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THE PLUMBING OF ADAPTATION FINANCE: ACCOUNTABILITY, TRANSPARENCY AND ACCESSIBILITY AT THE LOCAL LEVEL

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The amount of international climate finance approved to help developing countries address the impacts of climate change increased considerably between 2008 and 2012.[1] Much of this funding has been mobilized as developed countries seek to meet commitments to provide scaled-up finance to developing countries under the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). Developing country governments have increased their own spending to adapt to climate change and enhance resilience, recognizing the risks that climate change already poses to their people and economies. But how much finance is actually available within developing countries? How it is used? Who receives the money? Is it reaching the local level? And are the needs of the poorest and most vulnerable being met? These are the questions that the Adaptation Finance Accountability Initiative (AFAI) tries to answer by analyzing adaptation finance flows in Nepal, the Philippines, Uganda, and Zambia.

CONTENTS

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This working paper outlines the methodology and results the AFAI project's first phase. Under Phase 1, AFAI aimed to map international-to-national flows and assess the national institutional context for adaptation finance. Key findings of Phase 1 include:

- From 2010 to 2011, commitments for adaptation finance increased in Nepal, Zambia, and Uganda, but decreased in the Philippines.
- In all four countries, the government was the main recipient of adaptation finance.
- Sectoral distribution of adaptation finance differed from country to country, but linking this to national priorities proved to be difficult.
- Nepal and the Philippines prioritized local development processes as one of the main drivers of adaptation, whereas in Zambia and Uganda there was a less explicit focus on local-level planning.
- In all four countries, organizations representing local government were included in national coordination bodies, but venues for local stakeholders to participate in national- and local-level decision making were not well-defined.

In order to discuss accountability for the use of adaptation finance at different levels and effectiveness of delivery, we propose five principles:

1. **Transparency.** Stakeholders are able to gather information about the use of funding and the activities that are being carried out.
2. **Ownership**. Stakeholders at the national and subnational levels decide what actions need to be taken.
3. **Responsiveness**. Resources are directed in response to the needs and interests of the most vulnerable people and communities.
4. **Participation**. Processes allow stakeholders (government, private sector, civil society, and affected communities) to provide informed, timely and meaningful input and influence decisions that affect them.
5. **Equity**. Actions must consider social inequalities and promote equality.

When applying these principles to the national institutional context and international finance flowing to Nepal, the Philippines, Uganda, and Zambia, we find that:

- Information about recipients and target geographies is largely missing. In order to effectively track adaptation finance from the global to the national and local level, more transparency is needed in terms of the details of project activities.
- In some cases, adaptation finance has contributed to strengthening ownership at the national and local levels by supporting and using national institutions to channel funding. However, there is scope for providers of climate finance to enhance delivery of adaptation finance through national institutions and financial structures.
- Based on the findings from Phase 1 of AFAI, it was difficult to assess the level of responsiveness of international adaptation finance flows to national and local priorities. This will be researched further during the Phase 2 country-level research.
- Most strategies that address climate change recognize the need to include local government into the planning and decision making. However, more information is needed about the actual involvement of local communities in decision making.
- Equity, especially gender considerations, seems to be driven by donors. The uptake of gender considerations into national strategies can be improved.

In Phase 2 of AFAI,the proposed five principles will be used to assess local-level delivery of adaptation finance. In this phase, we will track specific national-to-local adaptation finance flows and present a more detailed assessment of the local institutional context.

I. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Accountability for Adaptation

Since the 1980s, government structures have been characterized by a trend toward decentralization, which has transferred roles and responsibilities for service delivery to local government. While the results have been mixed (Faguet 2013), in many places the role of local government has become increasingly important. This trend bodes well for adaptation to climate change, since decentralization should, in principle, help ensure that adaptation initiatives are tailored to highly localized climate change impacts. No two communities have the same combination of exposure, vulnerability, and capacity to act; in this context, locally designed and implemented initiatives are more likely to address locally specific risks and vulnerabilities. Moreover, local authorities, other local institutions and actors are expected to be actively engaging with local residents and thus more aware of their concerns and demands for services. This should help to design adaptation interventions that are more responsive to the needs of the most vulnerable people—often the poorest and most marginalized from centralized decision making.

Funding for adaptation initiatives should be directed toward the local level, but the capacity of local governments to develop appropriate adaptation policies—as well as individual and community responses to climate change—are all shaped by institutional arrangements at both the national and local scales. It is critically important to understand the influence of these formal and informal institutions on "adaptive capacity" defined as the capacity of groups and individuals to design and implement adaptation strategies (Brooks, Adger, and Kelly 2005).

Governments, nongovernmental organizations, and individuals in developing countries are increasingly aware of the economic and social risks posed by climate change. This has resulted in the creation of a number of domestic initiatives, yet the degree to which these new institutions will help build adaptive capacity and resilience, especially among the most vulnerable, remains to be seen. Meanwhile, international negotiations under the UNFCCC are creating new international institutions that wield significant influence, not only on government activities, but also potentially on the daily lives of those most vulnerable to the impacts of climate change.

The international community has increased its financial support to developing countries for adaptation to climate change in recent years, particularly to meet commitments agreed to in the UNFCCC negotiations. Despite the current levels of adaptation finance, support falls well below both what is needed by developing countries and what has been promised by developed countries. Many developing country governments are increasing their own spending on climate change adaptation and resilience. In Zambia, for example, since 2007 investment in climate-change-related activities has averaged 7 percent of the national budget (Mulenga 2013).

To successfully focus on the most vulnerable people and the importance of directing adaptation finance to the local level, we have identified five principles of accountability at the international, national, and local levels: (1) transparency, (2) ownership, (3) responsiveness, (4) participation, and (5) equity. These five characteristics of accountability are consistently identified in the literature on aid effectiveness, good governance, and climate finance. They can be applied to a wide range of relationships at the international, national, and local scales. They are especially relevant to the aims of reducing vulnerability, building adaptive capacity, and strengthening resilience at the local level to help the most vulnerable people. The application of these principles is particularly important to ensure that adaptation funds meet the needs of those people who are most vulnerable to the negative impacts of climate change.

1.2 Adding Value through the AFAI Project

The Adaptation Finance Accountability Initiative (AFAI) is a collaborative research and advocacy project. The project began in 2012 and will be completed in 2014. It builds on ongoing work at the national, regional, and global level to monitor and strengthen accountability in adaptation finance. The project is being carried out in four countries: Nepal, the Philippines, Uganda, and Zambia. These countries were selected based on a combination of vulnerability, geographic distribution, diversity of public adaptation finance flows, and the presence of new initiatives focused on local institutions and directing adaptation resources to the local level. Oxfam, the Overseas Development Institute (ODI), and World Resources Institute (WRI)—together with Clean Energy Nepal (CEN), Institute for Climate and Sustainable Cities (iCSC, Philippines), Climate Action Network Uganda (CAN-U), and the Zambia Climate Change Network (ZCCN)—have teamed up to examine how climate finance is delivered at the subnational level, as well as to improve transparency and strengthen accountability in the use of adaptation finance. This is being done through a number of approaches and activities:

- Developing tools to enable civil society and others stakeholders to track and monitor adaptation and resilience finance flows from a multitude of sources down to the local level.
- Identifying institutional constraints to the effective delivery of climate finance to poor and vulnerable groups, as well as opportunities to empower local civil society to overcome these constraints.
- Building capacity, both at the national level and within local civil society, to advocate for improved transparency, coherence, and targeting of—and accountability for—climate finance at the local level.
- Taking a regional approach to scale up our pilot work within countries, and creating opportunities to share our insights and exchange experiences with civil society groups in other Asian and African countries.
- Distilling lessons from piloting these tools in Nepal, the Philippines, Uganda, and Zambia, and identifying good practices to make climate finance transparent, accountable, and accessible to national- and local-level stakeholders.
- Influencing global efforts to mobilize and implement climate finance, notably the mobilization of finance under the UNFCCC and the operationalization of the Green Climate Fund.

AFAI builds on other efforts that track various aspects of climate finance, including the Open Climate Network, the "Landscape of Climate Finance" published by the Climate Policy Initiative (CPI), the Climate Funds Update, and OECD's aid tracking reporting system. These initiatives track international flows to the national level, but do not look at the decentralization of funds or delivery to end users. By examining public finance for adaptation from both domestic and international sources down to the local level in Nepal, the Philippines, Uganda, and Zambia, AFAI contributes to filling a critical gap in the climate finance literature.

Box 1 | AFAI Research Phases

Phase 1

- Tracking of international-to-national adaptation finance flows
- Assessment of the national institutional context

Phase 2

- Tracking of national-to-local adaptation finance flows
- Assessment of local institutional context

The project's primary focus is to understand where resources are being directed to address the needs and interests of those most vulnerable to the impact of climate change. However, the initiative also aims to develop a better understanding of the characteristics of an enabling national context for local delivery of adaptation funds from the international and national levels. Creating an enabling environment is critical in ensuring that adaptation (and other climate) finance is used efficiently. By identifying institutional innovations and reforms that lead to greater accountability for climate adaptation finance, this initiative will also contribute to our understanding of what constitutes a good enabling environment for adaptation finance.

This working paper presents the results of the first phases of AFAI. The paper is being published to (a) gather feedback on the relevance of the proposed principles; (b) share our initial findings, especially as they relate to the transparency of international adaptation finance flows; and (c) raise awareness of the importance of directing adaptation finance to the local level. The first phase focuses on analyzing national institutions and tracking international-to-national adaption finance flows. The findings presented in this paper are based on (a) data collected by the country teams; (b) discussions in multistakeholder workshops (held in Katmandu, Manila, Kampala, and Lusaka in April and May 2013) that included representatives from government and civil society; (c) an in-depth analysis of international climate finance databases; and (d) a review of the secondary literature on adaptation policies and institutions in each of the four project countries.

In Phase 2 the partner organizations in the four countries will lead work to track a subset of financial flows down to the local level and further examine the local institutions shaping the delivery of adaptation finance. This research will contribute to global efforts to increase the accountability and efficacy of adaptation finance and develop tools that can be used by other organizations to track and monitor adaptation finance.

1.3 Outline of the Working Paper

Section 2 describes the conceptual framework of the research. We also explain the methods for analyzing institutions and adaptation flows from the international-to-national level. Section 3 provides a comparative analysis of national institutional arrangements and the extent to which they enable the delivery of adaptation finance at the local level in Nepal, the Philippines, Uganda, and Zambia. It examines national adaptation policies, organizational structures, and financial mechanisms, focusing on the allocation of roles and responsibilities to local government, how national agencies engage with these local stakeholders, and how funds are channeled to local government through annual budgeting processes and other mechanisms. Section 4 summarizes the results of the Phase 1 tracking exercise, analyzing adaptation fund flows from the international to the national level in Nepal, the Philippines, Uganda, and Zambia, both by recipient and sector. It also comments on difficulties in undertaking the tracking exercise, thus providing an indication of where improvements in accountability are possible. The methodology developed for this international-to-national tracking (described in Annex 1) offers a starting point for further tracking methods to be developed in Phase 2 to examine national-to-local adaptation fund flows. In section 5, we apply the five accountability principles (outlined above and further discussed in section 2) to assess international-to-national adaptation fund flows and national-level institutions. Section 6 draws some initial conclusions from the first half of this project and outlines the next steps for research and advocacy in the four project countries.

II. APPROACH AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

In this section we outline the methods adopted and concepts used to assess the institutional and accountability mechanisms in place at the national level and finance coming into the country for adaptation. These mechanisms profoundly shape the delivery of adaptation finance at the local level in each of the project countries.

