Women's Empowerment and Vulnerability to Climate Change: An Econometric Analysis of South Asian Countries

Bushra Mushtaq¹ and Muhammad Afzal² Abstract

This research paper analyzes the impact of women's empowerment (WE) on vulnerability to climate change (VCC) in South Asian countries from 1995-2023. To the best of our knowledge, no study has empirically examined the importance of WE in resilience strategies following a climate shock. This article contributes to the literature by employing the secondgeneration econometric analysis of the gender-climate nexus and exploring the significance of gender in adaptive policy. We use a Cross-sectional Autoregressive Distributed Lag (CS-ARDL) model's co-integration technique which shows; (i) WE along with its components (women's civil empowerment, social empowerment, political empowerment, and economic empowerment) reduces VCC by the inclusion of women in climate leadership and decisionmaking processes. (ii) Gender intersectionality significantly impacts the relationship between WE and VCC in climate adaptation through the transmission channels of human resource development, governance, and social and economic resilience. The robustness of these findings has been tested through the Westerlund cointegration test, and the Dumitrescu Hurlin Granger causality test has been used to explore causality among the variables. The study highlights the significance of institutional resilience and Gender-responsive climate policies. Furthermore, the participation of women in civil, economic, political, and administrative decisions may improves adaptation to climate change.

Keywords: Women's empowerment; Vulnerability to Climate Change; Gender equality, Adaptive Policies, CS-ARDL

Article history: Copyright License:

DOI:



 $Journal\ homepage: \underline{www.njssh.nust.edu.pk}$

¹ Visiting Research Student, School of Environment, University of Queensland, Australia.
PhD. Scholar, Department of Economics, Government College University, Lahore, Pakistan.
Lecturer, Department of Economics, Lahore College for Women University, Lahore, Pakistan.
Email: Bushra.mushtaq@lcwu.edu.pk
Tel: +61412970541; +923474603267
Corresponding Author

 $^{^2}$ Deputy Director, Crop Reporting Service, Agriculture Department, Government of Punjab, Pakistan. Email: mafzal86@gmail.com

1. Introduction

The conflict between economic development, environmental conservation, and resource utilization is becoming more pronounced as global warming and resource constraints worsen (Sarkodie & Strezov, 2019). As a response to climate change and environmental degradation, the concept of "green growth" has emerged. Green growth refers to promoting economic progress while preserving the environment. In 1985, the United Nations meeting in Nairobi officially recognized women as significant players in environmental preservation. However, compared to scientific and technical solutions, women's participation in resolving climate change-related problems has received less scholarly attention(Gaard, 2015). This research aims to contribute to the literature on climate change by exploring the empowerment-climate nexus and integrating gender into adaptive policies. It explored how much women's empowerment (WE) affects Vulnerability to Climate Change (VCC) in South Asian countries. No prior study in the literature has empirically examined the role of WE in resilience strategies in the wake of climate change in the South Asian region.

Our hypothesis postulates that WE reduces VCC in South Asian countries. It is assumed that women's participation in civil, economic, political, and administrative decisions can improve climate change adaptation in these countries. WE can improve policies to reduce VCC by following ways. Firstly, women's participation in the decision-making process helps to formulate conducive climate policies(Alber & Roehr, 2007). Secondly, women, who have higher levels of education than men in terms of VCC, view climate shocks more critically (Ergas & York, 2012; McCright, 2010). Thirdly, increasing the participation rate of women in industrial enterprises promotes non-resource taxes(Asongu, Nnanna, & Acha-Anyi, 2020). Women with a strong voice, access to quality information, and innovative ideas can help decision-makers in addressing environmental issues(Emeordi, Igwe, & Madichie, 2023). WE can have positive impacts on social, economic, and political adaptation, ultimately leading to a decrease in VCC.

Economic development can be transformed into sustainable development by including women in parliament, administration, policy-making, and the economy as a significant factor of economic growth and as a vulnerable stakeholder in climate change(Achuo, Asongu, & S Tchamyou, 2022; Yadav & Lal, 2018). Heyland et al. (2010) report states that almost two-thirds of women worldwide are vulnerable to climatic shocks. Data on fatalities from climatic disasters indicates that women are more vulnerable than males. For example, the cyclones and floods that struck Bangladesh in 1991 revealed that 90% of the casualties were female. Women made up 75% of the Aceh tsunami victims in 2004. This outcome is directly linked to the under-representation of women within the civil, economic, and political decision-making bodies. Gender disparities make women and children 14 times more vulnerable to climate change than men (Asongu, Messono, & Guttemberg, 2022a; Miller et al., 2010). In Asia's dry zones, for example, women are often more affected by negative climate shocks than men due to their lower educational and

economic status, as well as limited access to knowledge, institutions, and decision-making bodies(Goh, 2012). Therefore, reducing gender inequality through social reforms is crucial in lessening the impact of climate change on communities(Cannon, 2002).

This paper makes unique contributions and presents distinct differences. First, no study has been conducted to examine the impact of WE on VCC in South Asian countries. The empirical literature on "feminist political ecology" encourages gender integration by emphasizing WE in adaptive policies(Alexander, Bolzendahl, & Jalalzai, 2016; Ergas & York, 2012; Israel & Sachs, 2013). Furthermore, the existing literature emphasizes the economic empowerment of women in developing countries (Asongu et al., 2022a), but the externalities of this empowerment on climate change remain underexplored. Second, this study contributes to the literature by exploring the significance of gender in the adaptation to climate change in South Asian countries. Third, the indicator of women's empowerment proposed by Sundström, Paxton, Wang, and Lindberg (2017) and Kabeer and Natali (2013) has been used. These methods are recognized for their completeness compared to the other indicators developed by Alkire et al. (2013) and Hanmer and Klugman (2016). Fourth, a comprehensive index of WE while considering all dimensions of WE; civil, social, economic, and political empowerment has been constructed. Fifth, the study has estimated the individual impact of four components of WE on VCC along with the channels through which the empowerment of women can promote VCC will also be examined.

This paper is constructed as; section 2 includes a literature review. Section 3 describes the theoretical framework of the model. Section 4 contains methodological details section 5 includes results discussions and section 6 concludes along with policy suggestions.

