PROFILE, INSURANCE NEEDS, AND BARRIERS TO ACCESS AND USAGE OF CRI.

Women are known to be more risk aware than men. Women are generally more risk aware and open to seeking risk mitigation measures as opposed to men. For instance, there is evidence that women have lower non-performing loans than their male counterparts. They are also known to be better at saving, and recognised to be more reliable and effective borrowers and investors. Women are often worried about the education and the future well-being of their children in case of an unexpected death. As their labour force participation and education levels are increasing, so too will their interest in and ability to afford inclusive insurance including CRI.

Women have different protection needs and preferences for CRI product features. The profile of women clients in inclusive insurance is different (see Box 2), which can generally be applied to CRI. Their experiences from inclusive insurance also shows that women’s product preferences can differ. For example, they seek: family-cover (as women care more for the entire family); bundled coverage on the back of a savings plan (as women tend to be better savers than men); or group coverage (as women tend to be more engaged in mutual assistance). In Senegal and Burkina Faso, a study comparing uptake of index-based agricultural insurance and other savings instruments found that female farm managers were less likely to purchase agricultural insurance and more likely to invest in savings for emergencies. It found that a rainfall insurance product appeal less to women than for men. While men and women are equally exposed to agricultural yield risk, women face additional sources of lifecycle risks, particularly health risks related to fertility and childcare, which are uninsured, and fall primarily on women. Despite the gender differences in the appeal of the rainfall insurance product, those who purchased insurance realized higher average yields and were better able to manage food insecurity and shocks. In this context there is a need for prototyping CRI products with different groups of women, recognising that the profile and needs of women may differ based on lifecycle and economic segment.

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Index-insurance with a gender-lens in Bangladesh

The study analysed data collected from 433 male and female farmers living on a climate change vulnerable coastal island in Bangladesh, where an increasing number of farmers are adopting maize as a potentially remunerative, but high-risk cash crop. The study implemented a choice experiment designed to investigate farmers’ valuations for, and trade-offs among, the key attributes of a hypothetical maize crop weather-index insurance programme that offered different options for bundling insurance with financial saving mechanisms.

The results revealed significant insurance aversion among female farmers, irrespective of the attributes of the insurance scheme. Heterogeneity in insurance choices was explained by gendered differences in farmers’ level of trust in insurance institutions and financial literacy. The study suggests that in order to increase the uptake of insurance by women it is necessary to improve institutional credibility, while coupling such interventions with financial literacy programmes for female farmers.

Women are more inclined towards certain types of insurance distribution channels. The various channels may pose different challenges for reaching and servicing the diverse segments of the women’s market for CRI, but also provide new opportunities. Improving delivery by coming close to their homes or work places, introducing very simple claims process and policy languages, while also educating customers and, for example, involving female agents. Insurance intermediaries and channels that focus on women can access new markets of excluded or underserved women when they understand and address to improve comfort levels of this segment. There is evidence from Bangladesh (see Box 3) that women may feel greater levels of comfort dealing with other women when purchasing insurance, in a context where women’s mobility and interactions with unrelated males may be restricted due to a range of factors.
including religious restrictions and caring responsibilities. Indeed, there has been evidence of single window service centres providing social protection benefits as an effective distribution channel, such as those set up in Karnataka in India by the Department of Labour. These single window service centres may well be an effective approach to access CRI including pay outs.

**Women may prefer different types of financial institutions and CRI distribution channels.** Women may have lower levels of trust in a commercial financial service provider than a cooperative or mutual provider, where they can be a member. For example, one of them is the largest Microinsurance Mutual in the Philippines CARD MBA, that is ensuring almost 5 million mostly female members and their families, altogether, 18 million individuals, many of which are women. Moreover, they may prefer a female sales person to a male. The Self-employed Women’s Association’s (SEWA) (an Indian insurance cooperative) experience suggests that women value regular face-to-face interactions as these provide the opportunity to ask questions about the policies and discuss risks relating to broader family issues. There are some quantitative studies that explore weather-index insurance preferences through a gender lens. For example, there is evidence from Bangladesh which suggests that gender can influence preferences to weather-indexed crop insurance product design among farmers (see Box 3).

**Women and girls are less likely to be included in insurance policies due to intra-household dynamics.** Despite the fact that increasingly women participate in microfinance schemes, they face a gender gap in access to credit. Since inclusive insurance is often attached to a loan, it is usually the male head of household that is covered by a credit-linked insurance policy. Furthermore, evidence generated from health insurance schemes show that adding family members to insurance cover can be expensive, and consequently women and girls are often left out of policies.

**Research and data gaps exist related to specific aspects of gender-sensitive CRI.** There is some limited sex-disaggregated data on the features and number of those insured under inclusive insurance policies including index-based insurance in some markets, as well as gender differences product preferences, distribution features, and insurance education. However, there is currently a research gap related to CRI in general and specifically gender-sensitive CRI models.
MARKET OPPORTUNITY: GIVEN THAT WOMEN ARE DISPROPORTIONATELY REPRESENTED AMONG THE POOR, ACCESS TO CRI CAN HELP INCREASE THEIR ABILITY TO MITIGATE RISKS AND EFFECTIVELY MANAGE SHOCKS. AS SUCH, WOMEN AND GIRLS REPRESENT A RECEPTIVE CLIENT BASE FOR PUBLIC AND PRIVATE CLIMATE AND DISASTER RISK INSURANCE SOLUTIONS AT THE MICRO AND MESO LEVEL. MOREOVER, WOMEN’S GREATER VULNERABILITY AND SPECIFIC RISK PROFILE IS PERTINENT FOR GOVERNMENTS DESIGNING AND PROVIDING MORE CLIENT CENTRIC SOCIAL PROTECTION BASED CRI.

While the specific market potential for CRI is unknown, there is a growing female market opportunity in insurance. The 2015 AXA-IFC report SheForShield: Insure Women to Better Protect All estimates that the global women’s insurance market has the opportunity to grow to three times its current size, to US$ 1.7 trillion by 2030. Within this, the low-income women’s segment has the potential to become an important market for inclusive insurance, allowing insurers to access new markets and sustainably contribute to development. When women become insurance clients, there is evidence that schemes are more profitable, less likely to engage in fraudulent claims activity through either filing fictitious or overstating the value of their claims, and female clients can also be more loyal customers and even motivate others to use a certain service. As such, it is anticipated that the market for serving women has significant growth potential. While the private sector CRI potential has yet to be quantified, targeting women could be a growing market opportunity.

Nevertheless, some studies suggest a low reported demand for CRI among women. Lower demand could be due to demand-side constraints and the many of the reasons cited, which contribute to women’s vulnerabilities to climate change, and which characterize them as customers. For example: lower resource endowment, lack of institutional trust and financial literacy, lack of products that fit to women’s risk profiles and purchasing preferences and lack of distribution avenues that are adapted to women’s client profile. In part, lower demand may be driven by the gender gap in mobile technology access, which may restrict their access to products sold through digital distribution channels. For instance, women in South Asia are 26% less likely to own a mobile than men and 70% less likely to use mobile internet.

Supply side barriers are adding to the challenge of focusing on women clients. On the supply side, while not specific to CRI, there are challenges in insurance offerings for women. This includes, a lack of sex-disaggregated client data and their insurance usage patterns to highlight the business case for tailored approaches offered by private providers; lack of knowledge on and weak consideration of gender preferences for certain sales and distribution channels; and a lack of a tailored value proposition for women in product features. The low participation of women in the workforce of both insurers and intermediaries adds to the barriers. Addressing these challenges can capitalize on women’s savings behaviours to care for the future by traditional means such as savings in cash or in kind, or community help.

In summary, women face gender-related, social and economic obstacles that limit their capacity to mitigate the impact of climate change and disasters on their lives and livelihoods. Nevertheless, there is an opportunity for public and private insurers to target this receptive client base for CRI solutions, while also addressing existing inequities, but doing so will require understanding gender-specific risks, needs and preferences. Increasing women’s protection under CRI will require intentional strategies by diverse CRI providers from government and the industry and other related stakeholders, to understand these different preferences through demand-side studies that incorporate specific strategies to consult with women. In turn, these insights need to be translated into product design, distribution and servicing through organizations and channels trusted by women, as part of a client-centric approach, which also recognises the heterogeneity of women clients and the wider gender context.
3. The Policy Context of Gender-sensitive Climate Risk Insurance

There are three major policy entry-points to the topic of gender-sensitive CRI: (1) disaster risk reduction (2) climate and disaster risk financing; and (3) inclusive finance and insurance. These policy priorities and their respective stakeholders converge in national level social protection policies and gender polices and international policy frameworks. The latter acknowledge the relevance of gender-sensitive approaches to mitigate existing gender inequalities and take climate change action towards achieving the UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and a more inclusive and equitable world.

3.1 Entry point: Disaster Risk Reduction and Gender

International disaster risk reduction (DRR) policy focuses on women’s leadership and role in disaster planning and recognises the influence of gender in disaster vulnerability. The Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015–2030 was adopted in March 2015 in Sendai, Japan at the Third UN World Conference on Disaster Risk Reduction and later endorsed by the UN General Assembly. It builds on the earlier Hyogo Framework for Action (HFA) 2005–2015. The Sendai Framework is a voluntary, non-binding agreement, which recognizes that the State has the primary role to reduce disaster risk but that responsibility should be shared with other stakeholders including local government, the private sector and other stakeholders. It aims for the following outcome: “The substantial reduction of disaster risk and losses in lives, livelihoods and health and in the economic, physical, social, cultural and environmental assets of persons, businesses, communities and countries.” Gender is incorporated into its guiding principles. It states, “Disaster risk reduction requires an all-of-society engagement and partnership. It also requires empowerment and inclusive, accessible and non-discriminatory participation, paying special attention to people disproportionately affected by disasters, especially the poorest. A gender, age, disability and cultural perspective should be integrated in all policies and practices, and women and youth leadership should be promoted.”

The Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction incorporates gender-sensitive approaches. The Sendai framework consists of seven targets and four priorities for action. It highlights the role of women under Priority 4 (see Box 4). Specifically, it states that “Empowering women… to publicly lead and promote gender equitable and universally accessible response, recovery, rehabilitation and reconstruction approaches is key.” It notes that to achieve this at a national and local level there is a need to tailor these systems to the needs of users, including social and cultural requirements, in particular gender. The framework specifically acknowledges the key role of women and their participation as critical “to effectively managing disaster risk and designing, resourcing and implementing gender-sensitive disaster risk reduction policies, plans and programmes.” It further emphasizes the need for adequate capacity building measures that should be taken “to empower women for preparedness as well as to build their capacity to secure alternate means of livelihood in post-disaster situation.”

There have been international calls for sex-disaggregated targets and indicators to track the implementation of the Sendai Framework. UN Women has promoted a gender perspective in the Sendai Framework and highlighted the lack of research, sex and age disaggregated data as well as gender analysis regarding the impact of disaster on gender equality. It has called for the global and national level targets in the framework to be sex-disaggregated. The current status of the indicator development is unclear and the Sendai Framework does not specifically state whether the target and indicators will be sex-disaggregated. (see Box 5).
There is a clear international commitment for gender-specific and inclusive disaster risk reduction and a new programme to implement these commitments. At the fifth Global Platform for Disaster Risk Reduction in May 2017 in Mexico, there were calls for gender-specific and inclusive disaster risk reduction and a session on Women Leadership in Disaster Risk Reduction was held at the event. Specifically, UN Women launched a new flagship programme “Gender Inequality of Risk”, in partnership with the United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (UNISDR) and the International Federation of Red Cross (IFRC) to reduce the loss of lives and livelihoods and to enhance the resilience of communities to natural hazards in a changing climate. This programme will implement the gender commitments of the Sendai Framework with a specific focus on achieving Target (e) “Substantially increase the number of countries with national and local disaster risk reduction strategies by 2020.” (see Box 6).

3.2 Entry Point: Climate and Disaster Risk Financing and Gender

The international climate change policy frameworks, the UNFCCC, the Kyoto Protocol and the Paris Agreement, recognise the links between gender and climate change, and call for gender responsiveness in climate change planning, policy-making and implementation.

Global leaders have recognised the gender dimensions of climate change policy development and implementation and adopted a Gender Action Plan based on the earlier Lima Work Programme on Gender. Parties to the UNFCCC framework have recognized the importance of involving women and men equally in UNFCCC processes and in the representation of Parties in bodies established under the Convention. Integral to this is the recognition that women’s inclusion at the leadership level and meaningful participation has led to improved outcomes of climate related projects and policies in terms of equality and effectiveness. Specifically, the UNFCCC has established a dedicated standing agenda item under the Convention to address issues of gender and climate change, and adopted a formal Gender Action Plan (GAP) (see Box 7).

Disaster Risk Reduction Gender Data Gaps

The following gender data gaps have been identified related to disaster risk reduction policy:

- Sex disaggregated data collected at a national level for global reports such as the Global Assessment Report on Disaster Risk Reduction, The Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC) Global Estimates Reports, IFRC’s World Disasters Reports and databases such as the Emergency Events Database;
- Data on the differential impact of disasters on women, girls, boys and men;
- Sex and age disaggregated data on damages and losses in disasters. Damage and losses are usually recorded in terms of productive resources which tend to be owned by men. Recordings of material loss at household level, seldom even broken down to male/female headed households, hides important differences in losses between women and men;
- Losses in the informal sector and subsistence farming (predominated by women); and
- Losses related to reproductive activities of women.

Priority Outcome Areas of the UN Women Flagship Programme

1. Strengthen assessments of the gender dimensions of disaster risk;
2. Promote gender-responsive National Disaster Risk Management Policy and Governance;
3. Close the financing gap for gender-responsive prevention, preparedness and recovery;
4. Strengthen the capacity of women to prevent, prepare for, and recover from, disasters in a changing climate.
The GAP demands global, regional and national level engagement by policymakers. At a ‘global’ level the GAP requires that Parties to the treaties “develop and implement gender responsive ‘Climate Finance Strategies’ and identify their needs for capacity building and support and ensure the participation of women’s groups, women’s machineries, grassroots women, indigenous peoples and local communities (as directly affected and intended beneficiaries) in the development of such finance strategies and plans.”

At a national or regional level, Parties are to “encourage commercial banks and other private sector actors to support women’s access to resources for climate adaptation and mitigation actions, including through public support in the form of risk guarantees, revised regulatory requirements etc.”

The InsuResilience Global Partnership has taken first steps to adopt a gender-sensitive approach. In 2016, the InsuResilience Secretariat commissioned a report, which

### UNFCCC and Gender

In 2014, the UNFCCC created “The Lima Work Programme on Gender” (LWPG) to implement gender-responsive climate policies and mandates across all areas of climate negotiations. The LWPG included the creation of a technical paper on guidelines or other tools on integrating gender considerations into climate change related activities in support of more effective and equitable responses to climate change.

In 2016, the Paris Agreement placed climate action in the context of efforts to achieve sustainable development and reaffirmed the need for governments to respect and promote human rights including gender equality and the empowerment of women. The Agreement states that “Parties should when taking action to address climate change, respect, promote and consider... Gender equality, empowerment of women and intergenerational equity”. It further emphasizes the adaptation actions should be gender-responsive, as should capacity building efforts.

In 2017 at COP 23 in Bonn, policymakers engaged in the international climate change mitigation and adaptation efforts adopted the Gender Action Plan based on the earlier Lima Work Programme on Gender. The GAP sets out five priority areas, which are all relevant to all aspects of climate risk insurance policy development, implementation and evaluation, including ensuring women’s participation in the leadership of relevant institutions and networks, and the collection of sex-disaggregated data as part of monitoring and evaluation efforts.

The GAP five priority areas are:
1. Capacity building, knowledge sharing and communication;
2. Gender balance, participation and women’s leadership;
3. Coherence;
4. Gender-responsive implementation and means of implementation; and
5. Monitoring and reporting.

The GAP was adopted as a result of Decision 3/CP.23 and a recommendation from the chair of the Subsidiary Body for Implementation. Decision 3/CP.23 noted “that gender-responsive climate policy continues to require further strengthening in all activities concerning adaptation, mitigation and related means of implementation (finance, technology development and transfer, and capacity building), as well as decision-making on the implementation of climate policies.” Moreover, “there is a need for women to be represented in all aspects of the Convention process and a need for gender mainstreaming through all relevant targets and goals in activities under the Convention as an important contribution to increasing their effectiveness.”
suggested Pro-Poor Principles to guide climate risk insurance schemes before and during operations to establish solidarity oriented insurance schemes and respond to concerns of equity. In this report, written by MCII, the principles focus on key aspects such as needs-based solutions, client value, affordability and sustainability, and while they do not specifically call out gender at the principle level, they state that a key success factor of a sustainable scheme is to “Ensure the participation and inclusion of women into climate risk insurance policy and programming”. To do so, the supporting narrative text advocates that gender differences in climate change vulnerabilities should be addressed by a gender analysis that focuses on the inclusion of women and girls in the [insurance] cover.

In the meantime, the InsuResilience Global Partnership with its strong focus on poor and vulnerable people has set up a working group to develop Pro-Poor Principles that puts people’s needs at the centre of climate and disaster risk finance and insurance. The InsuResilience Pro-Poor Principles are geared to inform, inspire and motivate all actors in their objectives to deliver climate and disaster risk financing and insurance solutions in ways that maximise benefit to the poorest and most vulnerable people. The principles also aim to actively support endeavors for more gender responsive disaster risk financing mechanisms by calling out for more support on inclusive and gender-responsive solutions and integrating gender consistently throughout climate and disaster risk management policies, projects and product cycles. In addition, the Secretariat has focused on the topic through a working session on gender during the International Insurance Society (IIS) Global Insurance Forum in July 2018 (see Box 8).

The Gender and CRI working lunch discussion at the IIS Global Insurance Forum generated ideas on a variety of challenges, needs and gaps related to the topic including the need to:
- Identify the appropriate role of insurance in a broader climate change adaptation and disaster resilience toolbox;
- Address literacy of women in terms of resilience options, financial instruments, and the specific value (or lack thereof) of insurance in a specific circumstance;
- Integrate key livelihood concerns which women prioritize, such as personal health and family health, future of children, business protection, into CRI products;
- Provide solutions and products related to women’s specific economic activities;
- Address the issue that poor women are very cost conscious and that willingness to pay by women may differ by the value of the product (e.g. higher willingness to pay more for higher value assets such as livestock, than to pay small premiums for crop insurance);
- Leverage on mobile phone technologies to significantly lower transaction costs, but account for women’s lower level of access to technology;
- Establish the appropriate balance between subsidy level (incl. by the international community and based on polluter pays principle) and limited ability to pay by poor people.