Beyond tracking financial flows, increasing accountability for adaptation finance requires a deeper understanding of the institutional dynamics that affect the ways in which these resources flow and are subsequently put to use. In the context of climate change adaptation finance, there are three important relationships that get at the question of accountability: (1) donor and recipient governments; (2) national and local governments, and (3) the relationships between local governments and other service providers, and citizens.

Other relationships also are relevant, such as the relationship between donor governments and their citizens, but these are not the focus of this study. In the current phase of the AFAI project we will examine the national-level institutional context and international-to-national finance flows. In Phase 2 we will extend our research on both financial flows and institutional context to the local level. The same five principles will be used to assess accountability in both phases of the research.

2.1 The National-Level Institutional Context

The poorest in any society are often the most vulnerable to the negative impacts of climate change. There is greater awareness of national-level efforts to address climate change, but local institutions are pivotal in directing these resources to the poorest and most vulnerable. Understanding institutional dynamics, the ways in which local stakeholders access financial resources for adaptation, and how these resources flow from international-to-national and national-to-local levels is therefore key to promoting the effective delivery of adaptation finance.

Institutions refer to the rules, norms, and strategies that shape individual and organizational behavior (North 1990; Ostrom 1999). They are persistent, predictable arrangements, laws, processes, or customs serving to structure political, social, and economic transactions and relationships in society. Institutions shape both the impact of climate change on people and the possibilities for adaptation action. They may be formalized in government programs, organizational structures, legislation, and parliamentary procedures; or in informal arrangements, such as cultural rules for decision making. Agrawal (2008) finds that there are three main ways in which local institutions influence climate change and adaptation: they (1) influence vulnerability to—and impacts of—climate change; (2) link individual and collective actions to address climate change, and therefore the outcomes of adaptation; and (3) mediate external interventions and resources. The AFAI project is particularly concerned with how institutions and the national and local level shape the local delivery of adaptation finance.

Governments have a moral duty and usually a legal one, as well as a human rights obligation (where environmental hazards threaten the fulfillment of human rights) (Cameron et al. 2013) to protect their citizens from harm caused by environmental hazards (Beatley 1989). In some countries, governments are beginning to develop organizational structures to fulfill these responsibilities, as well as producing policies on adaptation that establish appropriate courses of action and responsibilities. These organizations and policies vary between and within countries. Because climate change is a multisector issue, responsibilities for adaptation should cut across multiple agencies; many are already providing services that support adaptation. However, in practice, the Ministry of Environment—often a weak ministry in terms of financial resources and political influence—normally leads on formulating and implementing adaptation policies. In countries where they have significant autonomy, local governments may also have mandates to develop adaptation policies and plans, and even the fiscal autonomy to implement such plans, but this is rare.

In this paper we examine three aspects of the institutional environment in the four AFAI project countries: (1) national-level policies and priorities, (2) organizational structures, and (3) financing mechanisms for adaptation. Each of these (discussed in section 4) can promote or hinder the effective delivery of adaptation finance at the local level. National-level policies and governmental coordination bodies or committees that take local institutions into account will encourage the active engagement of local stakeholders in the delivery of adaptation finance, while more decentralized public finance systems will make it easier for adaptation finance to be delivered through local government and other stakeholders. Overall this enabling environment is expected to be highly influential in shaping the delivery of climate finance at the local level in Nepal, the Philippines, Uganda, and Zambia.[2]

We examined national adaptation policies and priorities, focusing on the extent to which they recognized and identified roles and responsibilities for local actors in adaptation initiatives—from developing laws and policies through to implementation. We assessed how national governments engage with local governments, civil society, and other local-level stakeholders. The analysis of financing mechanisms looks at the ways financial resources are channeled to the local level, both those that flow through the regular public finance management system and those that flow outside of official government channels.

2.2 Financial Tracking Approaches and Tools

To date, climate finance tracking initiatives have primarily focused on the international context, while efforts to track domestic expenditures are nascent. The most comprehensive initiative is the "Landscape of Climate Finance" published by the Climate Policy Initiative (CPI) for the first time in 2011 and updated in 2012 and 2013 (Buchner et al. 2013). The CPI work represents the most comprehensive attempt to pull together information and analysis on climate finance including both public and private finance for adaptation and mitigation, its relative strength lies on the mitigation front and only examines flows at the national level. Initiatives like Climate Funds Update and OECD's aid reporting system provide greater detail on public flows for adaptation from the international to national level, but these initiatives do not look further down at subsequent distribution and end uses of these funds. The Open Climate Network tracks fast-start finance, but again only from international sources to the national level. Efforts to track climate-related public expenditures at the national level, which includes domestic resources in addition to the subset of international funds that flow through national systems, are in the early stages of development and include the Climate Public Expenditure and Institutional Review (CPEIR), civil society budget tracking efforts, and some trials of climate budget codes in the public financial management system.

A number of challenges and gaps thus remain. AFAI seeks to bridge international and national tracking efforts and will develop tailored approaches to tracking a subset of these adaptation finance flows to the local level in Phase 2. The analysis in section 4 represents findings from the first phase of the project and is preliminary to carrying out these deeper analyses of adaptation finance down to the local level.

This paper looks at totals and breakdowns of international-to-national flows of adaptation finance into each of the four countries. A full description of the data-gathering methodology can be found in Annex 1. We gathered data from publicly available sources, including the OECD CRS database,[3] the Climate Funds Update website,[4] and websites of multilateral development banks (MDBs), UN Organizations, international NGOs and other international organizations,[5] and domestic NGOs and networks of organizations working in climate change advocacy and research. By and large, projects listed in these sources were designated as adaptation by donors, not by recipients or implementers. OECD adaptation data was selected using the Rio Markers for adaptation. For donors that did not mark their projects with specific adaptation markers, we analyzed the project portfolio. Based on available project information, projects were selected that either mentioned adaptation in the project title or referred to adaptation in other project documents.

Junghans and Harmeling (2012) found that the marking of the projects by donors themselves is subjective and tends to overestimate the adaptation relevance of projects. Therefore all data was checked for adaptation relevance using a set of criteria, including whether adaptation was mentioned in the objective of the project (see Annex 1 for full set of criteria). Projects for which the adaptation relevance could not be confirmed were left out of the final dataset. On average, this led to a 17 percent reduction in financial commitments for adaptation-relevant projects.

2.3 Assessing Accountability

Accountability is a contested term, applied in various ways and embedded in the context of power relations (Newell and Bellour 2002). As a principle of good governance, accountability can be defined as the ability of relevant actors to take responsibility for the actions they have taken or commitments they have made, and of oversight actors to hold them to account for these actions or commitments. All governments and organizations that manage adaptation finance are accountable to the citizens of the recipient country broadly, and the intended beneficiaries of the finance in particular, as well as to those providing the finance, for the achievement of intended adaptation results, as well as for ensuring that appropriate fiduciary standards and environmental and social safeguards are respected. Accountability in government is brought about by having two sets of actors undertaking their responsibilities: (1) the accountable actor, usually a politician or government administrator who carries out a mandate; and (2) the overseeing actor, whose job is to monitor the accountable actor's actions and to hold them accountable when necessary. The overseeing actor can belong to another branch or department of government (e.g., the legislature) or be outside of the government, such as a civil society organization in a watchdog role.

Based on a review of the literature, we have chosen five key principles to help assess accountability in adaptation finance at the national level reflect. Similar principles have been identified in studies of international aid effectiveness, good governance, and climate finance that are relevant to our discussion on accountability for adaptation finance. The Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness and the Accra Agenda for Action, for example, contain some of the most important, internationally recognized principles on aid effectiveness (OECD 2008). ODI, on the other hand, created guiding principles for climate finance in the areas of fund mobilization, fund administration and governance, and fund disbursement and delivery (Schalatek and Bird 2012). Similarly, WRI has developed principles for channeling and implementing adaptation finance (Bapna and McGray 2008). While these principles are all important to adaptation, they have not been developed with a focus on national-to-local funding flows. Since this project is concerned with tracking climate change adaptation finance to the local level, using a set of principles framed by the local context is necessary. At the same time given the nature and complexity of climate adaptation finance, it is important to identify a core set of principles that are applicable throughout the various adaptation finance channels. A review of the aid effectiveness, good governance, and climate finance literature leads us to identify five principles:

Box 2 | **Five Principles**

1. **Transparency.** Stakeholders can gather information about the use of funding and the activities that are being carried out.
2. **Ownership.** Stakeholders at the national and subnational levels decide what actions need to be taken.
3. **Responsiveness.** Resources are directed in response to the needs and interests of the most vulnerable people and communities.
4. **Participation.** Processes allow stakeholders (government, private sector, civil society, and affected communities) to provide informed, timely, and meaningful input and influence decisions that affect them.
5. **Equity.** Actions consider social inequalities and promote equality.

Transparency and access to information often go hand in hand. Information about decisions on the location and types of activities—as well as financial information—needs to be made available so recipients can hold agencies accountable and make decisions on the best ways to spend these resources. This applies to both the local and national levels.

Ownership at both the national and local level is necessary, as it helps align external actors' practices with local strategies and ensures sufficient buy-in to deliver results. In terms of climate change adaptation finance, this means getting financial resources to areas that are identified in national policies and programs as being vulnerable to climate change and using national systems where possible to increase efficiency and reduce the administrative burden on recipients. In a forthcoming paper, the authors find that country ownership in the context of climate finance has three main characteristics: (1) international climate finance is aligned with national strategies and priorities; (2) decision-making responsibilities are vested in national institutions; and (3) national systems are used for ensuring accountability in the use of climate finance (Brown et al. forthcoming).

Climate change adaptation financing should also be responsive, meaning it should be used in a manner that responds to local communities' wants and needs. Responsiveness is often considered an important indicator of the performance of public and nonprofit sector initiatives, but given that adaptation finance is relatively new, it is too early to adequately assess responsiveness (Brown et al. forthcoming). Linking adaptation finance flows to the needs and interests of the country will serve as an early indicator of performance. Finally, equity and meaningful participation are both critical issues in adaptation finance. Vulnerability and inequality go hand-in-hand; in order to reduce vulnerability, the most vulnerable need to be engaged in adaptation decisions. The Adaptation Fund is the only international fund that has a strategic priority meeting the needs of the most vulnerable communities. Reducing vulnerability will require a particular focus on gender equality to ensure that adaptation activities do not exacerbate inequalities, fulfill the needs of women and girls who are often the most vulnerable, and support women's roles as agents of change in the adaptation process.

III. RESULTS OF INSTITUTIONAL ANALYSES

As a first step in our efforts to understand factors affecting local delivery of adaptation finance, this section examines three aspects of the national institutional environment in the four project countries: national-level priorities, organizational structures, and financing mechanisms for adaptation. These policies, structures, and mechanisms contribute to the national enabling environment for the effective delivery of climate finance at the local level. They are assessed and compared here across the four project countries.

3.1 National-Level Policies: Prioritizing Local Action at the National Level

Since signing the UNFCCC in June 1992, developing countries have mobilized international and national finance to address climate change issues at different paces. In many cases, the international negotiations have been the main driver of in-country action. In others, there has been a greater sense of urgency felt domestically to motivate climate action. A unique combination of policies, strategies, and laws has thus developed in each country, and the ways that local institutions and local-led actions figure into these strategies vary.

Analysis of national strategies show that the relative emphasis in Uganda and Zambia has been on vulnerable sectors and mainstreaming climate change into national planning, without an explicit reference to local-level institutions and planning processes. On the other hand, the Philippines and Nepal both make explicit reference to the importance of local institutions in their climate strategies and have prioritized local actions through different initiatives.