2. Literature Review

Development organizations and scholars are keenly interested in the concept of WE. The fifth of the seventeen Sustainable Development Goals was designated by the UN in 2015 as "achieving gender equality" and "empowering all women and girls" (United Nations General Assembly 2015). The impact of WE on VCC has been the subject of macroeconomic policies, theories, and green growth initiatives such as UN Women, UNIDO, and women's economic empowerment in green industry programs. Table 1 enlisted relevant economic theories that emphasize WE for adaptation and resilience to climate change (CC). Research on the effects of women's political empowerment on economic development, growth, and VCC is documented in the literature(Asongu et al., 2020; Israel & Sachs, 2013; McCright, 2010).

Table 1: Economic theories relevant to WE

Theories	Relevance	Reference		
Capability Approach	Women's access to economic	(Assaduzzaman, 2023)		
(Amartya Sen)	opportunities, health care, and			
	education enhances resilience,			
	and empowered women can			
	better address climate-related			
	issues.			
Sustainable	By improving women's ability	(Natarajan, Newsham,		
Livelihoods	to adapt and diversify their	Rigg, & Suhardiman,		
Framework	sources of income, women's	2022)		
	empowerment expands their			
	access to these resources and			
	lessens their susceptibility to			
	climate change (CC).			
Feminist Economics	Women's disproportionate VCC	(Agenjo-Calderón &		
	is lessened when empowered	Gálvez-Muñoz, 2019)		
	through fair resource distribution			
	and decision-making			
	representation.			
Household	Decisions about climate	(Eastin, 2018)		
Bargaining Models	adaptation, including investing in			
	sustainable technologies or			
	diversifying sources of income,			
	are more likely to be influenced			
	by women with more negotiating			
	power.			
Human Capital	Women are better equipped to	(Asongu, Messono, &		
Theory	respond to CC by embracing	Guttemberg, 2022b)		
	creative solutions and			
	sustainable practices when they			
	are empowered through			
	education and capacity-building.			
Common Property	Women frequently possess	(Khadka, 2022)		
Resource	unique expertise in natural			
Management	resources, and their			
Theories	empowerment in resource			
	management enhances			
	community-level CC adaptation			
	techniques.			

Neo-Classical	By encouraging creative ways	(Chitiga-Mabugu,
Growth Theory	for climate adaptation and	Henseler, Maisonnave, &
	advocating legislative changes,	Mabugu, 2023)
	empowered women promote	
	adaptive efficiency.	
Social Capital	Empowering women increases	(Rice et al., 2023)
Theory	their involvement in social	
	networks, which are essential for	
	CC solutions at the local level.	
Environmental	In economies, empowering	(Bilgili, Khan, & Awan,
Kuznets Curve	women might hasten the shift to	2023)
(EKC)	sustainable behaviors and lessen	
	climate change susceptibility.	
Inclusive Growth	Women's active participation in	(Nazir & Ali, 2020)
	• •	(IVazii & Aii, 2020)
Theory	climate adaptation and	
	mitigation plans is ensured by	
	their empowerment, which	
	promotes robust and inclusive	
	economic systems.	

WE is a mechanism that improves women's capacity to make rational decisions in life and is a fundamental goal of human rights(Kabeer, 1999). Low levels of empowerment are linked to several detrimental economic and health outcomes on the well-being of women (F. Haile, 2016; Yount, Dijkerman, Zureick-Brown, & VanderEnde, 2014) and their children(Thorpe, VanderEnde, Peters, Bardin, & Yount, 2016). The inclusion of women in societal mobilization affects political transformation, economic preparedness, and climate preservation by enhancing innovation and economic growth (Dahlum, Knutsen, & Mechkova, 2022). According to (DiRienzo & Das, 2019). Furthermore, women's representation supports productivity, good governance, the development of public goods, and environmental preservation. These in turn encourage social and economic resilience, which will ultimately reduce the effects of climate change.

Andrijevic, Crespo Cuaresma, Lissner, Thomas, and Schleussner (2020) conducted a study that showed promoting gender equality in institutions can reduce VCC. When women have legal protections and are constitutionally empowered, they are more likely to engage in entrepreneurship, which can lead to positive economic and financial outcomes (Rink & Barros, 2021). Women can also contribute to increasing production and social adaptability to climate change, while simultaneously reducing corruption(Samimi & Hosseinmardi, 2011).

Gaard (2015) argues that women are often excluded from decision-making processes and the understanding of risks during natural disasters. This exclusion contributes to higher mortality rates among women. Although these studies are primarily theoretical, they support the underlying theory, which states that WE lowers VCC globally. Furthermore,

Yavinsky (2012) postulates that specific cultural bounds and societal odds exacerbate the vulnerability of women to climate shock. Women are also the most vulnerable to climate shocks due to their heavy familial duties, as natural catastrophes related to climatic change restrict women's ability to gather firewood and obtain drinking water in arid areas(Nwoke & Ibe, 2015). Van Aelst and Holvoet (2016) demonstrate that widows, single women, and entrepreneurial women are often more vulnerable to the effects of a climatic shock in Africa. WE is crucial for addressing their vulnerability to environmental degradation. An economically and politically autonomous woman positively impacts socio-economic conditions. Svaleryd (2002) explored that women's active participation in public administration guarantees the adapted policies for public choices. Similarly, women's social empowerment leads to a healthy labor force of women(Doepke & Tertilt, 2018).

3. Theoretical Framework

We adopt the definitions and strategies of Kabeer (2012), and Sundström et al. (2017) to support the mechanisms by which WE affects VCC. We hypothesize that the complete relationship of WE towards VCC transmits from a combination of all four proposed aspects of WE. First, Increasing the number of women in politics enhances diversity, talent, knowledge, and experience (Sapiro, 1981). It led to the development of institutions that harmonize the interactions between citizens and the state (Swamy et., al. 2001). Dollar, Fisman, and Gatti (2001) found a negative correlation between corruption to the powerful representation of women in parliamentary and administrative organizations. Women's political participation in national parliaments leads to the formulation of strong policies regarding education and health (Brennan, Mavisakalyan, & Tarverdi, 2020). In most cases, women who hold prominent roles in politics and administration allocate their earnings from their positions towards supporting their families and educating young girls to make them climate resilient.