The participants defined the following key messages for the Climate Summit 2019:
- Create transparency: collect and analyze gender disaggregated data, indicators etc.;
- Scale up proven insurance solutions and their benefits, e.g. health insurance (in the context of gender-sensitive, comprehensive climate and disaster risk management); and
- Structure products that specifically cater for women’s price sensitive and risk averse behavior and protect their main economic activities.

Guidance exists for integrating gender considerations into national policy commitments. The UNFCCC Technical Guidelines for integrating gender considerations into climate change related activities under the Convention highlights the opportunity for it to be considered by policymakers in national communications (NCs), nationally appropriate mitigation actions (NAMAs), national adaptation plans (NAPs), technology needs assessments (TNAs), Reducing emissions from deforestation and forest degradation (REDD+), and the Financial Mechanism: the Global Environment Facility (GEF), the Green Climate Fund (GCF); as well as in the processes arising from the Paris Agreement. However, there is no stock-take on the extent to which Parties under the treaty have integrated a gender-sensitive CRI dimension to their policies, or coordinated with different ministries and regulators to ensure policy coherence.

The participants defined the following key messages for the Climate Summit 2019:
- Create transparency: collect and analyze gender disaggregated data, indicators etc.;
- Scale up proven insurance solutions and their benefits, e.g. health insurance (in the context of gender-sensitive, comprehensive climate and disaster risk management); and
- Structure products that specifically cater for women’s price sensitive and risk averse behavior and protect their main economic activities.
3.3 Entry Point: Inclusive Insurance and Gender

WOMEN’S FINANCIAL INCLUSION IS HIGH ON THE INTERNATIONAL POLICY MAKING AGENDA AS A KEY ELEMENT OF BROADER DEVELOPMENT OBJECTIVES AND DRIVER OF WOMEN’S EMPOWERMENT. INCLUSIVE INSURANCE HAS BEEN AN INTEGRAL PART OF FINANCIAL INCLUSION FOR A DECADE OR SO. AS A SUBSET OF INCLUSIVE INSURANCE, CRI IS SLOWLY BEING INTEGRATED INTO THIS DEBATE, ALTHOUGH NOT YET THROUGH A GENDER LENS.

Global financial sector policymakers and regulators have prioritized closing the gender gap in financial inclusion. The 2017 G20 Financial Inclusion Action Plan (GPFI) reaffirmed the G20 Leaders’ commitment to advance financial inclusion with a focus on underserved groups including women. Financial inclusion regulators and policymakers from 107 institutions and 92 countries have translated this into an action through committing to the Alliance for Financial Inclusion (AFI) Denarau Action Plan, which aims to increase the number of women with access to quality and affordable financial services globally by 2021. AFI’s working groups have specifically explored and published guidance on relevant policy barriers, for instance on the collection and use of sex-disaggregated financial inclusion data; integrating gender and women’s financial inclusion into national financial inclusion strategies; and gender considerations in balancing financial inclusion and anti-money laundering and countering the financing of terrorism. The latter topic is specifically relevant to customer due diligence (CDD) to identify, verify and monitor the customers of financial services providers including insurers during the on-boarding process and ongoing business relationships. This is in a context where at a global level a disproportionate number of women are affected by a lack of legal identity. Indeed, the 2017 Global Findex found that 38% of the surveyed population in low-income countries do not have an ID, with a 15% gender gap, with 30% of men lacking one compared to 45% of women. As a result, women are often less able to provide identification documents for customer identification and verification as part of the customer due diligence process required by insurance providers in line with global standards on Anti-Money Laundering and Countering the Financing of Terrorism (AML/CFT). This may have implications for women purchasing CRI.

The business case and value of sex-disaggregated data has become increasingly established among financial inclusion policymakers but not for insurance products. The data agenda has moved to focus on how to enhance the collection and analysis of sex-disaggregated data including the critical role Financial Service Providers (FSPs) play in the gender-data value chain and the influence of financial inclusion policymakers to stimulate its collection. As such, there is momentum among policymakers to incentivize widespread collection and reporting of sex-disaggregated financial inclusion data by FSPs. In this context, the UN’s Data2X has launched the Women’s Financial Inclusion Data (WFID) partnership, including a Global Gender Data Strategy and principles for women’s financial inclusion data. Moreover, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) has piloted the collection of sex-disaggregated data from selected IMF members in its annual supply-side Financial Access Survey (FAS). Importantly, the Findex Database does not yet include data on insurance. To date, sex-disaggregated financial inclusion data collection has improved more generally, but data on insurance coverage is limited to the World Map of Microinsurance of the Microinsurance
Network,\textsuperscript{121} and to previous Landscape Studies of the Microinsurance Network and its partners, which estimated that as of 2016, there were approximately 500 million microinsurance policies sold.\textsuperscript{124}

There is an emerging understanding that for promoting inclusive insurance for women, insurance policymakers and regulators play a key role. The insurance supervisor is the key stakeholder responsible for regulating and supervising inclusive insurance, including CRI at the micro and meso levels (see section 4 for an overview of these CRI business models).\textsuperscript{125} There is increasing international attention on the topic of the gender dimensions of inclusive insurance in insurance policy making and supervision. This includes the recognition that inclusive insurance policymaking is not gender-neutral and that women and men have the potential to be differentially impacted by financial sector policies and by regulatory and supervisory approaches to insurance.\textsuperscript{126} However, there is still limited engagement on the gender dimensions of insurance supervision at the national level, and variation exists between countries.

A global standard setter of the insurance sector, the International Association of Insurance Supervisors (IAIS) and the Access to Insurance Initiative (A2ii) have both explored the topic of women’s insurance access and usage and its relevance from an insurance regulation perspective. The IAIS stresses, for example, that Index based insurance schemes have also been seen as an attractive way of supporting the transfer of catastrophic event risks to capital markets.\textsuperscript{127} In its briefing on The Role of Insurance Regulation and Supervision in Promoting Inclusive Insurance for Women,\textsuperscript{128} A2ii highlights areas of further work to integrate gender considerations in insurance regulation and supervision in the context of increasing access to insurance. These themes, for example the value of sex-disaggregated insurance data from the supply and demand perspectives, are informed by experience in the banking sector and can be adapted through the specific lens of climate risk insurance policy and regulation. A2ii has also assessed the lessons learnt from regulating inclusive insurance from the past decade; (see Box 9) many of these lessons are valid for serving the women’s market.

The G20 Global Partnership for Financial Inclusion (GPFI) has explored the topic of women’s inclusive insurance in a publication Mainstreaming Gender and Targeting Women in Inclusive Insurance: Perspectives and Emerging Lessons – A Compendium of Technical Notes and Case Studies. This highlights that there is both a clear business and social case for mainstreaming gender and targeting women in inclusive insurance with benefits to increase insurance penetration and risk protection of the vulnerable in society. It argues that a tailored inclusive insurance proposition for women can meet their gender-specific needs and be commercially viable, and although there are some examples of women-centric approaches to insurance, they remain ad hoc. The paper further recommends opportunities for the way forward, towards a gender-sensitive approach in inclusive insurance (see Box 9).\textsuperscript{129}

### Box 9

#### Recommendations for Insurance Supervisors to Promote Inclusive Insurance for Women

The following recommendations have been put forward for insurance supervisors:

- Protect consumers by disclosure requirements that work for the new-to insurance segment and are effective for women;
- Allow for alternative distribution channels as women are less mobile;
- Considering to allow for alternative licenses such as the Microinsurance Mutual benefit Associations in the Philippines;
- Enact regulations to provide a legal basis for parametric insurance, such as its classification as a sub-class or property insurance; and an adjusted product regime for this type that considers its specifiers such as rapid claims honouring;
- Simplify Know Your Customer (KYC) requirements which disproportionately restrict women’s financial access as they are less likely to possess the required identity documents;
- Encourage the insurance industry to develop a better awareness of gender differences in designing their products and distribution channels;
- Adapt a complaint infrastructure to ensure it is accessible and responsive to women’s needs in order to address the specific consumer protection concerns of women;
- Gather sex-disaggregated industry data on access and usage of insurance by diverse product types. To support this, build internal capacity within the insurance supervisor, develop a mechanism for gathering this data, adapting internal systems and processes to support the capture of this information, as well as sharing with relevant authorities to leverage usage of this data for policy action.\textsuperscript{130 131}
3.4 Convergence of entry points at national level and in international policy frameworks

At national level, these entry points to gender-sensitive CRI converge in social protection policies and national gender-strategies. Women-targeted inclusive insurance within social protection policymaking can serve as an interim step towards reaching comprehensive social protection. The challenges of integrating a gender dimension into government policies and programmes, particularly in the area of inclusive and social insurance, as well as CRI, include the need to balance affordability and client value. Social protection policymakers can engage more with women on their specific protection needs, and set-up or strengthen public-private partnerships to deliver CRI. In doing so, governments can leverage the intersection of gender strategies with other development strategies such as poverty-alleviation, financial sector development, social protection, food security, and climate change. This will enable them to reach out to poorer women and their family members and small firms, while using CRI to help prevent more women from becoming poor.132

At international level, these entry points converge in the Sustainable Development Goals. Global policy priorities converge in wider international policy frameworks, which acknowledge the relevance of gender-sensitive approaches to mitigate existing gender inequalities and take climate change action. The SDGs, the international community’s development agenda since 2015, identifies climate action (SDG 13), gender equality (SDG 5) and financial inclusion as priorities, with an acknowledgement of the cross-cutting nature of financial inclusion and gender equality to other SDGs.