Nepal has taken two significant measures to support adaptation at the local level. The first of these is the aim to spend 80 percent of adaptation funds at the local level. This aim was first articulated in the NAPA (2010) and was also included in the Climate Change Policy (2011). The details of how to operationalize this goal, however, have not been articulated. The absence of detailed implementation plans has left many local actors to speculate about both the political will and practicality of reaching this goal.

The second major initiative under way in Nepal is an effort to pilot bottom-up approaches to mainstreaming climate change adaptation into local development planning, known as Local Adaptation Plans of Action (LAPAs). The LAPA process, which is supported by the UK Department for International Development (DFID) and the International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED), has been designed to address gaps in adaptation efforts at the local level and engage and empower communities in the adaptation process. LAPA in Nepal was initiated in mid-2010 to help implement NAPA and integrate adaptation options into development policy and planning processes. LAPAs, together with the 80 percent target, signal a firm commitment to local-level adaptation efforts in Nepal. Fourteen LAPAs have been developed through the pilot process, but it remains to be seen how financing for implementation will be accessed/delivered and if or how the pilot will be expanded to other localities.

Similarly, the Philippines has prioritized mainstreaming climate change adaptation into the local development planning process and initiated policies to ensure access to the necessary financial resources needed to fund adaptation at the local level. The National Climate Change Action Plan (NCCAP) is the only adaptation plan currently in place, but local government units (LGUs) are mandated by the Climate Change Act to lead mainstreaming efforts. Other government agencies are supposed to provide the necessary technical and financial support for local climate change adaptation plans (LCCAPs).The term LCCAP might not even be in the vocabulary of LGUs yet because of a parallel process to align local development plans (LDPs) with the NCCAP. This is considered by some to be a better alternative than overloading local planners with an additional plan such as the LCCAP.

In order to finance these adaptation plans, LGUs are expected to redirect some of their annual revenue allotment toward climate change. In addition, a national climate fund—the People's Survival Fund (PSF)— aims to make funds available explicitly to support local-level adaptation actions. Although not yet fully operational, progress has continued since the fund was first included in an amendment to the Climate Change Act in 2012.

3.2 Organizational Structures: Engagement with Local Stakeholders

Another important feature of the national policy efforts associated with climate change has been to articulate the relationships between various organizations, both government and nongovernment. In some cases, new bodies have been created to respond to climate change and ensure coherence and collaboration. However, many existing organizations have also been assigned critical roles. These organizational structures are not static, but are being created and re-created as efforts to address climate change are scaled up. The key national-level bodies in each of the countries are outlined in Table 1. What follows is a discussion of the ways in which national governments engage with local-level stakeholders.

There are three important elements to consider when examining the national-to-local organizational dynamics. The first is the participation of local government and its representatives in the national-level structures. The second is the local presence of different line ministries, depending on the roles they have been assigned in the implementation of national strategies. The third element to be considered at this stage relates to proposals for change or reforms to the organizational structure that are being considered to address climate change adaptation.

Participation of Local Government

With the exception of Zambia, which does not yet have an agreed-upon institutional framework,[6] all of the countries have sought some level of engagement from representatives of local government, as well as the line ministry responsible for local government in national climate change intergovernmental structures. Nepal, the Philippines, and Uganda have all taken steps to include representatives of local government in national climate change councils and bodies. In Nepal, the Minister for Local Development is a member of the CCC (policy making) and the MCCICC (coordination) has three local government representatives. Similarly in the Philippines, the Secretary of the Department of Interior and Local Government is part of the advisory board to the climate change commission, along with the presidents of the leagues of provinces, cities, municipalities, and the president of the formal association of barangays[7] (Liga Ng Mga Barangay). In Uganda, although the 2012 policy has not been approved yet, government departments and district authorities have seats in the proposed National Climate Change Advisory Committee (NCCAC).

Nepal is the only country where the ministry associated with local government and development planning has a seat at in the main climate change policy-making institution. The primary role for local government representatives in these new institutions in the other countries is at the coordination and implementation level.

Table 1 | **National-Level Climate Change Bodies and Stakeholders Engaged**

COUNTRY	RESPONSIBLE FOR FORMULATING NATIONAL CLIMATE POLICY	NATIONAL COORDINATION	ROLE OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT	CIVIL SOCIETY ENGAGEMENT
Nepal	Climate Change Council (CCC) headed by Prime Minister	Multisectoral Climate Change Initiatives Coordination Committee (MCCICC)	Ministry for Local Development is member of CCC; 3 Local government representatives in MCCICC	NGOs and academe have seats in MCCICC
Philippines	Climate Change Commission chaired by President	Climate Change Cabinet Cluster for Adaptation and Mitigation (CCCC)	Secretary of the Department of Interior and Local Government, and Representatives of each subnational administration level are part of the Advisory Board (not formalized yet)	NGOs, academia and private sector are part of the advisory board
Uganda	Proposed National Climate Change Policy Committee to be chaired by the Prime Minister	Proposed National Climate Change Advisory Committee (NCCAC)	District Authorities and Ministry of Local Government have seats in NCCAC	Proposed engagement in the NCCAC
Zambia	Proposed National Climate Change Development Committee (NCCDC)	Transitional Climate Change Secretariat under Ministry of Finance; Proposed working groups under the NCCDC	Local government is described as a constituency in the proposed NCCDC organizational chart	NGO climate network is a proposed member of the NCCDC

Presence of Line Ministries

Line ministries at the national level in all four countries have been tasked with implementing climate change adaptation initiatives; however, the local presence of line ministries varies from country to country and ministry by ministry. For example, in Nepal, agriculture, health and forestry ministries have outreach to the district and sub-district level. Other ministries, like those for environment and energy, do not act at the district level. Undoubtedly, this will affect local-level coordination and implementation of adaptation activities. Although is premature to judge the advantages and disadvantages of these organizational arrangements, it is likely that these public administration structures will affect the ways in which relevant line ministries interact with vulnerable people and other local stakeholders on climate change issues.

Organizational Reforms

In addition to the emerging national-level organizational arrangements, the climate change policies and strategies also propose some changes at the local level. In Zambia, there is no explicit reference to creating new institutional mechanisms or adjusting current mechanisms at the local level. However, in the Philippines, the enactment of the People's Survival Fund (PSF) requires new institutional arrangements such as the creation of a PSF Board as a venue for economic agencies—such as the Department of Finance (DOF), Department of Budget and Management (DBM), and the National Economic Development Agency (NEDA)—to discuss adaptation actions with other agencies and nongovernmental representatives. Both Uganda and Nepal propose district-level climate change focal points to be anchored in existing environment agencies/departments. The purpose is to encourage integration of climate change into development planning and to coordinate climate change actions at the local level. In Phase 2 of the AFAI project, we will look more closely at the implications of different local-level organizational arrangements for the delivery of adaptation finance.

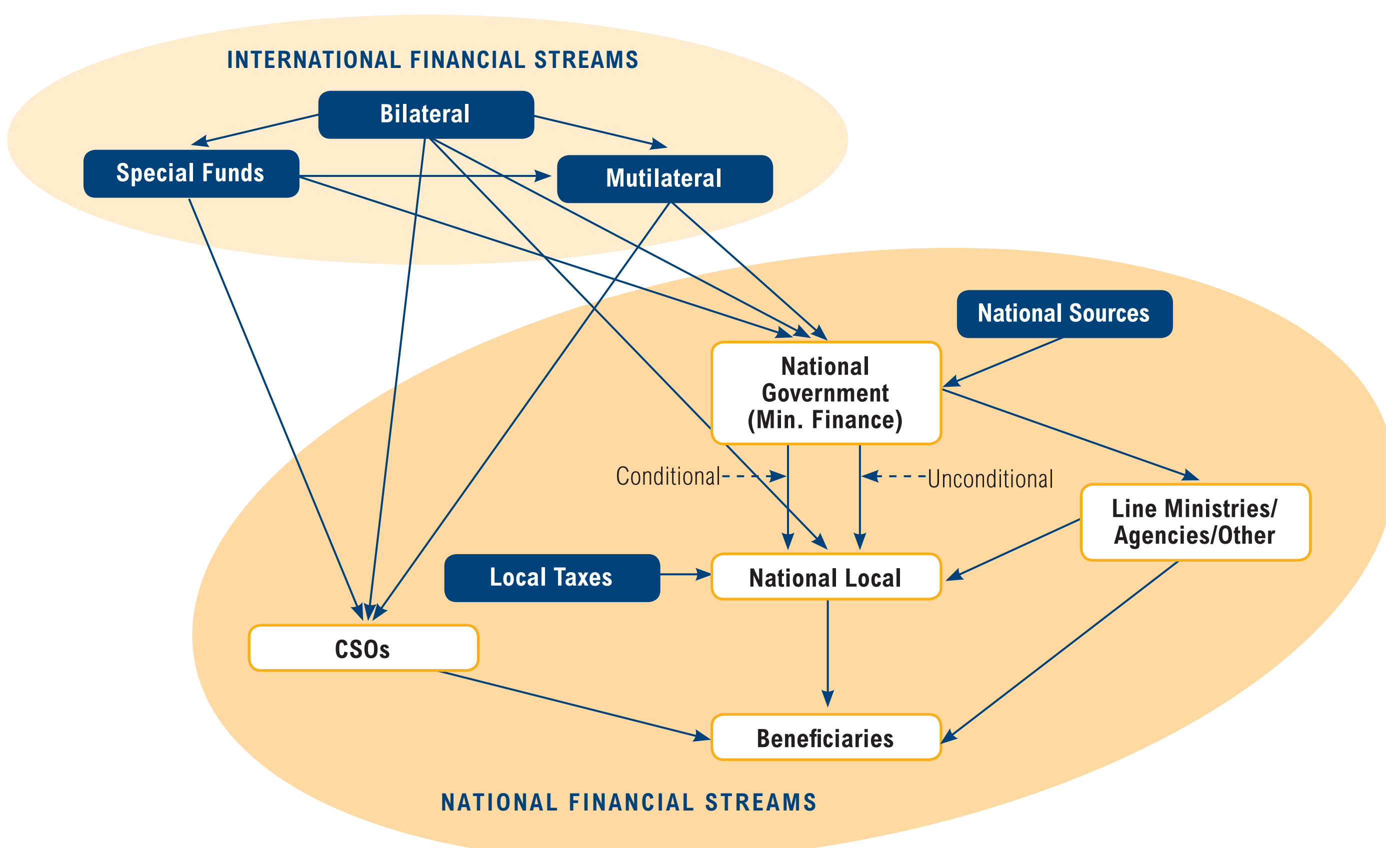
3.3 Financial Flows: Financing Mechanisms for Adaptation

In each country there are number of ways in which money can flow to the local level. The possible channels include regular flows through the public financial management system, project-specific funding channels, and special climate finance mechanisms. Figure 1 is a generic representation of the possible channels. It is illustrative and does not include every possible financial flow; for example, international funds may flow through national governments directly to CSOs or to the private sector. Infrastructure projects funded by the Adaptation Fund and implemented by the private sector are an example of funds flowing from a special climate fund directly to the private sector.

