

**Submission to the Committee on the Elimination of
Discrimination against Women on
“Gender-related dimensions of disaster risk reduction and
climate change”**

February 2016

Human Rights Watch welcomes the opportunity to provide input to the United Nations Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women’s (CEDAW Committee) discussion and general recommendation on gender-related dimensions of disaster risk reduction and climate change.

Human Rights Watch appreciates the CEDAW Committee’s attention to the disproportionate impact of disasters and climate change on women and girls, and their exclusion from governmental processes to prevent, mitigate, and remedy these impacts. We have documented many of these issues through fact-finding investigations in countries including Bangladesh, Canada, Central African Republic, Haiti, India, Indonesia, Kenya, Nepal, the Philippines, South Sudan, Sri Lanka, the United States, Yemen, Zambia, and Zimbabwe.

Based on this research, we outline recommendations for the CEDAW Committee’s consideration on: pre-disaster/climate change prevention and preparation; relief efforts, mitigation, and adaptation during a crisis; and post-crisis recovery and long-term adaptation. This is not an exhaustive set of issues and the list below should not be seen as implying an order of prioritization, but rather topics that we believe require particular attention in the General Recommendation.

We look forward to staying in touch on these issues and will be pleased to suggest specific language for the general recommendation once the drafting process has moved forward.

1) Definition of “disaster” and the link between disasters and climate change

We support the CEDAW Committee’s view as articulated in the concept note that the General Recommendation use a broad definition of “disaster” in recognition that disasters include events that are not caused by nature. These disasters may be among those with the most disproportionate impact on women, such as the collapse of the Rana Plaza building in Bangladesh where female garment workers comprised the majority of those killed and injured.

We commend the choice to address both disasters and climate change and recommend that the CEDAW Committee outline its understanding of the relationship between the two in the General Recommendation. According to the [Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change](#) (IPCC), climate

change is “very likely to increase the occurrence and vary the location of some physical events,” which in turn leads to increase in disaster risk.¹ Climate change will also make it more difficult to anticipate, evaluate, and communicate both probabilities and consequences that contribute to disaster risk. We suggest elaborating that while climate change renders disasters more frequent and severe, not all impacts from climate change are sudden. Climate change is a major [driver](#) for slow onset change such as sea-level rise, coastal erosion, and scarcity of natural resources.² The General Recommendation should address the full scope of harmful long-term consequences of climate change with gender dimensions, including but not limited to disasters.

2) Mainstreaming gender into international instruments on climate change and disaster risk reduction

Human Rights Watch suggests that the General Recommendation highlights the need for further integration of gender into international instruments on climate change and disaster risk reduction. We recommend that the CEDAW Committee continue to monitor and coordinate with the work of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) with the guidance offered in the General Recommendation. In a 2012 decision, the states parties to the UNFCCC “[c]onsider[ed] the importance of ensuring coherence between the participation of women in the UNFCCC process and the principles and objectives of international instruments and relevant multilateral processes, such as the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women [CEDAW] and the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action.”³ At its 20th Conference of the Parties, the parties to the UNFCCC adopted the Lima Work Programme on Gender (Decision 18/CP.20) to advance the implementation of existing gender equality mandates across all areas of the climate negotiations. Last year’s workshop on gender-responsive climate policy, as requested by the Lima Work Programme on Gender, highlighted that “[t]he protection of human rights – enshrined, for example, in Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women and other human rights covenants – ..., should be an ongoing consideration in the conceptualization and implementation of gender-responsive policies and projects.”⁴

The General Recommendation could also note that in addition to the Paris Agreement’s preambular reference to human rights and gender equality mentioned in the concept note, the agreement also mandates gender-responsive adaptation action (Paris Agreement, art. 7, para. 5) and capacity-building (Paris Agreement, art. 11, para. 2).

Finally, the concept note focuses on the negative effects of disaster and climate change on “women” and “women and men.” Human Rights Watch suggests that the General Recommendation take a wider view of gender equality, and explicitly include transgender and gender non-conforming individuals and those who might be discriminated against because of their sexual orientation or gender identity or expression. The specific needs of transgender and intersex people in the context of disaster and climate change should also be addressed.