Relevant targets by 2030 include the need to “build the resilience of the poor and those in vulnerable situations, and reduce their exposure and vulnerability to climate-related extreme events and other economic, social and environmental shocks and disasters” (Target 1.5),133 and “ensure sustainable food production systems and implement resilient agricultural practices that increase productivity and production, that help maintain ecosystems, that strengthen capacity for adaptation to climate change, extreme weather, drought, flooding and other disasters, and that progressively improve land and soil quality” (Target 2.4).134 While insurance is only explicitly mentioned once in the SDGs, it is implicitly relevant in the achievement of multiple goals. “Insurance” is mentioned as reference to the promotion of financial inclusion (Target 8.10135), and the concept of “risk management”136 is mentioned in relation to disaster risk management (Target 11.b). The BMZ Paper The Contribution of Inclusive Insurance to the 2030 Agenda (2017) highlights that “insurance protects women from the financial impact of losing family members, helping women to retain their homes, sustain their businesses, continue education of their children, and generally maintain the financial stability of their household.” This is even more important when faced with the threat of disaster.
4. Integrating Gender into Climate Risk Insurance Models

Gender sensitive insurance mechanisms play a key role in gender equitable disaster risk management strategies. The relevance of insurance as a mechanism within comprehensive climate risk management has been recognized by policymakers around the world and is now anchored in major international policy agendas. Many actors are currently investing resources in developing and supporting CRI schemes, and are looking for ways to implement insurance at a larger scale; many of these efforts are specifically targeted at covering the poor and vulnerable in developing countries. The case of gender-sensitive insurance models – publicly supported or commercial models, which has yet to be made.

There are different models of CRI. Indirect CRI are provided at the macro and meso levels and direct models of CRI at the micro level. The different CRI models vary from one another in the way how beneficiaries are targeted, who is insured and who organizes the insurance, with different implications for the various stakeholders engaged in the development and delivery of this insurance. Depending on the model, the stakeholders who can integrate gender considerations vary.

Indirect insurance refers to situations in which the intended beneficiaries do not hold the insurance policy, although they may contribute to the premium payment. The insured can be a public or a private entity. Payouts are provided to the policyholder. It is up to the discretion of what form they provide benefits to beneficiaries, usually based on a pre-specified protocol of action. There are two levels of indirect insurance. Key gender considerations in each of these models are also highlighted.

- **Macro-level insurance and gender:** The policyholder is one or several public entities (national or local governments, also called sovereign risk pool, or local government), which pays for the insurance premium on behalf of vulnerable population groups. For example, the government is paying a premium resulting in payouts or other benefits to affected poor/vulnerable population segments who would not be in a position to insure themselves. The payout can serve multiple purposes such as the maintenance of government services and cash flows, funding of pre- and post-disaster operations and targeted assistance. Payouts are usually articulated through disaster contingency plans and social protection programmes. The CRI pays out automatically and rapidly following a disaster based on pre-agreed indices to government. It is used for an immediate response while humanitarian aid is being mobilized. In terms of gender considerations, given the disaster relief and social protection element of this type of CRI, and the lower levels of assets among poorer women, and their higher vulnerability, this provides the opportunity for the most vulnerable women to receive some degree of coverage. This type of insurance can be provided on a commercial basis even if it is paid for by a government to provide social protection to certain segments of its population.

- **Meso-level insurance and gender:** The policyholder is an institution (the insured, an FSP like a Micro Finance Institution (MFI), NGO; a cooperative, an agribusiness, an employer etc.). The enrolled maintain a client, membership or employment relationship with the policyholder and they may or may not receive a payout. The insured acts as risk aggregator, ensuring their portfolio or business risks. It may use the funds from a claim payment to provide direct or indirect benefits to the enrolled. Gender considerations in this model can start with focusing on institutions that focus on working with women.

Direct insurance refers to situations in which the ultimate beneficiary pays the premium to the insurer and directly receives a monetary payout in the case of a triggered event.

- **Micro-level insurance and gender:** The policyholder is either a group policyholder who organizes the insurance, or the beneficiary him/herself. The insurer markets the insurance product directly to the customer or his/her group, generally through a distribution channel, from MFIs to banks or Telcos. This can be for example, weather based agricultural insurance. Direct insurance is usually provided on a commercial basis. In terms of reaching out to women, many MFIs have a predominantly female and poorer client base who can be reached via this channel. However, in an agribusiness, additional efforts may be required.

Gender considerations have the potential to be integrated into all three CRI models. For each of the diverse models of CRI insurance, gender considerations can specifically be integrated into the various aspects, however, there are great differences between indirect and direct insurance and the way they can integrate gender considerations effectively. Some key questions are for example:

- For **indirect insurance**, key questions are, how to make sure sovereign risk pools consider the relevant gender-aspects so to be efficient and effective for women, or even focus on enrolling women of a social protection programme and financing their premium (macro); how to select and motivate institutions that reach out to female groups (meso);
- For **direct insurance** key questions are, how to inform, select and target clients; the kind of product coverage provided; the way of distribution and servicing that works for women, and the way benefits or payouts are provided to be effective; or women’s participation in the workforce of the insurance intermediary and provider.
5. Stocktake of Existing Gender Considerations in Climate Risk Insurance Examples

A light stocktake provides first insights into existing gender considerations in CRI. Some gender considerations are currently integrated into diverse models of climate risk insurance at all levels: the macro, meso and micro levels. The following light stocktake is to inspire this debate, aiming at showing practical examples and point the way to approaches, which can be taken to enhance the integration of gender into CRI as a mechanism in disaster risk management and other public policies.

Macro level

The following CRI schemes have started to integrate gender considerations. Over the past 10 years, 26 countries in three regions—Africa, the Pacific, and the Caribbean and Central America—have joined sovereign catastrophe risk pools that provide benefits and services to vulnerable populations as part of disaster contingency planning and social protection measures. The Kenya Hunger Safety Net Programme, The Caribbean Catastrophe Risk Insurance Facility, and Pacific Catastrophe Risk Assessment and Financing Initiative have all incorporated some limited gender considerations into their approach to CRI. See Table 1.

### Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Programme/Product</th>
<th>Key Partners</th>
<th>Nat Cat risk covered</th>
<th>Geographic coverage</th>
<th>Gender component</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| The Kenya Hunger Safety Net Programme | Government of Kenya | Drought | Kenya | > Sex-disaggregated data on participants including female headed households  
> Gender specific impact data  
> Strategies to overcome access barriers faced by women including private partnerships to enhance distribution to women |
| The Caribbean Catastrophe Risk Insurance Facility (CCRIF) | Caribbean and Central American governments | Earthquake, tropical cyclone and excess rainfall | Caribbean and Central America | > Gender impact data |
| Pacific Catastrophe Risk Assessment and Financing Initiative (PCRAFI) | Pacific Island Countries (PICs) governments | Tropical cyclones, earthquakes and tsunamis | Pacific Island Countries | > Sex-disaggregated data on beneficiaries and audit of payouts |
The following topics stand out with regard to the gender-approach taken or not:

› **Target beneficiaries:** There is no evidence that to date any sovereign CRI scheme has been designed or implemented with an explicit gender equality or women focused target. This light stocktake highlights that a full assessment is required to verify the extent to which gender considerations are integrated into each of the emergency plans in place by the states signatories of macro policies. As such, there are gaps in the considerations of at least the publicly available information on how gender barriers to access and usage of the schemes have been considered in the scheme development stage. Given that these schemes leverage on sources of international development financing, there is an opportunity to enhance the extent to which these schemes consider gender in the context of the strong gender focus of many donor agencies and international financial institutions.

› **Scheme design and delivery:** The Kenya HSNP scheme claims to have taken steps to tailor its delivery channels to women’s needs. It has developed a mixed targeting mechanism that reflects and accounts for women’s vulnerabilities. It has also considered to working out partnerships with private sector actors to develop delivery channels that enhance the accessibility of the programme to women, for example through a women’s group or via digital distribution channels that overcome women’s mobility constraints. There is no evidence indicating how the two other macro-level schemes reviewed (see Table 1) have intentionally considered the differential impact of climate change on women and men in the scheme design by public entities to account for gender specific barriers or to accessing both information about the schemes or pay outs. For example, the ARC contingency plans have the potential to incorporate gender considerations.

› **Gender breakdown of workforce:** There is no publicly available information on the gender breakdown of the workforce of the providers of macro-level CRI schemes.

› **Sex-disaggregated client data:** The Kenya HSNP scheme collects sex-disaggregated data which suggests that 62% of enrolled are women, and half of these households are headed by women. There is evidence that international donors may require the schemes to provide sex-disaggregated data as part of their reporting.