In three of the countries, there are proposals to establish special national-level adaptation funds to channel climate finance, although it is unclear whether this will encourage greater decentralization. In Zambia and Nepal, concrete steps to further develop the funds have not yet been taken. In the Philippines, the Republic Act 10174 (passed in August 2012) established the PSF—the country's first legislated direct access adaptation finance mechanism. The PSF has been explicitly designed to channel climate funds from national and international sources to the local level. It obliges the government to allocate at least $23.5 million to adaptation using internal funds, with international finance expected to be a secondary source of funding. Getting international funds will require stringent transparency mechanisms and strong institutional leadership by the PSF board. However, meeting the standards to obtain direct access to international climate funds has been challenging for most countries and sometimes an impediment to accessing international climate funds.

Figure 1 | **Simplified Diagram of Possible Channels for Funds to Flow**

International and National Adaptation Finance Flow Model



In Phase 2 of the AFAI project, we will examine the different ways in which adaptation funds are flowing to the local level through the various channels available at the national level. In all of the countries, interest in understanding the relative strengths and weaknesses of different funding channels was a criteria used in the selection of the research priorities for Phase 2.

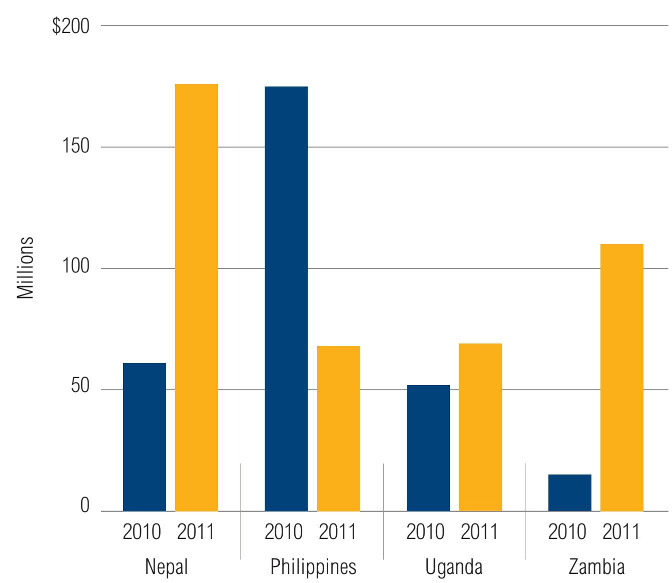
3.4 Early Diagnosis

The national institutional environments in each of the four countries are undergoing a number of changes, with new bodies being created to address both climate policy and implementation issues. These processes are complex, involve ongoing political negotiations, and will continue to be altered and renegotiated as efforts to address climate change progress. In this context, several institutional innovations could make a big difference for enabling decentralization of adaptation and associated flows of funds to local actors. These include new policy priorities that clarify the mandates and roles of local government and other stakeholders, organizational structures that involve local actors, and financing mechanisms that encourage decentralization of funds to the local level through local government, CSOs, and the private sector. As the AFAI project moves into Phase 2, findings from the local-level research will aid further analysis of the enabling environment in each of these countries. Additional questions that will be looked at include (a) whether the local-level units through which adaptation finance will be channeled are in the public domain and what their mandates are; (b) what capacity they have to coordinate the implementation of climate change interventions; and (c) what strategies exist for building different capacities that are missing.

IV. INTERNATIONAL–TO–NATIONAL ADAPTATION FLOWS ANALYSIS

In order to track adaptation finance from international sources down to the national level, data was gathered about international funding flows to the four target countries coming from OECD member countries, multilateral development banks, special funds, and other organizations. The analysis of the data is limited to commitments made by donor organizations in the years 2010 and 2011. Disbursement data are not available for most donors, and data for 2012 and 2013 were not fully available at the time of writing this paper. The data include both commitments for activities where adaptation is the main objective and where adaptation is mainstreamed in the project or program.

Figure 2 | **Total Commitments for Adaptation-Relevant Activities Per Country Per Year**



Source: AFAI country data.

4.1 Total Amount of Adaptation-Relevant Funding

In all countries, except the Philippines, commitments for adaptation-relevant funding increased from 2010 to 2011. The commitment value for the Philippines in 2010 is higher due to a considerable loan commitment from JICA for $113 million for reconstruction of the areas that were affected by typhoon Ondoy. Without this loan from JICA, the commitment to the Philippines would have been much lower, at $62 million.[8] Zambia, Nepal, and Uganda only received grants for adaptation-relevant projects. Figure 2 shows the total commitment of adaptation finance to each of the four countries for 2010 and 2011 combined.

4.2 Main Recipients

The national government was the largest recipient in all countries. In the Philippines, the national government even received more than 60 percent of the adaptation-relevant funding. In Zambia, Nepal, and Uganda, the share of funding going to the government was lower at 30 percent, 33 percent, and 42 percent respectively. In the Philippines, Nepal, and Uganda, donor organizations (either government agencies in the donor country or NGOs based in the donor country) also are significant recipients of adaptation-relevant funding. This does not mean that this funding will not benefit the target country, but that initially the funding is handled by an intermediary organization that is based in the donor country. Figure 3 below shows the percentage of funds received for each recipient category in the four country studies.

Figure 3 | **Main Recipients Per Country Based on Commitments Made in 2010 and 2011**

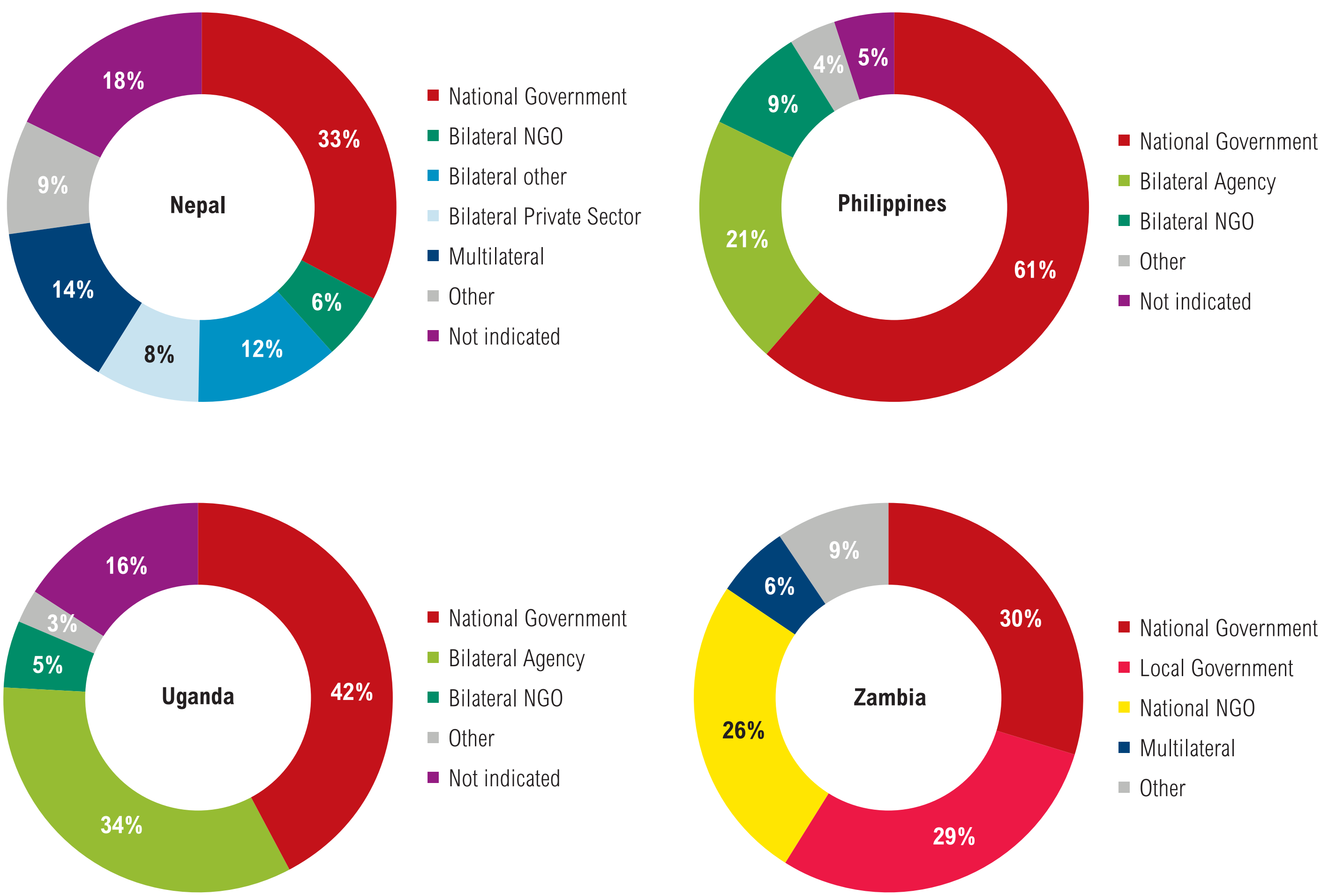
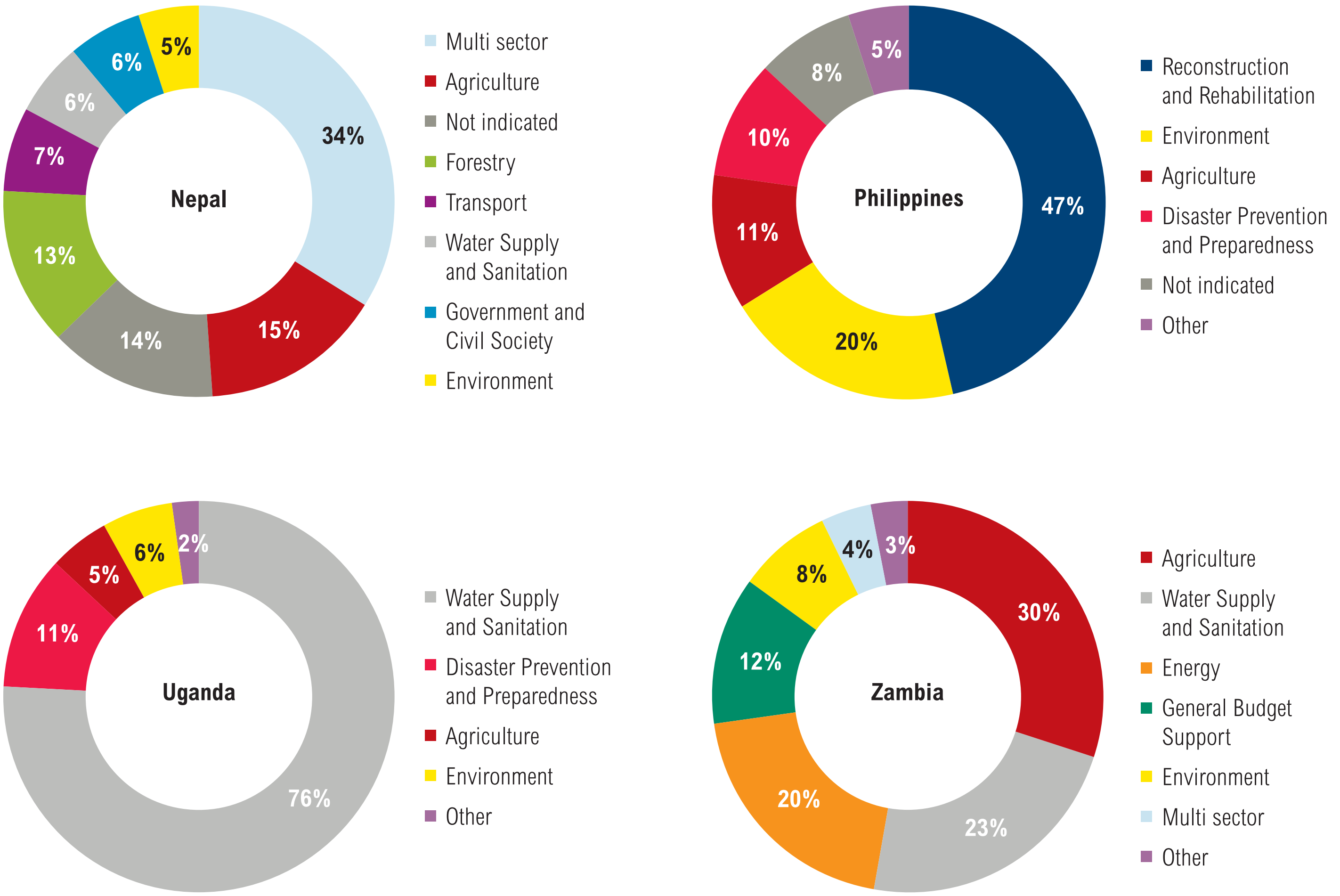


Figure 4 | **Sectoral Distribution in Each Country for 2010 and 2011**



In Zambia, approximately 29 percent of the adaptation-relevant funding goes to local government. The main recipients were Luapula Province and Ndola City, both for water-related activities. It is possible that some of the funding going to the national government is also targeted at local governments. However, information on secondary recipients is mostly not available, thus making it difficult to track adaptation funding flowing down to the local level without further detailed research.