3) Disproportionate impact of disaster and climate change on women

¹ Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, *Managing the Risks of Extreme Events and Disasters to Advance Climate Change Adaptation*, ed. Christopher B. Field et al. (Cambridge University Press, 2012).

² Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, Working Group II Contribution, “Climate Change 2014: Impacts, Adaptation, and Vulnerability. Part A: Global and Sectoral Aspects,” in *Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*, ed. Christopher B. Field et al. (Cambridge University Press, 2014).

³ UNFCCC Conference of the Parties (COP 18), December 2012, Doha, Qatar, Decision 23/CP.18.

⁴ Subsidiary Body for Implementation, Gender and Climate Change, Report on the in-session workshop, September 2015, FCCC/SBI/2015/12, para. 90.

Climate change and disaster are undermining the ability of governments to protect and fulfill people's basic rights. This impact is felt most by those parts of the population that are already most vulnerable due to factors such as gender, age, poverty, minority status and disability. Under international, and regional, human rights law, the principle of equality and non-discrimination obliges all states to take specific measures to identify and address such vulnerabilities.⁵

One of the major challenges in advocating for the rights of women and girls in the context of disasters and climate change is that while there is growing awareness of disproportionate impact, significant research and knowledge gaps [remain](#).⁶

The CEDAW Committee should urge states parties to collect gender-disaggregated data in all contexts related to disasters and climate change. The CEDAW Committee should also incorporate questions regarding collection of this data and efforts to identify and respond to disproportionate impact of disasters and climate change on women and girls into its periodic review of states parties.

The following are some of the areas in which Human Rights Watch has documented the disproportionate impact of disasters and climate change on women and girls, and which we suggest the General Recommendation highlight:

- a) ***Access to humanitarian assistance and climate change adaptation funding:*** Aid providers sometimes distribute post-disaster assistance or climate change adaptation funding through “heads of communities” or “camp coordinators” and then to “heads of households.” Human Rights Watch research after the 2004 Indian Ocean tsunami in [South Asia](#) showed how this approach can disadvantage women as these are all typically male-held positions.⁷ In such a system, governmental authorities and aid agencies may [exclude](#) women, especially woman-headed households, entirely from receiving aid, and, at best, provide aid only at the behest of their male family members.⁸
- b) ***Right to remedy/compensation:*** Barriers to justice may also make it more difficult for women to claim reparations owed to them due to harm from disaster or climate change,

⁵ All of the major human rights treaties contain legal obligations to ensure non-discrimination and, where it exists, end discrimination. Article 2(2) of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) specifies that “The States Parties to the present Covenant undertake to guarantee that the rights enunciated in the present Covenant will be exercised without discrimination of any kind as to race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status.” The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) includes an almost identical guarantee. The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (ICERD) and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) include extensive and specific protections against discrimination on the basis of race and sex. The Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), the International Convention on the Protection of All Migrant Workers and Their Families, and the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) all include guarantees of non-discrimination.

⁶ United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), “Overview of linkages between gender and climate change” (New York: United Nations Development Programme, 2013), <http://www.undp.org/content/dam/undp/library/gender/Gender%20and%20Environment/PB1-AP-Overview-Gender-and-climate-change.pdf> (accessed February 12, 2016).

⁷ “Tsunami Recovery Efforts: Human Rights Watch Letter to Clinton,” Human Rights Watch news release, May 9, 2005, <https://www.hrw.org/news/2005/05/09/tsunami-recovery-efforts-human-rights-watch-letter-clinton>.

⁸ Landesa, “Women Gaining Ground: Securing Land Rights as a Critical Pillar of Climate Change Strategy,” December 11, 2015, <http://www.landesa.org/resources/women-gaining-ground-securing-land-rights-as-a-critical-pillar-of-climate-change-strategy/> (accessed February 12, 2016).

as Human Rights Watch documented in the wake of [Bangladesh](#)'s Rana Plaza disaster.⁹ In addition, discriminatory practices in relation to inheritance and land title [systems](#) may mean that when a disaster destroys property, women are unable to provide the proof of ownership needed to sustain a compensation claim.¹⁰