For instance, the UK Department of International Development (DFID) business case summary in compliance with the UK’s Gender Equality Act states that PCRAFI must set out how this programme will address gender-related differences in emergency and humanitarian needs. It states that, “Gender sensitive actions to reach women and girls at times of disasters will be planned and monitored as part of the disaster risk management strategies and contingency plans.” “… Contingency plans can also include attention to preventing or addressing gender based violence in displaced areas, through co-operation with appropriate agencies (E.g. UN Women, UNFPA)”. Additionally, “countries must report to DFID sex-disaggregated data on beneficiaries and the pay outs as part of the monitoring of the scheme.” To what extent such data is collected and reported is unclear from the publicly available information.
Impact data: The HSNP claims to have made significant improvements in women’s lives by enhancing drought coping capabilities, increasing food consumption and asset retention, thus improving child welfare and payment of school fees, empowering women through financial inclusion; and allowing many women to start business, in the form of petty sales enterprise. Gender differentiated impact data is collected on several of the sovereign schemes, although only the impact on women is highlighted and not any gender differential impacts on men. Given that a gender-sensitive approach to CRI is one that accounts for the dynamics of relationships between women and men, it is not just a focus on women, it is important to consider how men have been differentially impacted by the schemes even though there is a need to redress imbalance in society whereby women have been disadvantaged. CCRIF is reportedly in the process of collecting such gender impact data.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Programme/Product</th>
<th>Key Partners</th>
<th>Nat Cat risk covered</th>
<th>Geographic coverage</th>
<th>Gender component</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PlaNet Guarantee, Weather satellite-based index insurance and area yield index insurance.</td>
<td>PlaNet Finance Group, AMAB, Allianz, CNAAS, Global Index Insurance Facility (GIIF)</td>
<td>Drought for various products</td>
<td>Senegal, Benin, Burkina Faso and Mali</td>
<td>Women’s groups used as delivery channels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture and Climate Risk Enterprise Ltd ACRE Africa</td>
<td>Syngenta Foundation for Sustainable Agriculture, Microensure, Global Index Insurance Facility (GIIF)</td>
<td>Excess rain and storms</td>
<td>Kenya, Rwanda and Tanzania</td>
<td>Women targeted through women specific distribution channels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The African and Asian Resilience in Disaster Insurance Scheme (ARDIS)</td>
<td>VisionFund International, Global Parametrics, InsuResilience Investment Fund</td>
<td>Droughts and tropical cyclones – will cover floods in future</td>
<td>Kenya, Malawi, Mali, Zambia, Cambodia, and Myanmar</td>
<td>Designed to target primarily women clients</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afat Vimo (Disaster Insurance in Gujarati, the language spoken in Gujarat, India)</td>
<td>All India Disaster Mitigation Institute (AIDMI)</td>
<td>Earthquakes, floods and tsunami</td>
<td>Disaster affected communities in different States of India (e.g. Assam, Gujarat, Orissa)</td>
<td>Research on extent of loss and suffering caused by disaster on women to inform work. Partnership with a women focused NGO to conduct the research study</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

// STOCKTAKE OF EXISTING GENDER CONSIDERATIONS IN CLIMATE RISK INSURANCE EXAMPLES // Stocktake of existing gender considerations in climate risk insurance examples
Meso Level

Four schemes at meso level were considered. PlaNet Guarantee, the Agriculture and Climate Risk Enterprise Ltd (ACRE) Africa, the African and Asian Resilience in Disaster Insurance Scheme (ARDIS) and Afat Vimo are examples of meso level CRI that have incorporated some gender sensitivity into their respective CRI approaches. (see Table 2)

- Target clients: All eligible members of the ARDIS scheme are farmers and clients of VisionFund – about 80% of them women. As a result, ARDIS is primarily intended for, although not exclusive to, female clients. The All India Disaster Mitigation Institute (AIDMI) conducted a study “Status of Women and Children in Char Areas of Assam” to establish the extent of loss and suffering caused by disaster on its people, especially on women and children.

- Product design and delivery: ARDIS’s delivery channels are through the microfinance arm VisionFund, and given the gendered client base of the MFI’s (72% of borrowers are female), this distribution model appeals predominantly to females. The ACRE insurance was distributed through four main channels: seed distribution linked to a mobile network operators’ location service, agribusinesses with out-growers or contracted farmers, lending institutions and savings and credit cooperatives (SACCOs) providing input loans, and medium-scale professional farmers. SACCOs represent a specific distribution channel through which female clients can be accessed given their broad member base. Afat Vimo, a disaster microinsurance scheme offered by AIDMI for small and informal businesses units, partnered with the Society for Women Action Development (SWAD) as the local partner, which is committed to the development and welfare of poor women. Together, SWAD has helped in promoting the concept of microinsurance among the poor and vulnerable communities of coastal Orissa and undertook a demand side survey to understand the need of disaster insurance among informal businesses, in order to design a microinsurance scheme to meet those needs.

- Gender breakdown of workforce: PlaNet Guarantee have published data on the percentage of women in their teams by country. For example, in Burkina Faso (in 2015) 40% of its staff were women, and in Senegal and Mali, 50% were women.

- Sex-disaggregated client data: There is no sex-disaggregated client data publicly available for the meso level schemes analysed, suggesting that this is a gap.

- Impact data: Impact data suggests that ACRE has provided women with more stable incomes and has empowered them to better provide for their families. It has been reported that a payout by the ACRE programme kept thousands of women farmers in business, providing funds to buy seeds and fertilizers for the next growing season. To date, it is unclear as to whether the ARDIS scheme will collect gender differentiated impact data. AIDMI conducted research in collaboration with the SWAD to determine the effectiveness of its microinsurance scheme in the aftermath of Cyclone Phailin, which struck Orissa and Andhra Pradesh in 2013 to measure whether such an innovation was effective for the most vulnerable when they faced a disaster. An evaluation of the effectiveness of a disaster microinsurance product called Afat Vimo in India found that women in the community in question were more receptive than men to the benefits of microinsurance and therefore they encouraged efforts to engage with women’s groups to sell insurance.
Micro Level

Three micro level schemes were analysed with regard to their gender focus: R4 Rural Resilience initiative (R4), Kenya Livestock Insurance Program (KLIP) formerly called the Index-Based Livestock Insurance (IBLI) and Esfuerzo Seguro from MiCRO are examples of CRI programmes that incorporate a specific gender component or worked to achieve a gender equity and women’s financial inclusion. There is some limited evidence and insights from index insurance, which have integrated gender considerations into their approaches contributing to progress in addressing the challenge of insuring poor women smallholder farmers and pastoralists in the developing world. (see Table 3)

Target clients: The R4 is promoted as having a specific focus on women and gender equality. It is a strategic partnership between Oxfam America and the World Food Programme which aims to strengthen farmers’ food and income security. There is evidence to suggest that in light of this target the partners have explored the specific barriers to women’s access to the product. These include women’s disproportionate share of unpaid care and household duties, negative social and cultural practices and norms, power imbalance, inability to be part of important decision making, including over the use of income and higher illiteracy rates.
## MICRO LEVEL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Programme/Product</th>
<th>Key Partners</th>
<th>Nat Cat risk covered</th>
<th>Geographic coverage</th>
<th>Gender component</th>
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</thead>
</table>
| R4 Rural Resilience Initiative Index Insurance | Oxfam America, the World Food Programme | Weather related losses | Sub-Saharan Africa – Ethiopia, Senegal, Malawi and Zambia and being piloted in Kenya and Zimbabwe | › Designed to target primarily women clients  
› Gender equity in leadership positions of project management committees  
› Sensitization of women beneficiaries  
› Engages women through specific distribution channels  
› Sex-disaggregated client and payout data  
› Gender impact data |
| Kenya Livestock Insurance Program (KLIP) | The International Livestock Research Institute (ILRI), in partnership with Cornell University and the University of California – Davis | Drought | Drought prone Arid and Semi-Arid Lands (ASALs) in Kenya and Ethiopia | › Product design included considerations of equity of access including by gender  
› Sex-disaggregated client data  
› Gender impact data |
| Esfuerzo Seguro – natural catastrophe index insurance covering business interruption, Central American Disaster Microinsurance Expansion (CADME) | MICRO, Banrural, Aseguradora Rural, Swiss Development Agency (SDC), the Multilateral Investment Fund (MIF), Inter-American Development Bank (IADB), the Australian Aid, Swiss Re, Mercy Corps, and KfW | Drought, excess rain and earthquakes | Guatemala and El Salvador | › Sex-disaggregated clients and their activities |
Product design and delivery: MiCRO has specifically collaborated with organisations that offer training to women to enhance its service proposition to this client segment and tailored its products to the needs of women. In recognition of cost barriers women face, they are offering the product at a subsidized cost in El Salvador.

The KLIP, formerly the IBLI, was introduced in 2010 as a market mediated index-based insurance to protect livestock keepers from drought related asset losses, particularly those in the drought prone Arid and Semi-Arid Lands (ASALs) in Kenya and Ethiopia. The product design considered equity of access through considering differences in herd composition, plus access to and control over different types of livestock assets. While it specifically did not do this with gender in mind, but rather with the broader goal of social equity, this often correlates with gender.

R4 has taken steps to address women’s barriers to access insurance as part of the programme. It conducted sensitization activities to strengthen the financial literacy of beneficiaries. For example, in Kenya, through its partners, it held sensitization meetings with 1,153 R4 participants (84% women) across 16 sites to inform them about the payout mechanism. Moreover, it has used a distribution model whereby it has engaged with women through community-based organizations, complementing insurance with other risk reduction activities and making it accessible to most vulnerable households through an “insurance for work” approach.