4.3 Sectoral Distribution

The sectoral distribution of commitments for adaptation-relevant funding differs greatly by country. In the Philippines, although reconstruction and rehabilitation is not one of the priorities in the NCCAP, most of the funding went to a loan for rehabilitation of areas that were damaged by typhoon Ondoy in September 2009. In contrast, Uganda received the most funding commitments for water supply and sanitation. Donors in Nepal mostly labeled funding as "multisector" or did not indicate the sector at all. Finally, the distribution of funding over different sectors was quite even in Zambia. In Zambia, several donors marked their commitment for general budget support as adaptation-relevant, while the national institutional framework for adaptation is not yet in place. Figure 4 displays the sectoral distribution in each country for 2010 and 2011.

4.4 Summary of Findings

Given the way donors report their adaptation commitments and disbursements, it is difficult to assess exactly how much funding for adaptation reaches any given country. Unfortunately, the current data misses some of the larger multilateral and special fund data because most of this funding was committed in 2012 and later. Funding from these sources will add considerably to the total amount of adaptation funding available in the countries. On the other hand, more precise accounting of the proportion of climate-relevant bilateral flows on the part of the donors could potentially reduce the total amount of adaptation funding at the country level.

Except for the Philippines, commitments for adaptation projects increased from 2010 to 2011. However, the data show there are major differences between the types of recipients and sectors targeted with adaptation funding across the four countries. In Phase 2 of the project, more international data will be analyzed as information—from bilateral, multilateral, and other sources—becomes available.

V. ASSESSING ACCOUNTABILITY

Using the five principles described in Chapter 2, the international-to-national adaptation finance flows and national-level institutional environment are further analyzed here. The same principles will be used in Phase 2, to assess national-to-local adaptation finance flows and the local-level institutional environment to understand their effectiveness in ensuring adaptation finance meets the needs of the people most vulnerable to the impacts of climate change.

5.1 Transparency

The current climate finance landscape is complex, with multiple actors, channels, instruments, and objectives. The absence of a broad framework makes coordination difficult and raises questions about efficacy, transparency, and accountability. Information about adaptation funds allocated to developing countries needs to be made available so recipients can hold donors accountable for their international commitments and make decisions on the best ways to allocate resources to address climate impacts. Through the AFAI research, we note a number of issues both in terms of the sufficiency of the current reporting mechanisms and the quality of these mechanisms.

Information was gathered from a range of sources. The main sources of information on flows of adaptation finance to Nepal, the Philippines, Uganda, and Zambia are the OECD CRS database and information from special

Table 2 | **Completeness of Basic Project Information in the OECD CRS Database**

COUNTRY	TOTAL ENTRIES	PROJECT NUMBER (PERCENT)	SHORT DESCRIPTION (PERCENT)	PROJECT TITLE (PERCENT)	START DATE (PERCENT)	COMPLETION DATE (PERCENT)	IMPLEMENTING PARTNER NAME MENTIONED[9] (PERCENT)	GEOGRAPHY (PERCENT)
Nepal	153	100	100	90	90	88	65	24
Philippines	238	97	100	100	73	71	96	15
Uganda	216	100	100	90	78	79	76	27
Zambia	136	99	100	93	90	93	88	14
	Average	**99**	**100**	**93**	**83**	**83**	**81**	**20**

Note: The percentages in Table 2 are based on the total number of entries that are marked as having adaptation as a principal or significant objective over the years 2010 and 2011.
Source: CRS Database (accessed on July 23, 2013).

climate funds. Based on the analysis, we found that the quality of the data provided by donors could be further improved. Table 2 presents an analysis of the OECD CRS data. It demonstrates that detailed information that would enable one to identify particular funding flows is often incomplete. In particular, the lack of information on both recipients and geographic location in the OECD CRS database makes it difficult to start unraveling the national adaptation funding web.

At first glance the percentages appear to be relatively high for the majority of categories. However, after taking a close look at the names of the implementing partners—or "channel-reported name," as it is called in the CRS database[10] —the difficulties of tracking financial flows become evident. Most of the entries under the channel-reported name column include generic entries such as "donor country NGO" or "government." Table 3 shows that just over half of the entries include the actual name of a recipient. The lack of recipient information makes it difficult for organizations in the recipient countries to identify and analyze adaption flows from donors. This also makes coordination among different implementing organizations difficult.

Another significant gap in the data is the lack of information on the geographic location of adaptation projects. Only 20 percent of the entries have information about geography. As Table 4 shows, only in a handful of cases an actual city, province, or specific location is mentioned.

Without information on geography, it is impossible for local stakeholders to know whether a program targets their region or city, and it makes it difficult for a national government to ensure sufficient resources are being directed to the most vulnerable parts of their countries.

Table 3 | **Percentage of "Channel-Reported Name" Entries that Mention the Actual Name of an Organization**

COUNTRY	TOTAL ENTRIES	CHANNEL REPORTED NAME MENTIONED	ACTUAL NAME MENTIONED	PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL
Nepal	153	100	56	37
Philippines	238	228	135	57
Uganda	216	165	125	58
Zambia	136	120	95	70
			Average	**55**

Note: The percentages in Table 3 are based on the total number of entries that are marked as having adaptation as a principal or significant objective over the years 2010 and 2011.
Source: CRS Database (accessed on July 23, 2013).

Table 4 | **Breakdown of Geography in Database Entries**

COUNTRY	TOTAL ENTRIES	ENTRIES CONTAINING INFORMATION ON LOCATION	LOCATION IS MENTIONED AS "COUNTRY NAME" OR "NATIONAL"	GENERAL LOCATION IS MENTIONED; E.G. "ASIA," "VARIOUS REGIONS"	LOCATION IS MENTIONED AS ACTUAL PROVINCE(S), CITY, OR LOCATION NAME
Nepal	153	36	5	19	12
Philippines	238	35	1	9	25
Uganda	216	58	8	21	29
Zambia	136	19	4	11	4

In addition to concerns about the quality of data in current reporting mechanisms, there is also a broader challenge in terms of availability of key sources of information. Unlike multi-lateral development banks that publish most of their project documents, bilateral donors often do not publish detailed project information on a dedicated website. The OECD database is currently the only source of information that offers some degree of consistency amongst different countries, but it does not include project documents that could be downloaded or referenced, which hinders further analysis of the bilateral flows in the OECD database.

While the OECD database is an important information source, the data is based on donor country self-reporting. Currently there is no mechanism for recipient country input or validation of the data compiled by OECD. In the context of adaptation finance and accountability, this discrepancy between what donors reported as 'adaptation relevant' and what was perceived to be adaptation funding in recipient countries varied dramatically. For instance, in the Philippines, the government agency in charge of monitoring aid flows (NEDA), contained only a limited number of donor-supported projects that were marked as adaptation relevant, whereas the OECD database lists many more projects marked as adaptation relevant by donors.

Recipient countries have national-level systems for tracking international financial inflows, but it is only possible for national governments to really track resources when they are actually a recipient of funding (we saw earlier that many of funds have non-government recipients).The funds received from donors are frequently included in country budget reports, like the yellow book in Zambia, but any off-budget flows or funds that do not flow to the government would not necessarily be included in these reports. Currently, the budget systems in the four countries do not include specific budget codes for tracking climate adaptation finance. However, there are plans underway in both Philippines and Nepal to develop appropriate budge codes, and Nepal has recently completed a first trial of new climate budget codes to track national investments.

5.2 Ownership

Ownership by recipient country stakeholders is important to ensure that adaptation finance is used effectively and efficiently. This applies not only at the national-level in the relationship between donors and recipients, but also at the local level. National or Country ownership in the context of adaptation finance means: 1) it is aligned with national strategies and priorities; 2) decision-making responsibilities are vested in national institutions; and 3) national systems are used for ensuring accountability in the use of climate finance (Brown et al. forthcoming).Embedded in this concept is the notion of domestic accountability, which implies accountabilities both between national and local government, and between government and citizens. Hence the ownership principle is also important at the local level.

In some cases adaptation finance has played a role in building ownership in places where donors have supported developing countries in the process of developing their own policies and strategies to address climate change. This was done through various research and consultation processes and by channeling funds to support the implementation of these strategies through national institutions. The Least Developed Countries Fund (LDCF), by funding NAPA preparation in Least Developed Countries (LDCs), is one example of how climate finance has been used to integrated climate policies into national priorities and contributed to national-level ownership.

Elsewhere, countries have faced difficulty convincing donors to channel funding toward the implementation of their national strategies. Some donors have initiated new processes for developing their own climate change projects, rather than directly support the implementation of a priority already elaborated in an existing strategy. In addition, countries have faced difficulties attracting funds for the implementation of projects they prioritized in their NAPAs. Nepal, Uganda, and Zambia have received funding for 3 out of 10, 1 out of 9, and 2 out of 10 NAPA projects respectively. Overall, the analysis of international-to-national flows suggests there is a considerable volume of resources flowing into each of these countries; however, donor countries seem to be failing to align their adaptation investments to national priorities.

Another important aspect of ownership is use of the country financial systems to channel funds. A quick glance at the OECD data indicates that government is listed as the primary recipient of funds in some, but not all projects: 33 percent in Nepal, 61 percent in the Philippines, 42 percent in Uganda, and 59 percent in Zambia. We cannot say definitively that these funds used country financial systems, or that the projects that listed a nongovernment first-order recipient did not use the country systems. However, for now this serves as an indicator that a substantial amount of adaptation finance intended for these

Table 5 | **National Adaptation Priorities and International Adaptation Finance Flows in the Four Target Countries**

NEPAL	
ADAPTATION PRIORITIES	**INTERNATIONAL ADAPTATION FINANCE FLOWS**
1. Agriculture and food security	34% multisector
2. Water resources and energy	15% agriculture
3. Climate-induced disasters	14% not Indicated
4. Forests and biodiversity	13% forestry
5. Public health	7% transport
6. Urban settlements and infrastructure	6% water supply and sanitation
	6% government and civil society
	5% environment
PHILIPPINES	
ADAPTATION PRIORITIES	**INTERNATIONAL ADAPTATION FINANCE FLOWS**
1. Food security	47% reconstruction and rehabilitation
2. Water sufficiency	20% environment
3. Ecological and environmental stability	11% agriculture
4. Human security	10% disaster prevention and preparedness
5. Climate friendly industries and services	8% not indicated
6. Sustainable energy	5% other sectors
7. Knowledge and capacity development	
UGANDA	
ADAPTATION PRIORITIES	**INTERNATIONAL ADAPTATION FINANCE FLOWS**
1. Forestry	76% water supply and sanitation
2. Weather / climate information	11% disaster prevention and preparedness
3. Water resources	5% agriculture
4. Agriculture	6% environment
5. Wildlife	2% other sectors
6. Health	
ZAMBIA	
ADAPTATION PRIORITIES	**INTERNATIONAL ADAPTATION FINANCE FLOWS**
1. Land use (agriculture and forestry)	30% agriculture
2. Water	23% water supply and sanitation
3. Health and social infrastructure	20% energy
4. Physical infrastructure	12% general budget support
5. Energy	8% environment
6. Mining	4% multisector
	3% other sectors

four countries appears to flow outside of national systems, in some instances flowing back to donor-country organizations as a first step. This raises many questions about the volume of financial resources that flow to various levels and the proportion of funds that are actually spent at the international, national, and local levels.