- c) **Access to education:** When families are displaced, for reasons including disaster and consequences of climate change, education for displaced children and young people is often disrupted. Economic crisis within a family, even without displacement, but caused by disaster or climate change, may also push children out of school. As Human Rights Watch has documented in [Bangladesh](#), [South Sudan](#), Nepal and elsewhere, discriminatory gender norms often mean that girls are the first to be taken out of school when a family is in crisis and less likely than their brothers to return to education.¹¹
- d) **Access to food and water:** One of the consequences of disaster and climate change is disruption of food and water supplies. In many cultures, women and girls are primarily responsible for gathering water for their families. For example, in Turkana County in [Kenya](#), an area profoundly affected by climate change, one of the consequences has been that women who collect water for their families must walk increasingly longer distances to reach the nearest water source.¹² Disasters and climate change may also disrupt access to food, again disproportionately impacting women who often assume the role of primary caregivers, including collecting, managing, and preparing food for the household. When women and girls need to travel longer distances to collect water or food, this may expose them to danger, including sexual harassment or violence along the route, and leaves them with less time to attend school, earn money, or simply to rest.

In addition to these threats to water and food security, women and girls living in migration facilities and displacement camps may not have access to adequate and private sanitation facilities to relieve themselves or properly manage menstrual hygiene. Facilities may be insufficient in number, located in unsafe locations, and inadequate in offering privacy. Women and girls living in displacement camps in India told Human Rights Watch a year after the 2004 tsunami that they did not have proper, safe, and private toilet or bathing facilities.¹³ Likewise in Haiti after the 2010 earthquake, Human Rights Watch found that in the displacement camps, women and girls reported insufficient and unsafe sanitation facilities. Many complained of having terrible vaginal infections and were not able to manage their personal hygiene, particularly during menstruation.¹⁴

- e) **Health: access to sexual and reproductive health services:** In the wake of a disaster, women and girls are at increased risk of being cut off from the full range of reproductive

⁹ Human Rights Watch, *“Whoever Raises their Head Suffers the Most”: Workers’ Rights in Bangladesh’s Garment Factories* (New York: Human Rights Watch, 2015).

¹⁰ Zoe Elena Trohanis et al. “Making Women’s Voices Count in Natural Disaster Programs in East Asia and the Pacific” (World Bank, 2011), <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/10091> (accessed February 12, 2016).

¹¹ Human Rights Watch, *Marry Before Your House is Swept Away: Child Marriage in Bangladesh* (New York: Human Rights Watch, 2015); Agnes Odhiambo (Human Rights Watch), “Why Keeping Girls in School Can Help South Sudan” commentary, *Inter Press Service*, October 10, 2013, <https://www.hrw.org/news/2013/10/10/why-keeping-girls-school-can-help-south-sudan>.

¹² Human Rights Watch, *“There is No Time Left”: Climate Change, Environmental Threats, and Human Rights in Turkana County, Kenya* (New York: Human Rights Watch, 2015) p.3, 58.

¹³ Human Rights Watch, *After the Deluge: India’s Reconstruction Following the 2004 Tsunami* (New York: Human Rights Watch, 2005), <https://www.hrw.org/sites/default/files/reports/india0505.pdf>; Human Rights Watch.

¹⁴ Written Statement of Amanda Klasing to the Tom Lantos Human Rights Commission of the United States Congress.

healthcare services, including information about family planning, access to contraceptive supplies, and pre- and post-natal and delivery care. Any increased barriers to accessing services are often heightened for adolescent girls, who often have less mobility, access to transportation, or need parental consent. Unintended pregnancies can result in pressure to marry early or leave school, and adolescents who are pregnant have higher rates of maternal mortality and morbidity due to the physical immaturity of their bodies.

In post-earthquake [Haiti](#), Human Rights Watch found that women and girls faced serious obstacles accessing or learning about prenatal and obstetric care and family planning—impeding their ability to control the number and spacing of their children, and compelling some to have illegal and unsafe abortions that threaten their health and safety.¹⁵ We found women and girls displaced to camps frequently suffered three types of delay that contribute to pregnancy-related mortality: delay in deciding to seek appropriate medical care; delay in reaching an obstetric facility; and delay in receiving adequate care when reaching a facility. These delays occurred because women and girls did not recognize signs of early labor or were unfamiliar with a new neighborhood; because the places where they previously received care had been destroyed in the earthquake; because of distance, security concerns, or transportation costs; and because of inadequate care at facilities.