Gender breakdown of workforce: R4 encourages gender equity in leadership positions of Community-based Participatory Planning and management committees at the village level. Nearly 45% of farmers groups’ executives are women. This has led to better targeting and more accurate identification of needs.

Sex-disaggregated client data: MiCRO, KLIP and R4 collect sex-disaggregated data on the breakdown of their registered clients. MiCRO reports that six out of ten of its clients are women for its Esfuerzo Seguro index-based insurance product in Central America protecting vulnerable and low-income segments of the population against the business interruption caused by earthquakes, droughts, and severe rainfall. The same proportion holds for clients with agricultural activities.

For example, in the Marsabit region, 40% of people purchasing KLIP/IBLI insurance were women. In Ethiopia, R4 has enrolled 27,279 farmers (38% of which are women). R4 specifically collects sex-disaggregated payout data and during the second quarter of 2018, it has found that 31,000 farmers received an insurance payout due to low rainfall, 52% of which were women. This data is also available at a country level. In Senegal, following the dry spells in the latest agricultural season, 5,279 farmers (46% women) received payouts for a total of US$264,145. Moreover, the insurance scheme collects data on the attendance at weather index insurance training by gender. While in Ethiopia the relief society of Tigray organized weather index insurance training attended by 4,195 famers, 33% of which were women.
Impact data: A recent assessment of the R4 index insurance showed that quantifiable livelihood benefits from insurance are well distributed, and currently benefit women farmers as much or more than men—possibly as a result of the gender targeted savings and risk-reduction components of the initiative. It has been reported that women greatly benefit from the R4 programme and have recorded the biggest gains especially in agricultural productivity.

The impact evaluation showed that women felt empowered due to having increased access to land, seed, and water for irrigation and drinking, they benefited from training in numeracy, literacy, and business. Having more food and water available also meant that they no longer had to travel far from home to fetch water, with consequent gains in terms of time dedicated to their children or small businesses. The impact evaluation found a reduction in stress as women became more confident about their ability to feed their families, as well as pay school fees and other expenses through small financial gains from selling their surplus crops.

In Ethiopia, an impact evaluation showed that insured female-headed households increased their agricultural investments, spending more on hired labour and oxen compared to other insured farmers and the uninsured. These households decreased the amount of land that they sharecrop out. Across all districts, and more than all other groups, insured female-headed households increased the amount of improved seed planted and the total amount of compost applied. In Senegal, R4 benefits women farmers by contributing to their access to productive assets, as well as by supporting women’s savings groups through the Saving for Change programme, a cornerstone of the R4 Initiative in Senegal.

A recent study assessed whether there are any gender differences in demand for KLIP/IBLI coverage in Ethiopia. Using three years of household survey data, administrative records and qualitative interviews, the study examined the relationship between gender and demand for IBLI among pastoralists in southern Ethiopia. The study concludes that KLIP/IBLI appears to be equitably accessed by men and women alike and there is a limited evidence of gender-differentiated demand for KLIP/IBLI. However, the study also found marginal procedural issues related to gender, in which female headed-households purchase at an equal rate to men, but may be more vulnerable to pressure from sales agents.

Insights from impact assessments of CRI schemes and products suggest there are data and research gaps. While existing CRI schemes report positive impacts on women clients, the approaches, assessment methodology and data is limited and often just draws on household level data. There is a need for more research on this topic, this calls for more research in the wider context concerning the impacts of insurance schemes on gender equity. Existing impact assessment data on CRI has limitations as it draws on household survey data rather than individual level data. Impact assessments are conducted via household survey data analysis, which in most of cases is reported by the household head. Given that the majority of households in developing countries are headed by men due to legal constraints or social norms, there is a gender bias within the reported data. Furthermore, using household level data fails to account for intra-household dynamics for resource allocation (i.e. food distribution). There is also a need for greater consideration of whether the enumerator is male or female, and the timing and approach given to contacting respondents, given the unpaid caring responsibilities shouldered predominantly by women, and other aspects such as contact with unknown males in some cultures. In spite of these difficulties, some studies have been able to report results on gender. While the evaluation of R4 Senegal does not break down the gender effects for the different programme components, in general, female-headed households (including those with insurance) have larger expenditures on food and report a reduction of drought coping strategies. In the case of R4 Ethiopia, insured women show changes in their productive strategies and increased access to loans.
6. Key Findings and Recommendations

There is a clear case for the InsuResilience Global Partnership to focus on the gender dimensions of CRI. Women and men face differential climate change vulnerabilities, risks and impacts based on their gender, with implications for their livelihoods and wellbeing and the coping strategies. There is a need to increase access to CRI solutions among vulnerable populations, especially women as adaptation and resilience building mechanisms to cope with these climate risks and unexpected shocks. This is in the context where there is a greater need to more broadly involve women in all aspects of climate risk preparedness.

Gender is relevant to all aspects of climate risk responses and CRI models. Prevailing gender norms can influence an individual’s access to information and choice of solutions to strengthen their resilience to climate change. CRI is one solution among other mechanisms. Wherever offered, gender-sensitive approaches to CRI can be expected to improve up-take and impact among women and men.

There is no such thing as a gender-neutral approach to CRI. No climate risk insurance product and their delivery mechanisms are gender neutral. Nor are the policymaking and regulatory and supervisory approaches to these products and their distribution avenues. There exist gender norms that prescribe what are deemed appropriate and inappropriate social relations between men and women, which influence CRI scheme design, product development, distribution and servicing. As such, women and men are differentially impacted by the climate risks themselves, and model of CRI. There are many opportunities to achieve greater impact by adopting a gender sensitive approach to indirect and direct insurance schemes and related policies and regulation.

There is a clear policy imperative to address the gender dimensions of CRI. This is in the context of the converging policy entry points related to climate risk financing and gender, inclusive insurance and gender, and disaster risk reduction, as well as in the wider context of national gender strategies and social protection policies and the international sustainable development agenda. This will require knowledge sharing, collaboration and engagement to promote policy coherence between stakeholders from multiple fields, and to leverage what the various partners can bring to the table, from both the public and private sectors.

The Partnership can play an important role to support a more intentional implementation of gender-sensitive approaches in CRI models. While examples do exist, there is significant scope for existing CRI products at the macro, meso and micro levels to more intentionally incorporate gender considerations in all aspects of their business models. The Partnership can play a role to deepen information about the potential benefits, clarify the entry points, collect and analyse learning (what works, what doesn’t and why). Furthermore, it can also promote the policy rationale as well as the “social case” and business case to do so among the respective stakeholders.

THIS REPORT HAS HIGHLIGHTED HOW THE CONSIDERATION OF THE GENDER DIMENSIONS OF CRI IS ESSENTIAL FOR DELIVERING ON THE INSURESILIENCE GLOBAL PARTNERSHIP’S VISION AND COMMITMENT OF THEIR FUNDERS. TO MAKE THIS HAPPEN, THERE IS A NEED FOR FURTHER ACTION, STARTING WITH A MORE DETAILED EXPLORATION OF THE TOPIC AS IMMEDIATE NEXT STEP.

It is recommended that the InsuResilience Global Partnership takes the following short term actions:

› Commission a detailed analytical study and a series of case studies on CRI and gender, and create a dissemination plan to share the results. This would include exploring in depth the case for gender-sensitive CRI for different scheme and provider types at the macro, meso and micro levels. The study could breakdown the business models of CRI focusing on aspects such as product design, distribution channels, marketing, enrolment, customer engagement, complaints and claims processes. The study could incorporate a gender audit and analysis comprehensively reviewing a significant share of existing CRI schemes internationally. This would include stakeholder consultations with diverse public and private stakeholders in the field (including female representatives from each of the stakeholder groups) to provide inputs, test hypothesis and integrate their views. The assessment would show what works, what has failed, and what are open questions. It could also consider the extent to which gender considerations are integrated into each of the
emergency plans in place by the states signatories of macro level schemes. Finally, it could document insights also highlighting case studies of CRI examples that have successfully integrated gender approaches and generated important lessons. A dissemination plan, for example based on a series of short policy briefs on major outcomes, and other dissemination approaches, such as webinars, would be key to effective knowledge sharing of the results of the analysis.

Create a Partnership commitment or statement on gender and an accompanying action plan. The plan should be developed with all members of the Partnership, and can be based on learning from the success of similar initiatives such as the Denarau Action Plan. In turn, establish a specific work stream or working group (WG) in the Partnership to guide this action plan and engagement on gender and take steps to ensure that all other working groups in the Partnership address cross cutting gender issues related to their respective mandates in their programmes, knowledge products and events. Additionally, based on the outcome of the study, a gender toolbox or guideline could be developed. See Box 10 for suggested examples of commitments and actions to be taken by members of the Partnership.

Integrate a focus on gender in the Principles Framework for the Partnership. Integrating the focus in the Principles would ensure the cross cutting nature of gender is recognised. There is also the opportunity to include gender related indicators or sub-activities pertaining to each of the principles.