Second, the promotion of civil freedom of expression and movement encourages critical communication, which enhances idea exchange and enables better decisionmaking(Dahlum et al., 2022). Women's social empowerment is positively linked with a healthy female labor force (Doepke & Tertilt, 2018). Such civil liberties increase the female human capital endowment, which will raise the women's bargaining power in intrahousehold decisions and the market. Women get technical and skilled education that increases their opportunity cost to have more children in terms of their time allocation towards their jobs. Due to this substitution effect, women will give birth to fewer kids. This trade-off between WE and fertility rate led to effective human capital formation (a transition from the quantity to the quality of offspring). Ultimately, this phenomenon will trigger a demographic transition toward economic transition(Diebolt & Perrin, 2013). Empowered women create a virtuous cycle, starting with gender equality, low fertility rates, increased life expectancy, eradicated child stunting, and skilled human capital, leading to economic growth. Third, enabling women to voice their perspectives through civil society and media empowers policy-makers to choose more effective adaptation policies(Evans, 1995; Weldon, 2002). Women's active participation in public

administration guarantees the adapted policies for public choices(Cabaleiro-Casal & Buch-Gómez, 2020). For instance, such countries tend to increase their public expenditures on education and health which leads to a healthy future workforce. Thus, women's representation promotes public goods along with productivity and good governance (DiRienzo & Das, 2019).

Fourth, the participation of women in economic activities will increase the labor force of the economy and hence economic growth (Folasade & Olarewaju, 2019). Transforming women into human capital enhances factor accumulation(Mulligan & Sala-i-Martin, 2002). Women's economic empowerment is a process that enhances women's ability to make strategic life choices(Kabeer & Natali, 2013) and is an essential objective of human rights. Low participation rate in the economic activities have significant negative impacts on well-being of women (S. Haile, Emmanuel, & Dzathor, 2016; Jones et al., 2019; Mabsout, 2011) and their children (Chakraborty & Anderson, 2011; Pratley, 2016; Thorpe et al., 2016) due to associated economic and health outcomes. The presented "business case" for WE has the potential to nudge hesitant leaders to empower women, even if for instrumental reasons. All of these factors suggest that the empowerment of women can enhance reduce VCC.

Details of all components of WE are described in Table A8 in the Appendix. WE can have a positive and significant impact on climate change and environmental preservation by altering society's choices and priorities in important ways(Duflo, 2012). Women have a very vulnerable social layer concerning climatic change, hence the inclusion of WE in the administration and execution of adaptive policies for environmental resilience is more justified. Expanding women's liberties, their involvement in civil society, and their participation in decision-making promotes climate shock adaptation (Sundström et al., 2017).

4. Model Specification and Methodology

4.1 Model Specification

We analyzed the relationship WE with VCC of South Asian countries, by using a variety of econometric techniques. We employ the CSARDL developed by (Pesaran, Shin, & Smith, 2001) to analyze the short- and long-term relationships. We have estimated the following two empirical models.

$$\begin{split} VCC_{it} &= \beta_0 + \beta_1WE_{it} + \beta_2ECOR_{it} + \beta_3GOVRit + \beta_4SOCR_{it} + \beta_5HDI_{it} + \rho_{it} \\ &\qquad (1) \\ VCC_{it} &= \beta_0 + \beta_1ECOR_{it} + \beta_2GOVRit + \beta_3SOCR_{it} + \beta_4WCE_{it} + \beta_5WPE_{it} + \beta_6WEEit + \beta_7WSE_{it} + \beta_8HDI_{it} + \rho_{it} \\ &\qquad (2) \end{split}$$

Where VCC is the vulnerability to climate change for country i over a period; it measures how vulnerable societies are to climate shocks. WE is the women's empowerment index. We developed the WE Index by combining V-Dem's political representation, civil liberties, and involvement in civil society indices with a fourth indicator of women's economic empowerment. We use the PCA Method to develop a comprehensive WE index based on all four indicators of empowerment. A detail of all the indicators measured in each sub-index is given in Table A2 in Appendix. HDI is the human

capital development index. SOCR, GOVR and ECOR variables indicate social, governmental and economic resilience of the society, simultaneously. We use these variables as the indicators to measure the adaptive capacity of a society as mentioned by Sarkodie and Strekov (2019) in the literature. WCE, WEE, WSE and WPE are women's civil empowerment, women's economic empowerment, women's social empowerment and women's political empowerment, respectively.

The detailed definition/description, data sources, descriptive statistics, and correlation analysis of the variables are provided in Table A1 (see appendix). We used balanced panel data from 1995 to 2023 for the South Asian countries, namely Pakistan, India, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Bhutan, and Nepal. Data on Afghanistan and Maldives was not available for many variables.

4.2 Preliminary tests

4.2.1 Cross-Sectional Dependence Tests

In order to decide the nature of the empirical relationship of the panel data, we first conducted cross-sectional dependence (CD) tests developed by Breusch-Pagan LM, Pesaran Scaled LM, and Pesaran (2015), to check CD in residuals and in variables. CD problem might arise due to cross-country similarity in the population, region, and political or socio-economic inducement. Therefore, we conduct CD dependence tests to test the cross-dependence among panel cross-sections. This test also helps to determine whether we should use first-generation estimation techniques or second-generation estimation techniques.

4.2.2 Slope Homogeneity Test

The methodology to determine if the slope coefficients of the cointegration equation are homogenous was established by Swamy (1970). Swamy's slope homogeneity test was enhanced by Pesaran and Yamagata (2008). This test checks the slope homogeneity/heterogeneity in the panel analysis. If the sample countries are heterogeneous; hence we should use heterogeneous panel methodologies.

4.2.3 Second Generation Unit Root Test

We employ Pesaran's second-generation unit root tests to check for stationarity in the presence of cross-sectional dependence. First-generation unit root tests (Levin, Lin, & Chu, 2002) do not take into account cross-sectional dependence. So, we employ second-generation unit root tests to check the stationarity level of variables. Thus, the cross-sectional augmented Dickey-Fuller (CADF) test by Im, Pesaran, and Shin (2003) and the cross-sectional augmented IPS (CIPS) test by Pesaran (2007) have been employed.