- f) ***Health: contamination and disease:*** Disasters and consequences of climate change may involve the spread of contamination or diseases that have a disproportionate impact on women, especially [pregnant women](#).¹⁶ For example, Human Rights Watch research on camps for internally displaced Roma in [Kosovo](#) documented how in the wake of the 1999 conflict, many Roma were resettled by the UN in camps in a heavily contaminated area located near a defunct lead mine.¹⁷ The location of the camps and the poor living conditions within them damaged the health of the residents as they were exposed to lead, including through contamination in water. Failure to provide systematic testing and treatment for lead contamination for displaced camp residents and to relocate the residents to a safe environment, especially for children and pregnant women, constituted a serious violation of the right to health. Lead exposure can result in stillbirth, miscarriage, and can negatively affect brain development of a fetus, leading to disabilities.

Another example is the spread of infections caused by the Zika virus, which has been [linked](#) to climate change because of the increase of temperate regions where the mosquito that spreads the disease can survive.¹⁸ While scientific evidence is still being collected, it appears the impact of Zika may be most harmful when it is contracted by a

¹⁵ Human Rights Watch, *“Nobody Remembers Us”: Failure to Protect Women’s and Girls’ Right to Health and Security in Post-Earthquake Haiti* (New York: Human Rights Watch, 2011).

¹⁶ “Effects of Disasters on Pregnant Women: Infections,” Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, accessed February 12, 2016, <http://www.cdc.gov/ncbddd/disasters/infections.html>; “Effects of Disasters on Pregnant Women: Environmental Exposures,” Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, accessed February 12, 2016, <http://www.cdc.gov/ncbddd/disasters/environmental.html>.

¹⁷ Human Rights Watch, *Kosovo: Poisoned by Lead: A Health and Human Rights Crisis in Mitrovica’s Roma Camps* (New York, Human Rights Watch, 2009).

¹⁸ Oliver Milman, “Climate change may have helped spread Zika virus according to WHO scientists,” *Guardian*, February 11, 2016, <http://www.theguardian.com/world/2016/feb/11/climate-change-zika-virus-south-central-america-mosquitos> (accessed February 12, 2016).

pregnant woman. Human Rights Watch has raised concerns that, including in relation to the Zika virus, this disproportionate impact can be even more devastating where women are denied reproductive freedom. In many contexts, women and girls are not able to decide if and when they get and stay pregnant, even when the advice from health ministries is to delay pregnancy. Disaster may exacerbate barriers women and girls experience in accessing information, contraception, and safe and legal abortion. In cases where there are criminal prohibitions on abortion, women and girls may risk unsafe and clandestine abortions to terminate pregnancies, increasing their risk for other health complications, including sepsis.

- g) ***Child, early, and forced marriage:*** Any event—including disasters and climate change, as well as conflict and displacement—that puts an increased strain on a family’s economic and security situation in a context where child marriage is practiced runs the risk of increasing child marriage. [Bangladesh](#) struggles with high vulnerability to both natural disasters and climate change, and Human Rights Watch documented examples of girls being forced into child marriage as a direct result of disaster.¹⁹ This occurred most frequently in areas where river erosion created a situation where families knew several years in advance that they would lose their home and land, and they married off daughters as part of their coping strategy. Given the lack of a government safety net, families often saw it as being in the best interest of both the daughter and the family as a whole for her to be married before the family lost their status as landowners, were displaced to a new area where they did not have standing in the community, and faced additional economic hardship that would likely jeopardize their most basic survival needs.
- h) ***Gender-based violence:*** Disasters and climate change can place women and girls at heightened risk of gender-based violence, and in particular [domestic violence](#) and sexual violence.²⁰ Breakdown of the rule of law in the wake of disaster may create an atmosphere of impunity for sexual violence. Sometimes poor decision-making by humanitarian agencies, for example, the lack of lighting or location of toilets in a camp for displaced people may put women and girls at elevated risk of sexual violence, as Human Rights Watch documented in post-earthquake [Haiti](#) and post-tsunami [India, Sri Lanka, and Indonesia](#).²¹

In addition, in a crisis environment, with disaster-affected people desperate for assistance, officials and aid providers holding the keys to survival, and serious deterioration of the rule of law, there is a significant risk of sexual exploitation and abuse, a risk that disproportionately affects women and girls. For example, in post-earthquake [Haiti](#), peacekeepers were implicated in [dozens](#) of cases of sexual abuse.²²

¹⁹ Human Rights Watch, *Marry Before Your House is Swept Away*.