Over the medium term it is recommended that the Partnership:

Promotes the case and provides guidance on the collection, analysis and use of sex disaggregated data on CRI in partnership with others. This data is required at various levels – aggregated at a global and regional level, as well as at an institutional and product level by providers of CRI. For example, this is needed to close the gap in sex-disaggregated data on individuals in national catastrophe areas with insurance protection, as well as sex-disaggregated data of individuals covered by macro or meso level CRI products. This will require engaging with a range of stakeholders including with central banks and providers in the data value chain to incentivise its collection related to CRI products. There is also the need and opportunity to coordinate efforts to promote sex-disaggregated CRI data with international entities such as the IMF, Data2X, Findex and UN Women that are focused on enhancing sex-disaggregated gender financial inclusion and climate change/ disaster recovery data. Specifically, the Partnership could advocate for databases such as the Munich Re Nat Cat Service online tool to integrate sex-disaggregated data, where available, such as related to fatality rates and related to the population breakdown of regions and country profiles. In addition, it could also be valuable to identify the sex-
disaggregated financial inclusion gap at an aggregated level for the countries, within the V20 Group of Ministers of Finance of the Climate Vulnerable, which works to tackle global climate change.173

Engage at a global level to promote policy coherence among stakeholders with diverse entry points to CRI policy. Reach out to potential global partners in the climate change and finance, DRR, social protection, inclusive finance/insurance policy fields. This includes engaging with international development sector partners and networks such as A2ii, AFI, ILO and UN Women to ensure that gender and CRI is linked to their initiatives. Moreover, aggregate examples and promote efforts to integrate gender sensitivity into insurance education initiatives and seek avenues to advocate for gender-sensitive CRI at relevant global platforms and dialogues to advance visibility and global learning on the theme.

Engage at a national level to convene multiple policy stakeholders with diverse entry points to CRI policy. This can promote peer learning and policy coherence on constraints in women’s access to CRI, integrating gender considerations and strategies to enhance women’s access to CRI. For example, in national polices related to climate change, social protection, DRR/disaster management and the financial including the insurance sector. Specifically, advocate for:

- Social protection strategies and programmes to integrate CRI mechanisms that are sensitive to gender differences in vulnerabilities, risks and needs;
- Disaster contingency plans to include targeting mechanisms, which are sensitive to gender differentiated vulnerabilities, risks and needs;
- Incentives to encourage women’s uptake of climate insurance (financial such as premium funding, information and other);
- National Financial Inclusion Strategies (NFIS) to incorporate a focus on CRI as action areas, and sex-disaggregated indicators and targets to measure CRI uptake, and monitoring and evaluation of the gender differentiated performance and impact of these strategies;
- Embedding financial/insurance literacy programmes in DRM approaches at the local level and vice versa, embedding CRI in financial and insurance literacy programmes.

Areas of Potential Further Research on Gender and CRI

- What are the factors that influence gender differences in access to CRI and how do these differ across cultures and geographies?
- What are the gender differences in the benefits of CRI and impact assessments?
- What are product features that could incentivize women’s demand for CRI?
- Are there different gender preferences for the use of payouts and could payouts be complemented with additional measures that maximize their effectiveness?
- What are the key, long-term factors that determine the positive impact of insurance on reducing women’s vulnerability and contributing to resilience-building, specifically of female-headed households?
- Are there negative impacts of insurance including on gender-specific resilience-building activities, and how can these be circumvented?
- What are possible impacts of insurance on risk reduction activities and behaviour?
- What are further opportunities for innovation and synergies between insurance and social protection mechanisms?
- What are the most effective ways to integrate insurance in broader resilience-building activities targeting women?
- What are the outcomes for women that have used CRI? How can outcomes be maximised in a specific CRI model?
Further the academic gender and CRI research agenda in the framework of existing research initiatives. This can fill the gap where there is an absence of explicit and coordinated research engagement on gender and CRI by initiatives in the field. For example, the Munich Climate Insurance Initiative (MCII) does not have a specific gender research agenda. In another example, the World Bank’s Disaster Risk Financing and Insurance (DRFI) Program does not explicitly publicise or state how it integrates gender into its program despite the Bank’s gender strategy. As such, it is recommended that a specific research agenda is formulated and financed by the Partnership. Box 11 provides ideas for a first scoping of areas of further research, which still needs to be refined in the proposed Gender WG of the Partnership.

Establish a challenge fund (e.g. under the Global Risk Financing Facility (GRiF) or other programmes). Such a fund would encourage CRI providers to conduct market research on women’s barriers to access CRI and develop and pilot product design innovations. The fund would require providers to research and account for gender differentiated risks, needs and vulnerabilities and incorporates women’s views and expectations into CRI product design and delivery.

Support the participation of women working on CRI in relevant leadership training initiatives. Identify and promote efforts to enhance the gender diversity in the workforce of CRI providers, intermediaries, and regulators and policymakers i.e. the respective ministries and global as well as national task forces.

Develop capacity-building initiatives for diverse stakeholders. Offer training content and pilots for the variety of stakeholders, or promote such undertakings with others to share knowledge and technical expertise on targeting women with CRI and collecting and using sex-disaggregated CRI data for diverse stakeholders at global and national levels.

Integrate a gender-sensitive approach into baseline surveys, indicators and methodologies for continuous project monitoring and impact assessments. It is recommended that individual sex-disaggregated data is collected on CRI beneficiaries by private providers and in impact assessments of sovereign schemes. When household level data is collected, it is suggested that the sampling strategy deliberately targets female headed households, uses both male and female enumerators, ensures that enumerators avoid times in the day which are more sensitive for women (such as lunch preparation or water collection), and holds single-sexed focus groups. The Partnership can develop, test and be a role model in testing such an approach.

Produce guidance to support the gender sensitive monitoring and evaluation of CRI schemes. Analysing lessons will allow the development of tools for monitoring and evaluation of CRI for both the industry, policymakers and international development agencies and their programmes.
Endnotes

1 IPCC, 2018; UNFCCC, 2015.
4 Schaefer & Waters, 2016.
8 The UNFCCC is the framework of international cooperation to combat climate change by limiting average global temperature increases and the resulting climate change, and coping with impacts.
9 The Kyoto Protocol legally binds developed country Parties to emission reduction targets. The Protocol’s first commitment period started in 2008 and ended in 2012. The second commitment period began on 1 January 2013 and will end in 2020.
10 The Paris Agreement establishes the first international framework that commits states to take steps to keep temperature increase below 1.5°C, under which all states have agreed to take climate action on the basis of equity.
11 DCED 2016.
12 UNFCCC, 2016.
14 Adapted from DCED, 2016.
17 GIZ and BMZ, 2015.
18 Approximately 1.7 billion adults globally remain unbanked — without an account at a financial institution or through a mobile money provider.
21 Goal 3.8 “achieve financial risk protection”, 3.d Strengthen the capacity of all countries, in particular developing countries, for early warning, risk reduction and management of national and global health risks; 11.b By 2020, substantially increase the number of cities and human settlements adopting and implementing integrated policies and plans towards inclusion, resource efficiency, mitigation and adaptation to climate change, resilience to disasters, and develop and implement, in line with the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015–2030, holistic disaster risk management at all levels
22 G7, 2018.
23 G7, 2018b.
25 In the following, we always mean “women and girls” where pertinent.
26 Habtezion, 2013.
29 Soros Optimist International of the Americas, 2008; APWLD, 2005.
31 Baez, de la Fuente & Santos, 2010.
33 Soros Optimist International of the Americas 2008; Aracjo et al. 2007.
34 Swanup et al. 2011.
35 DFID, 2016.
36 Strand et al., 2012 and Van Kerkhove et al., 2011 in IPCC, 2014.
38 UN Women, 2015.
39 The Partnership defines the poor in the following categories: extremely poor are people living on less than 1.9 USD PPP/day; moderately poor are people living on 1.9 to 3.1 USD PPP/day; and the vulnerable as those living on 3.1 to 15 USD PPP/day.
41 World Bank 2018.
43 Figueres, C., 2014.
44 World Bank, 2012.
45 ILO, 2016.
46 Mehar et al. 2016.
47 Musha and Van Laerhoven, 2016.
49 Ashby et al. 2012.
50 UNDP, 2012.
51 WHO, 2011.
52 GSMA, 2018.
53 Fletchers & Kenney, 2014.
54 ODI, 2016.
56 Swanup et al. 2011.
57 World Bank, 2018.
58 DCED, 2016.
59 Demetriades & Esplin, 2008
63 GBA, 2018.
64 The IAIS Issues Paper Conduct of Business in Inclusive Insurance (2015) states that “Inclusive insurance is used in this paper in the broad sense of the word, denoting all insurance products aimed at the excluded or underserved market, rather than just those aimed at the poor or a narrow conception of the low-income market. In developing countries, the majority of the population is often classified as underserved or excluded. Thus inclusive insurance is a mainstream topic of relevance to the development of the retail insurance market as a whole”.
65 Delavallade et al. 2015.
66 Delavallade et al. 2015.
69 Ibid.
70 https://www.cambodia.com/.
72 Akter et al. 2015.
73 Akter et al. 2016.
74 Churchill and Matul, 2012.
75 The She for Shield report identifies five key segments: salaried women without children, working mothers, retirees, women entrepreneurs and low-income women customers.
77 IFC and AXA, 2015.
78 Tafera et al. 2015; Delavallade et al. 2015; Dalberg 2016; Akter et al. 2016; Fröhlich et al. 2018.
79 Akter et al. 2016.
80 Delavallade et al. 2015.
81 GSMA, 2018.
82 This data can help build this business case for serving women but does not address demand side constraints.
83 A male dominated industry: Due to its reputation of being a “male” industry, women find insurance a poor career choice, especially those who want to raise a family. PwC reports that out of 10,000 young professional women interviewed in over 70 countries, fewer than 13% would want to work for an insurer and 80% of women believe that insurance companies are not interested or serious about workforce diversity (The Jacobsen Group, 2014).
84 BMZ, GIZ, IFC & WWB, 2017.
85 UNISDR, 2015.
86 UNISDR, 2015.
87 UNISDR, 2005.
88 UNISDR, 2015.
89 UNISDR, 2015.
90 UNISDR, 2015.
91 UN, 2015.
The summary report of proceedings stated there was a strong recognition of the persistent gender gaps in disaster risk reduction. It calls to recognize as well as foster women and girls’ leadership, empowerment and engagement in the decision-making, design, planning, budgeting, implementation and monitoring of gender-sensitive and inclusive national and local disaster risk reduction strategies and policies by 2020. In addition, to provide adequate capacity building and education to allow women and girls’ to play a transformative role as agents for change in disaster risk management. There were also calls for women in leadership positions in the public and private sectors at national and local levels to foster gender parity in disaster risk management.