4.2.4 Westerlund Test for Panel Cointegration

To estimate the cointegration between dependent and independent variables over a range of cross-sections units and throughout time, we have applied Westerlund Test for Panel Cointegration (Westerlund, 2007). This test takes into account the special features of the panel data, such as CD and slope homogeneity issues.

4.2.5 Demitrus Hurlin Causality Test

To examine if there is any causal relationship between variables, we have used the Dumitrescu and Hurlin (2012) method. One of the primary challenges with panel data models is the specification of heterogeneity while conducting the causality test. To address this issue, Dumitrescu and Hurlin (2012) assumed that all coefficients could differ between cross-sections to account for the heterogeneity across cross-sections.

4.2.6 Cross-Sectional Autoregressive Distributed Lag (CSARDL)

The results of CS dependence and unit root tests proposed to apply the cross-sectional augmented-autoregressive distributed lags (CS-ARDL) approach for our model.

$$\Delta Y_{it} = \emptyset_{i} + \gamma_{i} (Y_{it-1} - \alpha_{i} X_{it-1} - \delta_{1i} \overline{Y}_{t-1} - \delta_{2i} \overline{X}_{t-1}) + \sum_{k=1}^{p-1} \partial_{ij} \Delta Y_{it-k} + \sum_{k=0}^{q-1} \tau_{ij} \Delta X_{it-k} + \vartheta_{1i} \Delta \overline{Y}_{t} + \vartheta_{2i} \Delta \overline{X}_{t} + \varepsilon_{it}$$
(5)

In the above equation, Y_{it} represents the dependent variable, while \emptyset_i represents the intercept. α_i denotes the slope coefficients of independent variables as well as lagged dependent variables. X_{it} is a vector of independent variables. δ_i denotes the error correction term (ECM) indicating an adjustment of short-run disequilibrium towards long-run equilibrium after an economic shock. Y_{t-1} and X_{t-1} provide a proxy for the unobserved factor in the long run, while ΔYt and ΔXt provide a proxy for the unobserved factor in the short run in Equation (8).

5. Empirical Results and Discussion

5.1 Result Discussion of Pre-Estimation Test

The findings of Cross-sectional dependency tests are statistically significant at 1%, which confirms the presence of the cross-dependence problem in all models. This implies that South Asian countries rely on one another. The estimates of the Slope homogeneity test of Pesaran and Yamagata (2008) reveal that the slope coefficients are heterogeneous at a 1% level of significance. Second-generation unit root tests of CIPS results show that all variables are integrated at the first difference, I(1). However, the results of CADF are quite different and indicate that only SOCR and GOVR are integrated at I(0) while all other variables are stationary at first difference. Results of the Westerlund test for panel cointegration confirm that all panel variables are co-integrated in the long run at a 1 percent level of significance. The results of the Durmitrescu- Hurlin test state bidirectional causality exists among WE and HDI; WE, ECOR, and GOVR cause VCC. WE also cause SOCR and SOCR cause ECOR and GOVR. (See details of all test statistics in Appendix A).

5.2 Result Discussion of CS-ARDL

Table 2: Long-Run Estimates of CS-ARDL

Models	Model 1	Model 2
Independent	VCC	VCC
Variables		
ECM	-0.943	
	(0.133)	
WE	-0.045***	
	(800.)	
WCE		-0.055**
		(.028)
WSE		0.036**
		(0.019)
WPE		-0.017**
		(.006)
WEE		-0.068**
		(0.039)
ECOR	-0.102**	-0.027**
	(0.042)	(0.0128)
GOVR	0.017	0.334*
	(0.098)	(0.251)
SOCR	0.492***	0.0491**
	(0.173)	(0.023)
HDI	-0.488**	
	(0.214)	

Where, *, **, *** indicates significance level of 1, 5 and 10%, correspondingly. Standard errors are in parenthesis.

The findings of the CS-ARDL estimation shows that all indicators are detrimental to VCC in South Asia in the long run as detailed in Table 2. Furthermore, empirical results shows that the WE index reduces VCC by 3% in South Asian countries. Individual impact of various components of WE on VCC shows that magnitude of the effect of women's economic empowerment is large. While magnitude of impact of women's political empowerment is only 1 percent. This low influence of women in the politics justified the VCC of South Asian countries. Overall negative effect of WE on VCC can be viewed by both direct and indirect dimensions of WE. On the direct front, women's sensitivity to natural crisis makes them more likely to participate in decision-making, which helps shape effective policies to control negative climate change(Alber & Roehr, 2007; Gaard, 2015). While, WE has an indirect impact in preparing the political, social, and economic spheres for climate change adaptation. Moreover, Swamy et al. 2001 examine that corruption is decreased when women participate in administrative and political decision-making

processes. Consequently, this contributes to ensuring investments and profits that result in steady growth. As a result, the government's ability to withstand a climatic shock is considered as dependent on the stability of this steady growth (Sarkodie and Strekov 2019). The error correction term of all three models is negative and significant indicating the stability of the models in the long run. These results conclude socio-economic and governmental channels should be strengthened to empower women, which can ultimately help to reduce VCC and its negative economic impacts.

6. Conclusion and Policy Recommendation

This study examines how VCC can be reduced in South Asian economies. Six South Asian nations were selected as a sample size for the period of 1995 to 2023 for this purpose. The study controlled the problem of heterogeneity and cross-sectional dependency (CD) by using second-generation co-integration estimation techniques. Empirical findings of the CS-ARDL model confirm the negative association of WE VCC. Westerlund Cointegration test confirms the cointegration among the modeled variables. Furthermore, the Dumitrescu-Hurlin Granger causality test has been used to explore causality among modeled variables. The findings indicate that unidirectional causality exists from WE to VCC.

Four aspects of the WE have been considered, namely: women's civil liberty, women's civil society participation, economic participation of women, and women's involvement in political discourse. These four sub-components of WE act independently to introduce new ideas into society and select effective economic and environmental policies. The empirical literature has no study on how WE affects climate change in the South Asian region. The results demonstrate that the WE considerably lowers VCC. The results also show that HDI, and the resilience of government, society, and economy are the transmission channels by which WE affects VCC.

Based on the findings, the study proposes several policy suggestions elaborated in Table 3 along with the proposed interventions through which these suggestions can be implemented to achieve the specific objective. However, the effectiveness of the proposed policies may vary depending on the initial conditions specific to each country.