²⁰ Fran H. Norris, PhD, “Prevalence and impact of domestic violence in the wake of disasters,” US Department of Veterans Affairs, <http://www.ptsd.va.gov/professional/trauma/disaster-terrorism/disasters-domestic-violence.asp> (accessed February 12, 2016).

²¹ “Sexual Violence in Haiti’s Camps,” Human Rights Watch news release, December 27, 2010, <https://www.hrw.org/news/2010/12/27/sexual-violence-haitis-camps>; Human Rights Watch, *After the Deluge: India’s Reconstruction Following the 2004 Tsunami* (New York: Human Rights Watch, 2005), <https://www.hrw.org/sites/default/files/reports/india0505.pdf>; Human Rights Watch.

²² Human Rights Watch, *World Report 2013: Haiti* (New York: Human Rights Watch, 2013), <https://www.hrw.org/world-report/2013/country-chapters/haiti>; Human Rights Watch, *World Report 2016: Haiti* (New York: Human Rights Watch, 2016), <https://www.hrw.org/world-report/2016/country-chapters/haiti>.

In addition, Human Rights Watch has documented in contexts ranging from post-hurricane [New Orleans](#) in the United States to post-earthquake [Haiti](#) increases in the number of people, disproportionately women and girls, who find themselves with no option but to exchange sex for food and other survival needs.²³ In Haiti, lack of access to contraception compounded the harm by placing these women and girls at heightened risk of pregnancy and of HIV and other sexually transmitted infections. In New Orleans, government policies that chose punishment over public health created additional harm to female drug users and sex workers engaged in transactional sex post-hurricane.

- i) ***Disproportionate burden post-disaster due to caregiving roles:*** Gender roles in most countries dictate that women play a [larger role](#) than men in caregiving, including for children, the elderly, people who are ill, and people with disabilities.²⁴ When family and community members have sustained injury, infection, or disease as a consequence of a disaster, these responsibilities and norms may make it more difficult for women to flee a disaster, seek shelter, and safeguard her own life. Women may also face greater risks from some outbreaks of disease; for example, in the recent [Ebola](#) outbreak, women accounted for 75 percent of the deaths in Liberia.²⁵ Their higher rates of infection and death appear to result from greater contact with the virus due to roles that women disproportionately occupy—including health workers, traditional birth attendants, and cross-border traders, as well as those responsible for washing the bodies of the dead and preparing them for burial.
- j) ***Property rights:*** Women’s ownership and control over property may be disproportionately at risk in the wake of disaster. They may face particular [difficulties](#) proving their ownership of property, including in situations involving the death of their husband or father, for reasons including lost documentation, lack of documents due to weak or non-existent birth, marriage, and land registration systems, as well as discriminatory restrictions on women’s ownership of land.²⁶ Restrictions on women’s right to rent or buy property may limit the ability of women-headed households to find safe accommodation after displacement. In Nepal after the earthquake, Human Rights Watch raised concerns that people without proper title, including women, would face difficulties ensuring proper compensation, a concern we also found in the tsunami response a decade earlier.
- k) ***Intersection with other identities:*** Women and girls may face specific and heightened risks due to intersections between their gender and discrimination they face based on other identities, for example the elderly, children, people with disabilities, lesbian, bisexual, transgender and intersex, Dalits, ethnic minorities, and indigenous people.

²³ Human Rights Watch, *In Harm’s Way: State Responses to Sex Workers, Drug Users and HIV in New Orleans* (New York: Human Rights Watch, 2013); Human Rights Watch, “*Nobody Remembers Us.*”

²⁴ UNDP, “Climate Change in the Caribbean: Country Assessment Report for Jamaica” (New York: United Nations Development Programme, 2009)
http://www.latinamerica.undp.org/content/rblac/en/home/library/crisis_prevention_and_recovery/aumentando-la-visibility-de-genero-en-la-gestion-del-riesgo-de-3.html (accessed February 12, 2016).