5.3 Responsiveness

Adaptation finance should respond to the needs and interests of both recipient countries and their most vulnerable citizens. To date, the degree to which international-to-national flows respond to national priorities—as defined in national climate change strategies and NAPAs—varies. In Phase 2, we will explore the extent to which both national strategies and other climate change projects respond to the needs of vulnerable men and women at the local level. Table 5 presents national adaptation priorities in the four target countries and the percentage of funding flowing to a certain sector.

At this stage of the project it is still difficult to link financial information to the priorities identified in national policy documents directly, because the categories and labels are different. The data from donors seems to suggest that funding flowing to Nepal and Zambia is well-distributed over the national priority areas, whereas in Uganda and the Philippines there is an overemphasis on only a few sectors. However, in Uganda and the Philippines there seems to be an overemphasis on a single sector, namely water and sanitation in Uganda and reconstruction and rehabilitation in the Philippines. Funds allocated to the water and sanitation sector in Uganda come from three projects: budget support for rural water supply, the Water Sector Development Program Phase II, Kampala,[11] and the Global Climate Change Alliance (GCCA)-supported program Adaptation to Climate Change in Uganda.[12] The GCCA program is implemented in cooperation with FAO and focuses on strengthening the resilience of rural populations with an emphasis on agriculture. Therefore, despite being labeled under water and sanitation, both agriculture and water resource priorities seem to be addressed with the current commitments. These sectors are also two of the six priority areas under the Uganda NAPA.

In the Philippines, most of the adaptation-relevant funding goes to post-disaster reconstruction and rehabilitation because of the typhoons that have struck the country in recent years. Human security and disaster risk reduction are priorities identified in the NCCAP; however, it is unclear whether in this case rehabilitation of areas affected by typhoons should be considered adaptation, especially because in this case funding was provided as a loan, which has to be repaid.

All four countries mention "health care" or "human health" as one of the priorities in their national strategies and action plans. However, according to the data collected, no country receives donor funding for this priority. There may be some funding for health issues that is not labeled as adaptation relevant. This may be an area that needs more attention from donors and recipients.

Phase 2 of the project will look deeper into the question of how responsive donor and national funding is to needs identified at the national and local level, especially the needs of the most vulnerable men and women.

5.4 Participation

Participatory processes are essential to realizing these principles of accountability and ensuring that the needs of the most vulnerable are met. The principle was also included in the Cancun Adaptation Framework and forms, together with gender, an important part of this work stream under the UNFCCC.

The processes utilized by countries to develop their NAPAs, national strategies, and policies included various consultation and stakeholder engagement processes. All countries developed processes to engage a wide range of government actors, including civil society and in some cases the private sector.

In the Philippines subcommittees with representatives from across government and civil society met periodically to work on the program strategies developed in the National Climate Change Action Plan (NCCAP). In the case of Uganda, there were consultations with vulnerable people in the NAPA development process. Given the interest in local-level participation, some of the new planning and decision-making processes proposed in the four countries, such as LAPAs, provide an interesting opportunity for local stakeholders and vulnerable people's participation. In Phase 1 of AFAI, no detailed analysis of the level of participation was made. In Phase 2 of this research, we will look more closely at the opportunities for local stakeholders to meaningfully participate in the design and planning of adaptation interventions.

5.5 Equity

Inequality contributes to climate change vulnerability, and therefore, depending on the national context, different socioeconomic and cultural inequalities need to be addressed in adaptation projects (Kelly and Adger 2000). One challenge is that local institutions, both formal and informal, have a tendency to reproduce existing inequalities unless explicitly addressed. Among the range of socioeconomic and cultural inequalities that may be relevant in a specific location, gender inequality is common to all four country contexts. The first phase included a preliminary analysis of issues related to gender equity. However, at this stage there is insufficient data to carry out more than a preliminary analysis. Furthermore, national-level strategy documents tend to focus on vulnerable sectors more than people's vulnerability, making substantive analysis of equity difficult. In Phase 2, these issues will be examined more carefully and go beyond gender equity to include other locally relevant dimensions of social, economic, and cultural inequalities that contribute to vulnerability.

OECD has been collecting information on aid in support of gender equality since 1991. The analysis of this data suggests that more than two-thirds of projects that are marked as "adaptation relevant" also target gender equality. In both Nepal and Zambia, gender equity is mentioned as an objective in 77 percent of the projects. In Uganda and the Philippines, this percentage is lower: 63 percent and 57 percent respectively.

This analysis suggests that internationally, gender equity is being addressed in the majority of adaptation projects. However, national strategies, policies, and organizational structures do not appear to support gender equality to the same extent. Table 6 summarizes high-level efforts related to gender equity in climate change institutions.

According to OECD data, the projects in the Philippines have the lowest percentage of references to gender equality in donor projects. Yet a review of the national institutions indicates that the Philippines has taken the most action toward integrating women's representatives and gender issues into their policies and strategies.

Equity has many more dimensions and components than gender. The extent to which adaptation finance supports these will be explored in greater depth during the subsequent phase of the project, including how equity issues are integrated at the local level and the ways in which local institutions contribute to efforts to address inequality as part of efforts to reduce vulnerability.

Table 6 | **Inclusion of Gender Equity in Organizational Structures, National Strategies and Plans For Adaptation**

COUNTRY	WOMEN'S REPRESENTATION IN NATIONAL INSTITUTIONS	GENDER ANALYSIS IN STRATEGY	GENDER INCORPORATED INTO PLAN
Nepal	No formal position	No	No
Philippines	Chairperson of the National Commission on the role of Filipino Women is a member of the Advisory Board to the CCC	Recognizes women and children in rural areas; Mandates gender-sensitive approach	Some actions included
Uganda	Insufficient detail in documentation to determine whether or not women's representatives are included in the proposed structure	Mandates gender mainstreaming	Actions included in draft cost implementation plan
Zambia	Insufficient detail in documentation to determine whether or not women's representatives are included in the proposed structure	Gender is cross-cutting issue	NCCRS includes specific interventions

5.6 Summary of Findings

This initial look at international-to-national adaptation finance flows and the national institutional context raises a number of limitations to accountability. At the same time, there are some interesting institutional innovations that create possible opportunities to increase transparency and accountability. Overall funds labeled by donors as adaptation-relevant are increasing, but it is not entirely clear where these funds are going and to what degree they specifically contribute to adaptation efforts. The OECD CRS data is useful, but the onus is on donor governments to provide more detailed information about the projects they are funding under the auspices of climate change adaptation. Similarly, although national-level institutional arrangements for adaptation are still evolving, there are a number of potential areas for improvement, including improved domestic budget tracking and processes for ensuring adaptation resources reach the most vulnerable.

VI. CONCLUSIONS AND NEXT STEPS

Nepal, the Philippines, Uganda, and Zambia have all made progress toward addressing climate change adaptation at the policy level. However, the results presented in this paper reveal a range of issues and limitations to the accountability of the adaptation finance that has been delivered thus far.

The results of the institutional analyses in the four countries reveals that a number of important measures have been taken to address the impacts of climate change. Whether through policy priorities, organizational structures, or the development of finance mechanisms, each of the countries has demonstrated a willingness to engage local stakeholders in adaptation efforts. And there are some interesting institutional innovations with the potential to channel resources to the local level and really bring local priorities to the forefront of national strategies.

The research also reveals that there is diversity in national institutional arrangements. The relative importance and autonomy of local government, the local-level outreach of line ministries and the nature of the public financial management system all have a bearing on the institutional possibilities. The degree to which national contextual factors influence institutional arrangements appears to be significant. As the research moves forward, we will further explore the strengths and weaknesses of these institutions.

Like the international climate finance architecture, country-level financial flows are complex. There are a number of paths through which funds could flow to the local level. This complexity makes tracking adaptation finance flows challenging. In Phase 2, country teams will develop methods that address the challenges posed by this complexity in tracking specific flows from their source to their end use.

From the perspective of developing countries, like Nepal, the Philippines, Uganda, and Zambia, any efforts to be accountable to their own citizens for addressing the impacts of climate change are hindered by the lack of transparency and accountability of donors. The lack of clarity regarding what counts as adaptation finance, incomplete donor reports to OECD and UNFCCC, and the volume of adaptation finance that actually flows to recipients outside of the beneficiary country are just a few of the challenges that these countries face in trying to get an accurate accounting of the adaptation finance available in their countries. Donors need to be much more explicit about what they are spending their money on if these countries are to be able to make sure there are adequate resources flowing to address the needs of the most vulnerable and that these resources are being used effectively.

While donor support has undoubtedly contributed to the progress made toward addressing climate change in each of the countries, there are obvious areas for further improvement in donor practices. Beyond the transparency issues briefly discussed above, there are clearly gaps in donor practices related to country ownership and the degree to which we can assess whether adaptation finance is responsive to national needs and priorities. Not discounting the imperative for development interventions to be climate sensitive, there is an onus on donors to further justify their reported adaptation finance in light of national priorities.

At the international level our knowledge of local-level accountability mechanisms is incomplete, and in many quarters local accountability is presumed to be limited (Cabral 2011). Therefore these questions of accountability become increasingly important as the AFAI research moves the focus of inquiry to the local level. Not only are there gaps in information about what is happening at the local level, but there are also interesting questions about what this means for the design of international and national climate funds and how this ultimately affects adaptation outcomes.

In Phase 2, we will analyze national-to local adaptation flows and the local institutional context. Beyond trying to track where resources are actually being spent and which channels they are flowing through, the local institutional environment will be assessed using the five principles identified in this paper. More specifically, the AFAI country research teams have identified the following research priorities for the year 2014:

- The research in Nepal will take two complementary approaches. In the first, three special climate funds (LDCF, PPCR, and NCCSP) currently flowing into the country will be followed down to the lowest level possible. In addition, the adaptation finance flows in and out of three districts will be analyzed in detail to address concerns about the feasibility of tracking specific funds to the local level.

- In the Philippines, two domestic funds and two projects funded by international donors will be examined. Given the policy mandates in the Philippines to channel funds to the local level for adaptation via the People's Survival Fund and the Performance Challenge Fund,[13] these two mechanisms will be further examined. For the adaptation-relevant international projects, select ADB-financed initiatives in agriculture and natural resource management will be assessed alongside agriculture projects financed by the Korea International Cooperation Agency (KOICA), the largest bilateral donor for adaptation. Furthermore, a website will be created—Adaptracker.ph—that will show the flows of adaptation finance to provinces in the Philippines. The objective of the website is to make information on adaptation finance freely available to stakeholders.