Table 3: Proposed Policy Recommendations and Implementation Steps

Policy	Interventions/Implementation Steps		
Recommendations			
Comprehensive	Create a strong monitoring and evaluation		
Mechanisms for	mechanism that can track the enrollment, retention,		
Monitoring and	and academic performance of girls, and to identify		
Evaluation should be	and address any barriers to their education.		
designed to track and	Conduct periodic reviews of education policies to		
assess the progress and	ensure that they are still relevant and effective, and		
effectiveness of	to make adjustments based on changing needs and		
educational policies on	circumstances.		
women's empowerment.			

Women should have easy access to Financial and Economic resources to get economic empowerment	 Provide women access to savings programs, microfinance, and credit to help them pursue entrepreneurship in climate-resilient sectors. Create legislation that supports women's involvement in sustainable and green companies, empowering them economically and lowering their susceptibility to the effects of climate change.
Women should have constitutionally Legal protections and Property Rights	 Legal administration of the laws protecting women's rights, particularly those related to land and property, so they can take part in natural resource management and sustainable agriculture. This guarantees that women have protected access to and control over the resources essential for resilience and climate adaptation. Ensuring that women have equitable access to and control over land resources by addressing gender inequities in land ownership.
Women should have access to healthcare and reproductive rights.	 Ensure women's access to healthcare facilities, particularly in rural areas, to address health concerns including waterborne illnesses and difficulties with maternal health that are made worse by climate change. Encourage family planning and reproductive rights while acknowledging the link between environmental sustainability and population dynamics.
Encourage the use of sustainable and climate-smart farming methods to increase the adaptability of female farmers to climate change.	 Launch women-led agricultural cooperatives to assist women in implementing climate-smart farming methods. These cooperatives should offer markets, financial assistance, training, and resource access. Incorporate traditional knowledge and practices held by women into agricultural programs, to increase community resilience to climate change. Provide women farmers with training in agroecology, sustainable farming, and climate-resilient crop management.
Develop a national climate action plan that recognizes the special	Conduct gender-specific climate vulnerability assessments to determine the particular difficulties experienced by women.

vulnerabilities and strengths of women in the context of climate change.	 Establish gender-responsive goals and metrics for climate resilience and mitigation. Budgetary resources should be equitably distributed for gender-inclusive projects.
Enable women to take an active part in the sustainable management of water resources, taking into account their important role in water-related activities.	 Promote women to participate in committees and decision-making bodies for water governance. Provide training in sustainable water usage techniques, water conservation and rainwater harvesting. Through the protection of land and property rights, ensure women's control over and access to water resources.
Every country should develop a Gender- Responsive Disaster Management system.	 Develop and implement gender-responsive disaster management plans, recognizing the distinct vulnerabilities and capacities of women in the face of climate-related disasters.
	 Ensure that evacuation and relief programs are designed to address the specific needs of women, including healthcare, sanitation, security, and protection from gender-based violence. Establish women-led community response teams and provide training in disaster management.
Conduct awareness campaigns to endorse women's rights and gender equality about climate change.	 Integrate climate change education into school curricula, emphasizing its gender dimensions. Women's leadership abilities can be strengthened via training and capacity-building initiatives. They will empower women to actively engage in decision-making at all levels.
International Collaboration should be encouraged globally due to increase the environmental resilience.	 Collaborate with neighboring countries, and national and international organizations to share resources and best practices that promote women's empowerment and climate resilience. Participate in regional initiatives that focus on the gender-climate nexus, promoting knowledge exchange and joint projects, accessing funding, technical expertise, and capacity-building support.
Gender-Responsive Climate Action Plan	Establish a gender-disaggregated database to track the impacts of climate change on women and the effectiveness of gender-responsive policies.

should be launched for climate resilience.	 Set gender-responsive targets and indicators for climate resilience and mitigation initiatives. Promote partnerships between academic institutions, research organizations, and civil society to enhance knowledge-sharing and collaboration. 			
Address the intersection of climate change and women's health by ensuring access to climate-resilient healthcare services.	 Integrate climate-sensitive healthcare into national health policies, considering the impact of changing climate patterns on health. Provide education and training for women on climate-resilient health practices and disease prevention. 			
Initiate education and awareness campaigns to highlight the importance of women's roles in climate action.	 Promote the understanding of climate change, its impacts, and the opportunities for women to contribute to solutions. Support studies that highlight the contributions of women and the gendered impacts of climate-related initiatives. 			

References

- Achuo, E., Asongu, S., & S Tchamyou, V. (2022). Women empowerment and environmental sustainability in Africa.
- Agenjo-Calderón, A., & Gálvez-Muñoz, L. (2019). Feminist economics: Theoretical and political dimensions. *American Journal of Economics and Sociology*, 78(1), 137-166.
- Alber, G., & Roehr, U. (2007). Climate Protection: What's Gender Got to Do with it? *Resources for Feminist Research*, 32(3-4), 229-230.
- Alexander, A. C., Bolzendahl, C., & Jalalzai, F. (2016). Defining women's global political empowerment: Theories and evidence. *Sociology Compass*, 10(6), 432-441.
- Alkire, S., Meinzen-Dick, R., Peterman, A., Quisumbing, A., Seymour, G., & Vaz, A. (2013). The women's empowerment in agriculture index. *World Development*, 52, 71-91.
- Andrijevic, M., Crespo Cuaresma, J., Lissner, T., Thomas, A., & Schleussner, C.-F. (2020). Overcoming gender inequality for climate resilient development. *Nature Communications*, 11(1), 6261.
- Asongu, S. A., Messono, O. O., & Guttemberg, K. T. (2022a). Women political empowerment and vulnerability to climate change: evidence from 169 countries. *Climatic Change*, 174(3-4), 30.
- Asongu, S. A., Messono, O. O., & Guttemberg, K. T. (2022b). Women political empowerment and vulnerability to climate change: evidence from 169 countries. *Climatic Change*, 174(3), 30.

