AKTSAM/Sida Partnership Forum, 2009

Commitment to Climate Justice

Sida

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Published by Sida 2009

Editor: Göran Eklöf

Department: AKSAM/Sida Partnership Forum

Article number: SIDA52421en

Printed by Edita, 2009

Coverphoto: Gunnar Stattin. Dr Agnes Aboum, moderator, Kenya and Gunilla Carlsson, Minister for International Development Cooeration.

This publication can be downloaded/ordered from www.Sida.se/publications

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List of abbreviations

AOSIS	Alliance of Small Island States
AWG	adhoc working group (in the UNFCCC negotiations)
CAN	Climate Action Network
CNA	Climate Network Africa
CDM	Clean Development Mechanism
CO_2	carbon dioxide
CO_2e	carbon dioxide equivalent
CLACC	Capacity Strengthening in the Least Developed Countries for Adaptation to Climate Change
COP	Conference of the Parties (to the UNFCCC)
CSO	civil society organisation
EU	European Union
FAN	Forest Action Network
FAO	United Nations Food and Agriculture Organisation
G8	Group of Eight, a forum for the governments of Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Russia, the United Kingdom, and the United States
G20	an economic forum of 19 of the world's largest economies, plus the EU
G77	a negotiating group of 130 developing countries
GHG	greenhouse gas
Gt	gigaton (1 billion tonnes)
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change

IUCN	International Union for Conservation of Nature
LCA	long-term cooperative action (one of the tracks in the UNFCCC negotiations)
LCDs	least developed countries
NGO	non-government organisation
PACJA	Pan Africa Climate Justice
REDD	reduced deforestation and forest degadation
Sida	Swedish International Development CooperationAgency
TFAP	Tropical Forestry Action Plan
TWN	Third World Network
UN	United Nations
UNCED	United Nations Conference on Environment and Development
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
USD	United States dollars
WSSD	World Summit on Sustainable Development

Foreword

When Sida Partnership Forum, in autumn 2007, initiated a process – giving possibilities for development partners, mainly CSOs, reflecting on climate change and justice, possible strategies and action for change, it was done with a clear perception of what was at stake.

If the world doesn´t take action in managing climate change from a rights-based perspective, and with recognizing the common but different responsibilities that countries have, we will have a world in which possibilities are few and problems are far too many.

The double challenge of climate change and development, need to be tackled now, and with the clear ambition to enhance resilience of eco-systems and societies. The effects of man-made climate change and unsustainable practices are here, and with greatest consequences for the world´s poor .

The process contained two international conferences – held at Sida in Härnösand August 2008 and May 2009 – that gathered 260 participants from all over the world in total, most of them with ongoing engagement and work within civil society, but also those with positions within politics, international organizations, academia and independent think-tanks.

The message from these conferences is that the world, more than ever, needs an active global civil society with engagement for sustainability. It is only through committed public engagement and co-operation on a global scale, established and unsustainable structures and practices can be moved to change.

In this publication, the program and issues discussed at the latest conference are presented. We hope that the documentation give further possibilities and inspiration for development partners when working towards Copenhagen and beyond.

We also hope that this documentation, together with the reports published before and after the first conference, catch some of the spirit and intense dialogue that we perceived during these process

June 2009
Dag Jonzon, Sida

Commitment to Climate Justice

The last few years have seen a profound increase in the awareness that human induced climate change is a reality and that its consequences will be felt around the world. There is also a growing acceptance of the fact that the impacts of climate change will vary amongst countries. Although this variation may be explained partly through geographic and environmental factors, increased vulnerability to climate change is heavily dependent on social and economic factors. Developing countries will therefore be disproportionally affected, and the poorest groups within each country will be more vulnerable to these changes than the wealthier parts of the population.

As negotiations in preparation for the 15th Conference of the Parties to the climate change convention (COP-15, to be held in Copenhagen in December) are proceeding, the prospects for an agreement that combines sufficient action on limiting greenhouse gas emissions with action that will protect the poor and allow developing countries to develop is a major concern for civil society organisations around the world. The debate on climate change is also increasingly being discussed in the context of other major challenges such as the food crisis, the energy crisis, and the financial crisis.

In August 2008, Sida Partnership Forum organised the conference "Civil Society on Climate Change & Justice". Members from Swedish civil society organisations and their partners in developing countries were invited to discuss the challenges that climate change poses to development and share experiences of civil society responses to the causes and effects of climate change. Participants heard testimonies of how climate change is already affecting communities around the world and of examples of strategies and methods for educating and mobilising commu-

nities to adapt and to influence decision makers. Large numbers of workshops provided opportunities to explore how civil society organisations working in different sectors or representing different constituencies can address climate change based on their respective concerns and as part of their activities.[i]

In May 2009, Sida Partnership Forum invited a similar set of representatives from civil society organisations to the conference "Commitment to Climate Justice". This second conference aimed to take the discussions from the previous year one step further, and explore a more limited set of issue in some more detail. These were formulated in five issues papers, which have now been edited to reflect the discussions at the conference (see pp 16 ff).

Framing the Debate

In the conference's opening session Sida and civil society organisations (CSOs), as well as representatives of the Swedish government, made presentations on the challenge of addressing climate change in ways that respect and support the right of the poor to development and security. These presentations were followed by a brief panel discussion.