- In Uganda, the research will focus on analyzing adaptation flows and the enabling environment in three districts, Pallisa, Bundibugyo, and Nakasongola. These districts were selected because they were prioritized in the NAPA and some adaptation activities and funds have already been spent in those locations. In addition, funds have flowed to those districts via different channels, enabling further analysis and comparison.

- Similarly, research in Zambia will focus on three districts considered to be especially vulnerable to the impacts of climate change. Resources flowing into the district and their subsequent use will be examined alongside issues related to the enabling environment.

This in-country research will provide further insight into how the accountable use of adaptation funds can be enhanced.

ANNEX 1. AFAI INTERNATIONAL ADAPTATION FLOW MAPPING GUIDELINES

Introduction

This annex describes the methodology that was used by AFAI partners to map international adaptation financial flows to Nepal, the Philippines, Uganda, and Zambia. The methodology involves six steps.

Any person or organization trying to map adaptation flows will be faced with the question: "What counts as adaptation?" What actually counts as adaptation and should be included in an overview of adaptation financial flows mainly depends on the national context. Some activities might be adaptation-relevant in one country but not in another. In order to come up with a comprehensive overview of adaptation funding flowing to a specific country, we used a broad view of what counts as adaptation. In this case, any project or financial flow that was labeled "adaptation" or "climate" by a donor or by the national government was initially included in the database. This ensured that as many projects as possible were included in the overview. Projects where there was doubt whether they actually addressed adaptation were marked. In follow-up steps, country partners were asked to assess whether the projects identified in the overview were indeed adaptation-relevant or not, given their national context.

To help track international adaptation financial flows, an Excel sheet was developed to record all relevant data. This data set provides the starting point for more detailed national-level tracking efforts, during which individual projects and financial streams will be tracked from the national to local level. The Excel file contained several tabs for entering information from individual donors and an overview tab with consolidated information on all adaptation-relevant projects.

The AFAI project primarily tracked public funding. On the private sector side, only funds from private foundations were included.

Step 1: Identify Adaptation Finance Sources

Most of the funding flowing from developed to developing countries is included under official development assistance (ODA). Therefore, apart from several special funds, adaptation funding generally follows the same channels as ODA funding. This means that in most cases the same sources of information can be used to identify adaptation funding as are used to monitor and track ODA funding.

In general, there are five sources of international adaptation finance, namely:

1. **Bilateral institutions** (bilateral donors)

2. **Multilateral institutions** (World Bank, Regional Development Banks, UN organizations, etc.)

3. **Special Climate Funds** (Adaptation Fund, Special Climate Change Fund, etc.)

4. **International NGOs and religious organizations (**WWF, IUCN, Caritas, Christian Aid, etc.)

5. **Private foundations** (Rockefeller Foundation, Gates Foundation, etc.)

There might be some overlap between the different funding sources. For instance, special climate funds are managed by multilateral organizations; international NGOs receive part of their funding from bilateral donors, etc. The first step in identifying international adaptation flows is to ensure that all possible sources of funding are identified. This should be done by first making a list of all donors present in the country. At a later stage, the relations between the different organizations can be identified and clarified. The different sources of funding are categorized as follows:

BILATERAL INSTITUTION

An institution representing a donor country. Depending on the donor, aid can be handled by an embassy or equivalent, a national development agency, etc. Examples are embassies and national development agencies such as UKAID and USAID. Most bilateral institutions spend their funding through their country offices. However, in some cases funding is managed by the headquarters of the in-country bilateral agency.

MULTILATERAL INSTITUTION

An organization whose membership is made up of member governments, who collectively govern the organization and are its primary source of funding. Examples are the World Bank, Asian Development Bank, United Nations institutions, etc.

SPECIAL CLIMATE FUND

Funds with their own board and management structure created specifically to fund adaptation and/or mitigation interventions.

INTERNATIONAL NGO

A nongovernmental organization that operates in different countries and whose headquarters are not located in the target country. Examples include WWF, IUCN, etc.

PRIVATE FOUNDATION

A donor that does not represent a government or multilateral organization and is created by an individual person or a group of persons to provide assistance. Examples include the Rockefeller Foundation, Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation, etc.

If a country has a central donor registry, then this is the best place to start with identifying the different donors that are present in a country. However, most countries do not have such a database, or data is lacking due to poor enforcement regarding entering of data by donors. In this case it will be necessary to look for information on the internet or through meetings with donor organization or line ministries that might have sector specific project information.

Bilateral Organizations

Most donor organizations report to the OECD. A good starting point is therefore the OECD CRS database.[14] The complete data set can be downloaded under [Export/Related Files]. Here you will find Zip files with the CRS data. The CRS database is updated throughout the year. The most complete overview can be obtained end of December. However, this update usually covers the information from the preceding year and not from the current year. This means that 2012 data will only be fully available at the end of 2013. The CRS data in the Zip file is stored in CVS format. This can easily be imported into Excel. The explanation of the different CRS codes can be found on the following website: http://www.oecd.org/dac/aidstatistics/whatiscrsandguidelinesforreporting.htm.

The CRS database gives an overview of donors that report to the OECD and that are present in a particular country. The database can be used to identify donors that marked their programs with the Rio markers. The Rio markers[15] give an indication whether adaptation is the primary objective of the project or program (marked as 2), whether adaptation is a secondary objective (marked as 1), or whether the program does not address adaptation at all (marked as 0 or not marked).

The next step will be to identify donors that do not report to the OECD. A good source of information for this is the AidData website: <http://aiddata.org/content/index/data-search>. After selecting the recipient country, it is possible to get an overview of the financial flows on the tab [Financial Flows]. This page lists the total flow for all donor sources and includes generally more data than the CRS database.

UN Agencies

A good source of information regarding the UN Agencies is the UN Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF). The UNDAF can be found on the following website: <www.undg.org>. The UNDAF can be found under [UN Country Teams]. Note that this is an indicative framework and does not represent actual projects and actual budgets.

Multilateral Development Banks (MDBs)

Multilateral development banks such as the World Bank, African Development Bank, and Asian Development Bank usually publish a database of all the funded activities on their websites. This information can be used for the MDBs of each country of interest. The different databases can be found here:

WORLD BANK

http://go.worldbank.org/IAHNQIVK30

ASIAN DEVELOPMENT BANK

http://www.adb.org/projects/search

AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT BANK

http://www.afdb.org/en/projects-and-operations/project-portfolio/

INTER-AMERICAN DEVELOPMENT BANK

http://www.iadb.org/en/projects

International Aid Transparency Initiative (IATI)

The IATI Registry: <http://www.iatiregistry.org/dataset> is another useful source of donors, civil society organizations, and recipient governments that report aid information in an XML data standard. In this exercise, this source was used to find UNDP and WB spending on adaptation finance, as well as projects implemented by NGOs that report to IATI.

Special Funds

An overview of funding provided by special funds can be found on the following website: <http://www.climatefundsupdate.org/> or on the site of the different special funds. Information on the LDCF and the SCCF can be found on the website of the Global Environment Facility: <http://www.thegef.org/gef/gef_projects_funding>.

International NGOs and Foundations

Some international NGOs report to the IATI, but most international NGOs do not report their activities using a central database. The same accounts for most foundations. To obtain information from international NGOs, it is necessary to identify the different NGOs working in a country and visit their websites or country offices to obtain funding information. In most cases, though, the funding from international NGOs comes from bilateral sources, in which case the funding is captured in other databases such as the OECD CRS and the IATI database.

Overview of Information Sources

Table A-1 shows where to look for information about a particular funder type. Care should be taken to avoid double counting of contributions. Most of the website listed here provide similar information but present it in a different format. For instance, a bilateral donor might channel its funding through a multilateral (or another bilateral) organization. Both might report their information to the CRS database or on the Fast Start Finance website. In this case, the funding should be mentioned once. In order to avoid double counting, the source of the funding should be mentioned and not the intermediary. In the database used for the AFAI project, a column called "Fund to Fund Transfer" was included to indicate whether funding was transferred to another donor organization. This allowed for tracking of flow of funds from "funds to funds" and prevent double counting of financial flows.

Step 2: Identifying Adaptation-Relevant Projects and Programs

After identifying all possible sources of international finance, all adaptation-relevant projects and programs must be identified. For the AFAI project, the information from the OECD database was entered in an Excel file. To facilitate analysis of the data, an overview tab was created which contains only a limited number of categories (see Table A-2 for the categories used).

Table A-1 | **Overview of sources of information about adaptation projects from different funder types**

FUNDER TYPE	WHERE TO LOOK FOR INFORMATION
Overview (multiple funders)	■ UNFCCC Finance Portal for Climate Change: http://www3.unfccc.int/pls/apex/f?p=116:1 ■ Fast Start Finance: http://www.faststartfinance.org/ ■ OECD CRS Database (Adaptation marker 1 & 2) ■ Review of Current and Planned Adaptation Action series by the Adaptation Partnership ■ Aid Flows: www.aidflows.org ■ IATI: http://iatiregistry.org/dataset (includes some INGOs)
Bilateral	■ National or specialized agency project database ■ Identify bilateral donors at country level; visit donor country websites and look for project data; visit headquarter website and look for project data ■ Visit bilateral donor country office
Multilateral	■ World Bank: http://finances.worldbank.org ■ World Bank: www.worldbank.org/countries ■ World Bank: http://go.worldbank.org/IAHNQIVK30 ■ Asian Development Bank: www.adb.org/countries ■ Asian Development Bank: http://www.adb.org/projects/search ■ African Development Bank: http://www.afdb.org/en/projects-and-operations/project-portfolio/ ■ Inter-American Development Bank: http://www.iadb.org/en/projects ■ UNICEF: http://www.unicef.org/about/execboard/index_25993.html ■ UN Development Assistance Framework: http://www.undg.org/ ■ UNDP: https://data.undp.org
Special Funds	■ Climate Funds Update ■ National donor database ■ Websites of individual funds ■ Adaptation Fund: https://www.adaptation-fund.org/ ■ https://www.climateinvestmentfunds.org ■ LDCF and SCCF: http://www.thegef.org/gef/project_list
Other sources of information	■ Nordic Development Fund: www.ndf.fi ■ OPEC Fund for International Development: www.ofid.org ■ InterAction (http://www.interaction.org/) ■ AidData (http://www.aiddata.org/content/index) ■ WeAdapt (http://weadapt.org/)

ENTERING OECD DATA

Identifying adaptation-relevant projects from donors that report to the OECD is relatively straightforward. OECD donors use the Rio markers to indicate whether a project is adaptation-relevant or not. Unfortunately, not all OECD donors were equally diligent in entering their information into the database. In these cases, further information was sought on donor websites. However, even on country websites this information cannot always be found. In such a case, we attempted to collect the missing information by visiting the donor in question in the target country.

For some projects that were marked with the adaptation marker, it was difficult to assess whether the activity was really adaptation-relevant or not. In the tab with the detailed OECD information, these activities were marked in orange and the revised adaptation-relevance classification was recorded in a separate column in the overview sheet. During the AFAI project, the following criteria were used to determine whether the adaptation-relevance of an activity should be revised:

- Unclear title with missing long and short description.
- If a project was marked as having a primary focus on adaptation but no reference was made to adaptation in the title or project description.
- If a project was marked as having a significant focus on adaptation but the focal area or objective did not have a direct link to adaptation; examples include sectors such as conflict prevention.
- Projects that, judging from the title and/or description, had a focus on mitigation and did not mention adaptation in the short or long description. Examples include renewable energy projects that were marked as mitigation and adaptation but did not mention adaptation in the description.