- Asongu, S. A., Nnanna, J., & Acha-Anyi, P. N. (2020). Inequality and gender economic inclusion: The moderating role of financial access in Sub-Saharan Africa. *Economic Analysis and Policy*, 65, 173-185.
- Assaduzzaman, M. (2023). Climate Change Adaptation in Bangladesh: Sen's Capability Approach and the Role of Freedom of Choice: University of Twente.
- Bilgili, F., Khan, M., & Awan, A. (2023). Is there a gender dimension of the environmental Kuznets curve? Evidence from Asian countries. *Environment, Development and Sustainability, 25*(3), 2387-2418.
- Brennan, A., Mavisakalyan, A., & Tarverdi, Y. (2020). Responses to climate change: individual preferences and policy actions around the world. *Environmental Policy: An Economic Perspective*, 9-32.
- Cabaleiro-Casal, R., & Buch-Gómez, E. J. (2020). Women in Spanish municipal councils and budgetary policies. *Urban Affairs Review*, 56(6), 1715-1745.
- Cannon, T. (2002). Gender and climate hazards in Bangladesh. *Gender & Development*, 10(2), 45-50.
- Chakraborty, P., & Anderson, A. K. (2011). Maternal autonomy and low birth weight in India. *Journal of Women's Health*, 20(9), 1373-1382.
- Chitiga-Mabugu, M., Henseler, M., Maisonnave, H., & Mabugu, R. (2023). Climate change and women-impacts and adaptation. *International Review of Environmental and Resource Economics*, 17(1), 99-152.
- Dahlum, S., Knutsen, C. H., & Mechkova, V. (2022). Women's political empowerment and economic growth. *World Development*, *156*, 105822.
- Diebolt, C., & Perrin, F. (2013). From stagnation to sustained growth: the role of female empowerment. *American Economic Review, 103*(3), 545-549.
- DiRienzo, C. E., & Das, J. (2019). Women in government, environment, and corruption. *Environmental Development, 30*, 103-113.
- Doepke, M., & Tertilt, M. (2018). Women's empowerment, the gender gap in desired fertility, and fertility outcomes in developing countries. Paper presented at the AEA Papers and Proceedings.
- Dollar, D., Fisman, R., & Gatti, R. (2001). Are women really the "fairer" sex? Corruption and women in government. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, 46(4), 423-429.
- Duflo, E. (2012). Women empowerment and economic development. *Journal of Economic literature*, *50*(4), 1051-1079.
- Eastin, J. (2018). Climate change and gender equality in developing states. *World Development*, 107, 289-305.
- Emeordi, R. C., Igwe, P. A., & Madichie, N. O. (2023). Women's Access to Financial Capital and High-Growth Enterprises. In *The Future of Entrepreneurship in Africa* (pp. 135-148): Productivity Press.
- Ergas, C., & York, R. (2012). Women's status and carbon dioxide emissions: A quantitative cross-national analysis. *Social Science Research*, *41*(4), 965-976.

- Evans, H. (1995). Defining difference: The" scientific" construction of sexuality and gender in the People's Republic of China. *Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society*, 20(2), 357-394.
- Folasade, P. B., & Olarewaju, A. J. (2019). A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FEMALE LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION AND ECONOMIC GROWTH: A CASE STUDY OF NIGERIA AND GHANA. *Journal of Academic Research in Economics*, 11(3).
- Gaard, G. (2015). *Ecofeminism and climate change*. Paper presented at the Women's Studies International Forum.
- Goh, A. H. (2012). A literature review of the gender-differentiated impacts of climate change on women's and men's assets and well-being in developing countries.
- Haile, F. (2016). Factors affecting women farmers' participation in agricultural extension services for improving the production in rural district of Dendi West Shoa Zone, Ethiopia. *International Journal of Agricultural Research, Sustainability, and Food Sufficiency*, 3(4), 69-82.
- Haile, S., Emmanuel, T., & Dzathor, A. (2016). BARRIERS AND CHALLEGES CONFRONTING WOMEN FOR LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT POSITIONS: REVIEW AND ANALYSIS. *International Journal of Business & Public Administration*, 13(1).
- Hanmer, L., & Klugman, J. (2016). Exploring women's agency and empowerment in developing countries: Where do we stand? *Feminist economics*, 22(1), 237-263.
- Heyland, D. K., Cook, D. J., Rocker, G. M., Dodek, P. M., Kutsogiannis, D. J., Skrobik, Y., . . . Cohen, S. R. (2010). Defining priorities for improving end-of-life care in Canada. *Cmaj*, 182(16), E747-E752.
- Im, K. S., Pesaran, M. H., & Shin, Y. (2003). Testing for unit roots in heterogeneous panels. *Journal of Econometrics*, 115(1), 53-74.
- Israel, A. L., & Sachs, C. (2013). A climate for feminist intervention: Feminist science studies and climate change. *Research, action and policy: Addressing the gendered impacts of climate change*, 33-51.
- Jones, R., Haardörfer, R., Ramakrishnan, U., Yount, K. M., Miedema, S., & Girard, A. W. (2019). Women's empowerment and child nutrition: The role of intrinsic agency. *SSM-population health*, *9*, 100475.
- Kabeer, N. (1999). The conditions and consequences of choice: reflections on the measurement of women's empowerment (Vol. 108): UNRISD Geneva.
- Kabeer, N., & Natali, L. (2013). Gender equality and economic growth: Is there a winwin? *IDS Working Papers*, 2013(417), 1-58.
- Khadka, A. (2022). Women's Empowerment and Adaptive Capacity to Climate Change: A Case of Changes in the Chitwan District of Nepal. Texas A&M University,
- Levin, A., Lin, C.-F., & Chu, C.-S. J. (2002). Unit root tests in panel data: asymptotic and finite-sample properties. *Journal of Econometrics*, 108(1), 1-24.
- Mabsout, R. (2011). Capability and health functioning in Ethiopian households. *Social Indicators Research*, 101, 359-389.