²⁵ “West Africa: Respect Rights in Ebola Response,” Human Rights Watch news release, September 15, 2014,
<https://www.hrw.org/news/2014/09/15/west-africa-respect-rights-ebola-response>.

²⁶ Human Rights Watch, *Hidden in the Mealie Meal: Gender-Based Abuses and Women’s HIV Treatment in Zambia* (New York: Human Rights Watch, 2007), <https://www.hrw.org/report/2007/12/18/hidden-mealie-meal/gender-based-abuses-and-womens-hiv-treatment-zambia>.

In post-typhoon [Philippines](#), nongovernmental organizations raised concerns about the greater impact the disaster had on elderly people, such as single women over 80 who were the most excluded from shelter assistance.²⁷ Older women may also be more [vulnerable](#) to extreme weather events such as droughts or heat waves.²⁸ As documented by Human Rights Watch in post-tsunami [India](#), children can be separated from their relatives during or after disasters. They may be more susceptible to epidemics and malnourishment because emergency food rations fail to accommodate their health needs. Social norms that devalue girls may limit their access to rations within the household.²⁹

People with disabilities often face formidable barriers to escaping from and surviving crises, including conflict and disaster, as Human Rights Watch has documented in [Yemen, the Central African Republic, and the European refugee crisis](#).³⁰ In [India](#), Human Rights Watch documented how disaster can result in people with disabilities losing their assistive devices and be separated from their customary caregivers.³¹ Women and girls with disabilities face these burdens layered with additional challenges they face due to their gender. For example, [Human Rights Watch](#) and the [Women's Refugee Commission](#) have documented that women and girls with disabilities are at heightened risk of violence, including sexual and domestic abuse, exploitation, and discrimination in post-conflict settings.³²

Discrimination based on caste or ethnicity can create a double burden on women. After the 2004 tsunami, Human Rights Watch [found](#) discrimination in the provision of assistance, including against Dalits and members of tribal groups.³³ While there has been growing attention to the crucial role of indigenous communities in mitigating the effects of disaster and climate change, indigenous women may face particular risks as Human Rights Watch has documented in countries such as [Kenya](#).³⁴ For example, when increasing temperatures reduce available water sources, indigenous women and girls are compelled to walk further and spend more time digging for water in dry river beds, exposing them to danger, including sexual harassment and violence. Structural arrangements for responding to disasters, including definitions of family, how identity documents are used, and safety measures in camp design can create disproportionate harm for lesbian, bisexual, transgender and intersex people.³⁵

²⁷ HelpAge-COSE, "Older people's inclusion in the Typhoon Haiyan response", 2014, <http://www.crhnet.ca/sites/default/files/library/COSE.2014.Older%20people's%20inclusion%20in%20the%20Typhoon%20Haiyan%20response.pdf> (accessed February 12, 2016).

²⁸ D'Ippoliti et al., "The impact of heat waves on mortality in 9 European cities: results from the EuroHEAT project," *Environmental Health* 9:37 (2010), <http://ehjournal.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/1476-069X-9-37f> (accessed February 12, 2016).

²⁹ Human Rights Watch, *After the Deluge*.

³⁰ People with Disabilities at Added Risk in War, Displacement: Ensure Equal Access to Services, Human Rights Watch news release, December 3, 2015, <https://www.hrw.org/news/2015/12/03/people-disabilities-added-risk-war-displacement>.

³¹ Human Rights Watch, *After the Deluge*.

³² Women's Refugee Commission, *Disability inclusion: Translating policy into practice in humanitarian action* (New York, WRC 2014). Human Rights Watch, *"As if we weren't human": Discrimination and violence against women with disabilities in Northern Uganda* (New York, Human Rights Watch, 2010).

³³ Human Rights Watch, *After the Deluge*.

³⁴ Human Rights Watch, *"There is No Time Left."*

³⁵ Kyle Knight and Richard Sollom, "Making disaster risk reduction and relief programmes LGBTI-inclusive: examples from Nepal," Humanitarian Practice Network, 2012, <http://odihpn.org/making-disaster-risk-reduction-and-relief-programmes-lgbti-inclusive-examples-from-nepal/> (accessed February 12, 2016).