Sometimes donors clearly mislabeled a project; for instance, when the target country was entered incorrectly. These projects were marked with red and were not used in the analysis of the adaptation finance flows. In the Philippines and Zambia, the country teams contacted donors to request more information about activities where it was difficult to assess whether they were adaptation-relevant or not.

ENTERING INFORMATION FROM OTHER DONORS

Information for donors that do not report to the OECD is often scattered and not always complete. For multilateral organizations such as the World Bank and the United Nations Institutions, project information can usually be found on their (country) websites. Currently, most multilateral donors do not indicate whether a project has a focus on adaptation or not. In these cases, all project information from a certain multilateral donor was copied to the Excel sheet. Subsequently, the available project information was screened for a link to adaptation. As a first step, projects that did not have an obvious link to adaptation were removed. These projects included, for instance, projects focusing on elementary and higher education, and peacekeeping. During the next step, detailed project information from the remaining projects was studied to determine whether projects had a link to adaptation. For most projects the documentation can be found online on country websites of donors. If a project mentioned climate change and adaptation in the project documents, either as a primary or secondary objective, it was judged to have a link to adaptation. Other indicators are when a climate vulnerability assessment and/or an options analysis were carried-out during the project preparation phase. For marking the adaptation-relevance of the project, the following methodology was used. A project was marked with:

- 2 if the main objective of the project was adaptation
- 1 if adaptation was mentioned but not the primary objective of the project or program
- 0 if no reference to adaptation was made.

Similar to the bilateral-funded projects, country partners contacted the multilateral organization to ask clarification and confirmation whether projects were adaptation-relevant or not. In 2012, the multilateral development banks launched an initiative to track adaptation and mitigation spending in their own programs. This tracking should, if it is made publicly available, help considerably in identifying adaptation-relevant projects and programs.

Step 3: Transferring the data to the overview tab

An overview tab was included in the Excel file. This tab contained only a limited number of categories to ease comparability of the data and facilitate further analysis. Because the end goal was to track how much money was currently flowing into a country, only information from projects active in 2010 and 2011 was entered in the overview tab.

The overview tab contained several columns that needed special attention. Two columns are named “Adaptation relevance as marked by donor” and “Revised adaptation relevance.” The first column was used to indicate whether a donor marked a project as adaptation-relevant. In the second column the revised adaptation relevance can be entered, which should be based on analysis of project information. These two columns were included to facilitate an analysis of what donors mark as adaptation-relevant against what is actually adaptation-relevant given the national context.

Another column was added with the title “National / Regional.” This column was used to indicate whether a project focused solely on the target country or whether the project had a regional (multiple countries) focus. For regional projects it was very difficult to determine which part of the funding was actually going to the target country. For this reason a distinction was made between these two types of projects, which allowed for easy extraction of regional data from the complete dataset.

Table A-2 | **Excel Columns for Data Compilation**

COLUMN	TYPE	CATEGORIES
A	Source	CRS 2010, CRS 2012, IATI, etc.
B	Donor name	Name
C	Agency	Name of the specific agency of the donor
D	Donor type	■ Bilateral ■ Multilateral ■ Special Fund ■ iNGO ■ Private Fund ■ Other
E	Project number	
F	Project name	
G	Project description	
H	Adaptation relevance as marked by donor	■ NA – not mentioned ■ 1 – substantial ■ 2 – primary objective
I	Revised adaptation relevance	■ 0 – not relevant ■ 1 – substantial ■ 2 – primary objective
J	Nat/Reg	Indicate whether project is national or part of a regional project with multiple countries
K	Sector 1	Target sector (use OECD descriptions)
L	Sector 2	Target sector (use OECD descriptions)
M	Sector 3	Target sector (use OECD descriptions)
N	Currency	USD
O	Total Commitment (in USD)	
P	Commitment year	YYYY
Q	Total Disbursement (in USD)	
R	Disbursement year	YYYY
S	Location	Indicate geographical location if possible
T	Recipient	Recipient of the funding
U	Recipient type	■ Multilateral (M) ■ Recipient Other (RO) ■ Recipient Government National (RGN) ■ Donor Government National (DGN) ■ Recipient Government sub-national (RGS) ■ Donor Government sub-National (DGS) ■ Recipient Government other (RGO) ■ Donor Government other (DGO) ■ Recipient NGO (RN) ■ Donor NGO (DN) ■ Recipient Private (RP) ■ Donor Private (DP)

Another column entitled "recipient type" was added. This column is meant to facilitate analysis of the flow of funds from donor to recipient. The possible recipients should be grouped into a limited number of categories. These categories were the following:

- Multilateral organization (M)
- Recipient government national (RGN)
- Recipient government subnational (RGS)
- Recipient government other (RGO)
- Recipient NGO (RN)
- Recipient private sector organization (RP)
- Recipient other organization (RO)
- Donor government national (DGN)
- Donor government subnational (DGS)
- Donor government other (DGO)
- Donor country-based NGO (DN)
- Donor country private sector organization(DP)
- Donor country other organization (DO)
- International NGO (IN)
- International private sector organization (IP)
- International organization other (IO)
- Other / unidentified organization (O)
- Special fund (SF)

The grouping into categories made it easier to develop an overview of the flow of funds (see next step).

Step 4: Identify Recipients and Funding Flow

In order to unravel the funding flows at the national level, the first and higher order recipients of the different funding sources were identified. For instance, a bilateral donor gives project support to the Ministry of Environment for an adaptation activity. In this case, the Ministry of Environment is the first-order recipient. In order to facilitate identification of the recipients, only broad categories of recipients were used. The categories are mentioned under Step 3. The identification of the first-order recipients will help in subsequent tracking efforts when trying to follow the funding from the national to the local level.

The focus was on capturing the actual stream of funding, not responsibilities or project (steering) arrangements. Rough figures for actual funding transfers can be added to the different funding flows, but this is not necessary at this stage. The main reason for the mapping is to facilitate communication of the results. Mapping the flow of funding in this way also provides as good list of sources from which to gather data in order to track funding in more detail. The funding flow map can be a relatively simple flow or a complex web with multiple recipients and links.

Step 5: Analysis of the Data

The data was analyzed using "Pivot Tables" in Excel. The analysis needed depends on the country context and advocacy priorities. Pivot tables helped in generating overviews in a short period of time using multiple criteria. For this phase of the project, overviews were made that showed the total amount of funding flowing to a country, the main recipients of adaptation finance, and the main target sectors.

Using the flow of funds from donor type to primary recipient, it was possible to start unraveling the funding web. The actual analysis depended on the country context and advocacy strategy. The Excel overview provided the basis for these analyses.

ACRONYMS

ADB	Asian Development Bank
AFAI	Adaptation Finance Accountability Initiative
CAN-U	Climate Action Network Uganda
CCC	Climate Change Council (Nepal)
CCC	Climate Change Commission (Philippines)
CEN	Climate Energy Nepal
CPEIR	Climate Public Expenditure and Institutional Review
CPI	Climate Policy Initiative
CSO	Civil society organizations
DAC	OECD Development Assistance Committee
DFID	UK Department for International Development
DOF	Department of Finance
DBM	Department of Budget and Management
GCCA	Global Climate Change Alliance
IATI	International Aid Transparency Initiative
iCSC	Institute for Climate and Sustainable Cities
IUCN	International Union for Conservation of Nature
KOICA	Korea International Cooperation Agency
LAPA	Local Adaptation Plans of Action (Nepal)
LCCAP	Local Climate Change Action Plan (Philippines)
LDC	Least development country
LDCF	Least Developed Countries Fund
LDP	Local Development Plans (Philippines)
LGU	Local government unit
MCCICC	Multi-sectoral Climate Change Initiatives Coordination Committee
MDB	Multilateral development bank
NAPA	National Adaptation Programs of Action
NCCAC	National Climate Change Advisory Committee (Uganda)
NCCAP	National Climate Change Action Plan
NCCDC	National Climate Change Development Committee (Zambia)
NCCRS	National Climate Change Response Strategy (Zambia
NEDA	National Economic Development Agency
NGO	Nongovernmental organization
ODA	Official development assistance
ODI	Overseas Development Institute
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OECD CRS	OECD Contributor Reporting System
PPCR	Pilot Project on Climate Resilience
PSF	People's Survival Fund
SCCF	Special Climate Change Fund
UNDAF	United Nations Development Assistance Framework
UNFCCC	United Framework Convention on Climate Change
WRI	World Resources Institute
WWF	World Wide Fund for Nature
ZCCN	Zambia Climate Change Network

Note: Unless otherwise indicated, all dollars are U.S. dollars.

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ENDNOTES

1 The volume of public climate finance spent on approved adaptation projects has increased from $100 million in 2008 to nearly $813 million in 2012, according to Climate Funds Update. Note that these figures only include approved projects (rather than dedicated finance) and do not include official flows or bilateral flows of development assistance.

2 In Phase 2 of the project we will look in more detail at the delivery of adaptation finance at the local level and reflect further on the enabling environment.

3 See: <http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DatasetCode=CRSNEW>.

4 See: <http://www.climatefundsupdate.org/>.

5 These included but were not limited to FAO, IFAD, and WHO.

6 The proposed institutional framework in the National Climate Change Response Strategy (NCCRS) for Zambia doesn't specify the member ministries and thus it isn't clear whether or not the Ministry of Local Government and Housing will be a part of the NCCDC.

7 A *barangay* is the smallest administrative division in the Philippines and is the native Filipino term for a village, district, or ward.

8 At the international level a discussion is ongoing whether loans should be used for adaptation funding and which part of a loan counts toward the commitment to mobilize adaptation funding. A discussion on this issue is beyond the scope of this paper; the loan was included in this overview because it is finance that is available within the country for adaptation. This was the only large loan commitment in all of the four countries.

9 This is the entity that has implementing responsibility over the funds called the "Channel Reported Name" in the CRS database.

10 See the DAC Statistical Reporting Directives (DCD/DAC(2010)40/REV1) for full details on the coding used by the OECD.

11 See: <http://www.kampala.diplo.de/contentblob/3852396/Dat-en/3128271/Water_and_Sanitation.pdf>.

12 See: <http://www.gcca.eu/national-programmes/africa/gcca-uganda>.

13 See: <http://www.dilg.gov.ph/pcf/>.

14 See: <http://stats.oecd.org/index.aspx?DataSetCode=CRS1>.

15 See: *Handbook on the OECD-DAC Climate Markers* [http://www.oecd.org/dac/stats/48785310.pdf] for more information on the use of the Rio Markers by the OECD.

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Clean Energy Nepal (CEN) is a leading national NGO engaged in national policy dialogues on climate change, including the country's National Adaptation Programme of Action and its Strategic Program on Climate Resilience. CEN has strong relationships with key ministries and is included in the government's Climate Change Council and Core Negotiation Team to the UNFCCC. CEN also serves as the secretariat of the Climate Change Network Nepal.

The **Institute for Climate and Sustainable Cities (iCSC)** is a Philippine-based nonprofit organization working on sustainable energy solutions and fair climate policy, focused on climate adaptation finance and low carbon development, and pioneering long-term policy transformation and sustainable social enterprise.

The **Zambia Climate Change Network (ZCCN)** is a national coalition established in 2009 with over 80 member organizations representing civil society, intergovernmental institutions, the private sector, and academic and research institutions. ZCCN has undertaken comprehensive studies of climate finance in Zambia over the past three years and is also a civil society representative on Zambia's national technical committee on climate change.

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