- McCright, A. M. (2010). The effects of gender on climate change knowledge and concern in the American public. *Population and Environment*, 32, 66-87.
- Miller, M., Gravel, D., Mulvey, M., Taylor, G., Boyd, D., Simor, A., . . . Moore, D. (2010). Health care-associated Clostridium difficile infection in Canada: patient age and infecting strain type are highly predictive of severe outcome and mortality. *Clinical Infectious Diseases*, 50(2), 194-201.
- Mulligan, C. B., & Sala-i-Martin, X. (2002). Social Security in theory and practice wth implications for reform.
- Natarajan, N., Newsham, A., Rigg, J., & Suhardiman, D. (2022). A sustainable livelihoods framework for the 21st century. *World Development*, 155, 105898.
- Nazir, S., & Ali, T. (2020). The Role of Women Empowerment towards Inclusive Growth in Pakistan. *Ilkogretim Online*, 19(4), 4438-4449.
- Nwoke, E., & Ibe, S. (2015). Climate change impact on the health of African women and adaptation strategies.
- Pesaran, M. H. (2007). A simple panel unit root test in the presence of cross-section dependence. *Journal of applied econometrics*, 22(2), 265-312.
- Pesaran, M. H. (2015). Testing weak cross-sectional dependence in large panels. *Econometric Reviews*, 34(6-10), 1089-1117.
- Pesaran, M. H., Shin, Y., & Smith, R. J. (2001). Bounds testing approaches to the analysis of level relationships. *Journal of applied econometrics*, 16(3), 289-326.
- Pesaran, M. H., & Yamagata, T. (2008). Testing slope homogeneity in large panels. *Journal of Econometrics*, 142(1), 50-93.
- Pratley, P. (2016). Associations between quantitative measures of women's empowerment and access to care and health status for mothers and their children: a systematic review of evidence from the developing world. *Social science & medicine*, 169, 119-131.
- Rice, E., Barman-Adhikari, A., Chamberlain, S., Hariharan, D., Khanna, A., LeFevre, A.,
 & Scott, K. (2023). Digital Access Opportunities for Women's Empowerment
 Collectives: A Theory of Change Based on Social Capital. *The International Journal of Community and Social Development*, 5(4), 394-412.
- Rink, U., & Barros, L. (2021). Spending or saving? Female empowerment and financial decisions in a matrilineal society. *World Development*, 141, 105342.
- Samimi, A., & Hosseinmardi, H. (2011). Gender and corruption: Evidence from selected developing countries. *Middle-East Journal of Scientific Research*, 9(6), 718-727.
- Sapiro, V. (1981). Research frontier essay: When are interests interesting? The problem of political representation of women. *American Political Science Review, 75*(3), 701-716.
- Sarkodie, S. A., & Strezov, V. (2019). Economic, social and governance adaptation readiness for mitigation of climate change vulnerability: Evidence from 192 countries. *Science of the total Environment, 656*, 150-164.

- Sundström, A., Paxton, P., Wang, Y.-t., & Lindberg, S. I. (2017). Women's political empowerment: A new global index, 1900–2012. *World Development*, 94, 321-335.
- Svaleryd, H. (2002). Female representation: Is it important for policy decisions? : Univ., Department of Economics.
- Swamy, P. A. (1970). Efficient inference in a random coefficient regression model. *Econometrica: journal of the Econometric Society*, 311-323.
- Thorpe, S., VanderEnde, K., Peters, C., Bardin, L., & Yount, K. M. (2016). The influence of women's empowerment on child immunization coverage in low, lower-middle, and upper-middle income countries: A systematic review of the literature.

 *Maternal and Child Health Journal, 20, 172-186.
- Van Aelst, K., & Holvoet, N. (2016). Intersections of gender and marital status in accessing climate change adaptation: Evidence from rural Tanzania. *World Development*, 79, 40-50.
- Weldon, S. L. (2002). Beyond bodies: Institutional sources of representation for women in democratic policymaking. *The Journal of Politics*, 64(4), 1153-1174.
- Yadav, S., & Lal, R. (2018). Vulnerability of women to climate change in arid and semiarid regions: The case of India and South Asia. *Journal of Arid Environments*, 149, 4-17.
- Yavinsky, R. W. (2012). Women more vulnerable than men to climate change. Prb. org.
- Yount, K. M., Dijkerman, S., Zureick-Brown, S., & VanderEnde, K. E. (2014). Women's empowerment and generalized anxiety in Minya, Egypt. *Social science & medicine*, 106, 185-193.

Appendix

Table A1: Description, Measurement of Variables and Data Sources

Variables	Variable	Measurements	Source	
(Symbol)	Description			
Human	HDI encompasses a	Index = 1 denotes	Human	
Development Index	long, healthy life,	maximum	Development	
(HDI)	education, and good	development, 0	Reports (2018)	
	living standards.	denotes no		
		development		
Women's	We is the process of	Index = 1 denotes	PCA Method	
Empowerment	increasing the	fully empowered, 0	(Author's own	
Index (WE)	abilities, agency,	denotes no	calculation)	
	participation in	empowerment		
	social decision-			
	making, and			
	economic			
	participation of			
	women.			

37 1 1 11.	T. 1 . 1 :	T 1 1 1 .	C1 1 1 A 1 A 2
Vulnerability to	It denoted varying	Index = 1 denotes	Global Adaptation
climate change	levels of Human	fully empowered, 0	Index (2018)
(VCC)	societies'	denotes no	
	vulnerability to	empowerment	
	negative impacts		
	resulting from		
	climate shocks,		
	ranging from 0 to		
	100.		
Social Resilience	It is a question of	Index = 1 denotes	Global Adaptation
	social inequalities,	fully empowered, 0	Index (2018)
	in particular the	denotes no	()
	quality of	empowerment	
	infrastructure, the	empowerment	
	educational		
	framework and the		
	ability to innovate		
Governmental	It combines the	Tudan 1 danatas	Clabal Adamsatian
		Index = 1 denotes	Global Adaptation
Resilience	indicators of	fully empowered, 0	Index (2018)
	political stability.	denotes no	
	Control of	empowerment	
	corruption; the rule		
	of law and the		
	quality of regulation		
Economic	Measures the	Index = 1 denotes	Global Adaptation
Resilience	various economic	fully empowered, 0	Index (2018)
	operations favorable	denotes no	
	to the business	empowerment	
	climate necessary		
	for the mobilization		
	of capital in the		
	private sector		
	1		

Table A2: Test of Homogeneity and Cross-Sectional Dependence

Test For Slope Homogeneity				
Swamy test statistic	Model 1	Model 2		
$ar{ar{\Delta}}$	6.230***	7.130***		
	(0.000)	(0.000)		
Āadj	7.826***	8.586***		
V	(0.000)	(0.000)		
	Cross-Sectional Depe	endence		
Tests	F. Statistics	F. Statistics		
Breusch-Pagan LM	73.52708***	89.256***		
	(0.000)	(0.000)		
Pesaran Scaled LM	9.590088***	62.5684		
	(0.000)	(0.000)		
Pesaran CD	1.084818***	1.5689***		
	(0.000)	(0.000)		

Where, *, **, *** indicate significance levels of 1, 5, and 10%, correspondingly. Standard errors are in parenthesis.