In 2018 an implementation guide for local disaster risk reduction and resilience strategies was published for consultation, to support Sendai Framework target E. It includes a case study on mainstreaming a gender perspective in local DRM projects in Makati City (Philippines). UNISDR, 2018.

Insurance belongs to mitigation strategies: (i) prevention strategies reduce the probability of an adverse shock occurring. They include investment in irrigation infrastructure that reduces risk of droughts or engagement in hygiene and other disease prevention activities; (ii) mitigation strategies are implemented before a shock and reduce the potential impact if the risk were to occur, e.g. through diversification of livelihood strategies or insurance; and (iii) coping strategies include financial services (individual dissaving and borrowing), reciprocity based schemes and social welfare programs to deal with ex-post effects once the risk has occurred. (World Bank, 2003).

Risk management strategies can be classified as prevention, mitigation, and coping. Insurance belongs to mitigation strategies: (i) prevention strategies reduce the probability of an adverse shock occurring. They include investment in irrigation infrastructure that reduces risk of droughts or engagement in hygiene and other disease prevention activities; (ii) mitigation strategies are implemented before a shock and reduce the potential impact if the risk were to occur, e.g. through diversification of livelihood strategies or insurance; and (iii) coping strategies include financial services (individual dissaving and borrowing), reciprocity based schemes and social welfare programs to deal with ex-post effects once the risk has occurred. (World Bank, 2003).

For example, Elabor and Carter (2015) surveyed the household head, the woman in charge of preparing the meals, and the woman having the youngest children in the household.

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<tr>
<td>92</td>
<td>Ibid.</td>
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<td>94</td>
<td>UNSDR, 2017.</td>
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<td>95</td>
<td>See: <a href="https://www.unisdr.org/we/advocate/gender">https://www.unisdr.org/we/advocate/gender</a></td>
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<td>96</td>
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<td>2018 // APPLYING A GENDER LENS TO CLIMATE RISK FINANCE AND INSURANCE</td>
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<td>UN Women, 2018.</td>
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<td>100</td>
<td>See decisions 36/CP.7, 1/CP.16 and 23/CP.18.</td>
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<td>101</td>
<td>Result of the Decision 23/CP.18 in Doha.</td>
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<td>102</td>
<td>UNFCCC, 2014.</td>
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<td>103</td>
<td>Initially, for two years, decision 21/CP.22 extended the LWPG to COP 25 in 2019.</td>
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<td>104</td>
<td>UNFCCC, 2016.</td>
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<td>UNFCCC, 2015.</td>
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<td>UNFCCC, 2017a.</td>
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<td>107</td>
<td>UNFCCC, 2017b.</td>
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<td>110</td>
<td>UNCCD, 2018.</td>
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<td>113</td>
<td>IIS is a global forum for all insurance industry stakeholders, with the vision to shape the future of the global insurance industry as a key contributor to the open dialog on the economic and social development of markets. See: <a href="https://www.internationalinsurancemedia.org/index.php/about">https://www.internationalinsurancemedia.org/index.php/about</a></td>
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<tr>
<td>117</td>
<td>AFI 2017, b &amp; c.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>118</td>
<td>AFI 2017a.</td>
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<td>120</td>
<td><a href="https://globalfinindex.worldbank.org/">https://globalfinindex.worldbank.org/</a></td>
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<tr>
<td>121</td>
<td>Demirgüç-Kunt et al., 2018.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>123</td>
<td><a href="http://worldmapofmicroinsurance.org/">http://worldmapofmicroinsurance.org/</a></td>
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<td>124</td>
<td>Azili, 2016.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>125</td>
<td>Apart from the insurance supervisor, other important public stakeholders in the financial sector are generally the Ministry of Finance, the Central Bank, the Banking Supervisory Authority, the Cooperative Authority and the Telecommunications Authority (when it comes to mobile or digital finance transactions).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>126</td>
<td>Azili, 2017.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>127</td>
<td>IAIS, 2018.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>129</td>
<td>The Compendium was prepared by the IFC Gender Secretariat, Finance &amp; Markets, and the Financial Institutions Group, GIZ’s Sector Initiatives Social Protection, Women’s World Banking and the Global Initiative for Access to Insurance on behalf of the German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ) in 2017.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>130</td>
<td>Azili, 2017.</td>
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<td>131</td>
<td>Azili, 2016.</td>
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<td>133</td>
<td><a href="http://indicators.report/targets/1-5/">http://indicators.report/targets/1-5/</a></td>
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<tr>
<td>134</td>
<td><a href="http://indicators.report/targets/2-4/">http://indicators.report/targets/2-4/</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>135</td>
<td>Strengthen the capacity of domestic financial institutions to encourage and to expand access to banking, insurance and financial services for all.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>136</td>
<td>Risk management strategies can be classified as prevention, mitigation, and coping. Insurance belongs to mitigation strategies: (i) prevention strategies reduce the probability of an adverse shock occurring. They include investment in irrigation infrastructure that reduces risk of droughts or engagement in hygiene and other disease prevention activities; (ii) mitigation strategies are implemented before a shock and reduce the potential impact if the risk were to occur, e.g. through diversification of livelihood strategies or insurance; and (iii) coping strategies include financial services (individual dissaving and borrowing), reciprocity based schemes and social welfare programs to deal with ex-post effects once the risk has occurred. (World Bank, 2003).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>137</td>
<td>IAIS, 2017.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>139</td>
<td>BMZ, GIZ, IFC &amp; WWB, 2017.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>140</td>
<td>Out of scope is a full stock take of all climate risk insurance schemes.</td>
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<tr>
<td>142</td>
<td>Note, this is not insurance per se, but index based social protection. Until now it has not been linked to a Sovereign Pool.</td>
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<td>143</td>
<td>Taylor et al. 2016.</td>
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<td>144</td>
<td>DFID, 2016.</td>
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<tr>
<td>145</td>
<td>Ibid.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>146</td>
<td><a href="http://www.planetguarantee.com/">http://www.planetguarantee.com/</a></td>
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<tr>
<td>147</td>
<td><a href="https://www.indexinsuranceforum.org/project/acresyngenta-foundation-sustainable-agriculture-kenya-rwanda-tanzania">https://www.indexinsuranceforum.org/project/acresyngenta-foundation-sustainable-agriculture-kenya-rwanda-tanzania</a></td>
</tr>
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<td>149</td>
<td><a href="http://www.visionfund.org/1501/where/">http://www.visionfund.org/1501/where/</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>150</td>
<td>PlaNet Guarantee, undated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>151</td>
<td>Ibid.</td>
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<tr>
<td>152</td>
<td><a href="https://www.indexinsuranceforum.org/project/acresyngenta-foundation-sustainable-agriculture-kenya-rwanda-tanzania">https://www.indexinsuranceforum.org/project/acresyngenta-foundation-sustainable-agriculture-kenya-rwanda-tanzania</a></td>
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<tr>
<td>154</td>
<td>ACT, 2016.</td>
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<tr>
<td>156</td>
<td><a href="https://www.v-20.org/about/">https://www.v-20.org/about/</a></td>
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<td>157</td>
<td>WFP and Oxfam-America, 2018.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>159</td>
<td><a href="https://www.microrisk.org/central-america/year-later-achieved-comes-next-2018/">https://www.microrisk.org/central-america/year-later-achieved-comes-next-2018/</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>160</td>
<td>ILRI, 2014.</td>
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<td>161</td>
<td>WFP and Oxfam-America, 2018.</td>
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<td>163</td>
<td>WFP and Oxfam-America, 2018.</td>
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<td>164</td>
<td><a href="http://www1.wfp.org/r4-rural-resilience-initiative">http://www1.wfp.org/r4-rural-resilience-initiative</a></td>
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<td>169</td>
<td>Dalberg, 2016.</td>
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<td>171</td>
<td>AFI, 2016.</td>
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<td>172</td>
<td><a href="https://natcatservice.munichre.com/">https://natcatservice.munichre.com/</a></td>
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<td>173</td>
<td><a href="https://www.v-20.org/about/">https://www.v-20.org/about/</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>174</td>
<td>A new Global Risk Financing Facility established by the governments of Germany and the UK with support from the World Bank to pilot and scale up support to strengthen the resilience of vulnerable countries to climate and disaster shocks.</td>
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<td>175</td>
<td>For example, Elabor and Carter (2015) surveyed the household head, the woman in charge of preparing the meals, and the woman having the youngest children in the household.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
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Weblinks

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