TableA3: Descriptive Statistics of Model 1

Models	Model 1	Model 2
Dependent Variables	VCC	VCC
WE	0032**	
	(0.008)	
WCE		-0.056**
		(0.029)
WSE		0.026**
		(0.023)
WPE		-0.018**
		(0.006)
WEE		-0.058**
		(0.039)
ECOR	-0.072**	-0.022**
	(0.024)	(0.014)
GOVR	-0.003	0.301*
	(0.081)	(0.265)
SOCR	-0.505**	0.040**
	(0.221)	(0.0245)
HDI	-0.418***	
	(0.153)	

Table A4: Second Generation Unit Root Test

	LNVCC	WE	ECOR	GOVR	HDI2	SOCR
Mean	0.654585	0.013061	0.444079	0.402587	0.579540	0.242608
Median	0.643903	0.009446	0.412836	0.401746	0.581000	0.242093
Maximum	0.525484	2.064526	0.831469	0.657601	0.786000	0.324915
Minimum	0.786535	2.491113	0.170012	0.238487	0.417000	0.157198
Std. Dev.	0.061735	1.011885	0.149627	0.104883	0.092398	0.039274
Skewness	0.390297	0.478061	1.018611	0.651662	0.392714	0.162828
Kurtosis	2.504102	3.225809	3.956374	2.715540	2.448667	2.630128
Jarque-Bera	6.200510	6.997416	36.72069	12.90188	6.676267	1.760710
Probability	0.045038	0.030236	0.000000	0.001579	0.035503	0.414636
Variables		C	ORRELATIO	N ANALYS	IS	
LNVCC	1					
WE	-0.49	1				
ECOR	0.24	-0.14	1			
GOVR	-0.32	0.43	-0.14	1		
HDI	-0.65	0.68	-0.25	0.46	1	
SOCR	-0.36	0.19	-0.05	-0.15	0.46	1

Table A5: Short-Run Estimates of CS-ARDL

Variables	CIPS		CADF	
	Level	1st Diff.	Level	1st Diff.
HDI	-0.954	-3.414***	-1.113	2.610***
VCC	-1.803	-4.762***		
WE	-1.985	-4.732***	-2.044	-2.422**
ECOR	-2.053	-4.037***	-1.888	-3.004***
GOVR	-2.199	-4.295***	-2.429**	
SOCR	-2.051	-4.261***	-2.480**	
WCE	-2.549	-5.521***	-1.549	-4.521***
WSE	-1.984	-5.419***	-2.984**	
WPE	-2.356	-3.526***	-1.356	-2.526**
WEE	-1.343	-4.127***	-1.433	-3.127**

Where, *, **, *** indicate significance levels of 1, 5, and 10%, correspondingly. Standard errors are in parenthesis

Table A6: Pairwise Dumitrescu Hurlin Panel Causality Test

Where, *, **, *** indicate a significance level of 1, 5, and 10%, correspondingly.

Pairwise Dumitresc	u Hurlin Pa	nel Causalit	y Tests	
Null Hypothesis:	W-Stat.	Zbar-Stat.	Prob.	Direction of Causality
$WE \rightarrow VCC$	3.887	1.699*	0.0893	Homogeneous Bi-directional causality
	3.101	0.908	0.3640	among WE and VCC
ECOR →VCC	5.782	3.608***	0.0003	Homogeneous uni-directional causality
	2.076	-0.125	0.9006	among ECOR and VCC
GOVR →VCC	4.409	2.225**	0.0261	Homogeneous uni-directional causality
	3.736	1.547	0.1217	among GOVR and VCC
HDI ↔VCC	6.924	4.758***	0.0000	Homogeneous bi-directional causality
	6.744	4.576***	0.0000	among HDI and VCC
$WE \rightarrow SOCR$	3.219	1.027	0.3045	Homogeneous uni-causality among WE
	6.203	4.031***	0.0000	and SOCR
ECOR →GOVR	1.988	-0.213	0.8311	Homogeneous uni-causality among ECOR
	3.895	1.707*	0.0879	and GOVR
SOCR →ECOR	3.902	1.714*	0.0866	Homogeneous uni-causality among SOCR
	0.895	-1.314	0.1887	and ECOR
HDI ←→GOVR	4.406	2.222**	0.0263	Homogeneous bi-causality among HDI
	6.419	4.249***	0.0000	and GOVR
SOCR →GOVR	4.466	2.282**	0.0225	Homogeneous uni-causality among SOCR
	2.091	-0.109	0.9128	and GOVR

Standard errors are in parenthesis.

Table A7: Westerlund Test for Panel Co-integration

Statistics	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Variance ratio	-2.3412***	-1.4322***	-1.8521***
	(-2.5482)	(-1.6722)	(-2.1542)

Where, *, **, *** indicate significance levels of 1, 5, and 10%, correspondingly. Standard errors are in parenthesis.

Table A8: Components and Indicators of Women Empowerment Index

Indicators	Definition	Data Source
Women's Social	Women's access to	Varieties of Democracy
Empowerment Index	justice, liberty from	Database
	enforced labor, domestic	(2023)
	mobility, and right to	
	own property	

Women's Civil	Engagement in	Varieties of Democracy
Empowerment Index	organizations of civil	Database
	3 / 1	(2023)
	among journalists, and	
	freedom of open	
	discussion of political	
	topics.	
Women's Political	women are equally	Varieties of Democracy
Empowerment Index	represented in the	Database
	legislative bodies and	(2023)
	have a fair share of power	
	allocation in all aspects.	
Women's Economic	Participate in the labor	International Labor
Empowerment	force by providing their	Organization (ILO)
	skills and services for the	
	production of goods and	
	services within a	
	specified period.	