The Commission on Climate Change and Development

The Commission on Climate Change and Development, CCD, was appointed in spring 2008 as a Swedish government initiative. It was chaired by Gunilla Carlsson, Swedish Minister for International Development Cooperation and its 13 members represented a variety of experiences, sectors and global regions. The work of the CCD has mainly focused on the needs of developing countries to adapt to climate change, and how adaptation and risk reduction can be integrated into broader development work. The Commission presented its final report, Closing the Gaps, to UN Secretary General Ban Ki-moon on May 14, 2009.

In her presentation to the conference, Gunilla Carlsson noted that although the report had already been presented in New York and Brussels, this was the first opportunity for the CCD to discuss its findings with members of civil society and representatives from developing countries. She explained that the findings of the Commission provide a platform for Sweden to act during the Swedish presidency of the EU during the second half of 2009, and at the

i See http://www2.sida.se/shared/jsp/download.jsp?f=SIDA46941en_Climate+Justice+Movement.pdf&a=41941

15th Conference of the Parties (COP-15) to the climate change convention in Copenhagen in December:

– Climate change is already here, and it is happening faster than we expected. We cannot only talk about mitigation, we have to bring adaptation and disaster risk reduction higher up on the international agenda. The EU also needs to adopt coherent positions on these issues.

The CCD has made considerable efforts to let the voices of the poor inform its work; to build a bottom-up understanding of issues by looking at how people and local institutions are already adapting to climate change. Carlsson stressed the importance of holistic approaches of adaptation through measures that will simultaneously promote economic development and strengthen the resilience of societies and ecosystems.

– There can be no size that fits all. Climate challenges are different, and so are the local capacities to respond to them. Adaptive capacity is closely linked to development: people need assets to invest, health to safeguard production, education to make informed choices, and access to institutions to articulate their needs and exercise their rights. There is also a need for political space and markets that work for the poor.

In order to finance the additional needs for funding, the CCD urges donor countries to first of all honour their existing commitment to provide 0.7 per cent of their GDP to development assistance (ODA). It proposes that USD 1–2 billion should urgently be provided to "kick-start" other forms of funding. In the longer run, much larger amounts will be necessary, and must be additional to ODA. The CCD cautions against the creation of new financial mechanisms, and instead advocates a close integration of funding and adaptation activities into existing mechanisms and planning processes.

– All allocation processes must consider the rights, security and voice of the vulnerable in order to ensure that the resources reach the most vulnerable countries and communities, while strengthening the capacity of individuals to handle risks, Gunilla Carlsson concluded.

In a brief discussion that followed, Youcef Ait Chellouche from the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Federation in Senegal raised the problems that the compartmentalisation of agencies present to CSOs that work with integrated approaches to development, adaptation and disaster risk reduction: no single agency or

department is willing to finance such broad programmes. Gunilla Carlsson agreed, and pointed to the need for a political rather than technical debate on climate change that encompasses dimensions such as poverty, power, migration and many other dimensions.

Sida's work on climate change

– Climate change will have impacts on all aspects of society. But the poor, who often depend more directly on ecosystem services for their subsistence, are the ones most vulnerable to climate change, said Mia Horn af Rantzien, Deputy Director General of Sida.

In the development assistance policy of the Swedish Government, Climate Change & the Environment is one of three priority areas. The most recent development assistance budget provided an allocation of 4 billion SEK for work on climate change and energy over the years 2009–2011, out of which 1.15 billion SEK will be managed by Sida for programs that focus mainly on Africa. Sida will also develop, in dialogue with civil society and other stakeholders, a new policy to guide work in the sector.

According to af Rantzien, Sida is already drawing on the work of the CCD in planning for their future programmes. Some important conclusions, involve building adaptive capacity and speedy responses that match the scale of various problems. The resilience of the poorest needs to be strengthened, while the ecosystem functions upon which they depend must be enhanced. It is crucial that sufficient human and resources are provided at the local level, af Rantzien argues.

For its own part, Sida has begun to integrate adaptation perspectives within a wide range of sectors. Sida will increase the focus on risk management and on promoting environmentally sustainable development from a broader perspective, and invest more – both internally and externally – in awareness, learning and knowledge creation.

While discussing Sida's action programmes in different settings, Mia Horn af Rantzien highlighted the important potential for cooperation with civil society in areas of conflict and situations of fragility.

Civil society perspectives on climate justice

Tony Tujan, Director at the IBON Foundation in the Philippines and chair of the Reality of Aid network, discussed civil society perspectives on climate justice. While the climate negotiations revolve

around issues of mitigation, adaptation and transfer of technology, they fail to address the fundamental issues of development and justice. The concept of 'climate justice', said Tujan, brings to the front the key inequalities of development as we know it:

– This has not been development for all. It has happened at the expense of the majority of the world's population, and has been based on science and technologies that have not addressed global inequalities.

Climate change is no longer about future uncertainties and risks, says Tony Tujan. For many people in the global South it is a harsh reality of the present.

– In the Philippines, we used to have one 'super-typhoon' every ten years or so. Last year alone, we were hit by four such devastating typhoons that caused flash floods, landslides and other harmful events. Coastal people have begun to say that "the seas have become angry"; arguing that erosion devours the land.

Not only is climate change causing suffering, it is hindering development. Most importantly, the increasing pressure on developing countries to reduce their emissions may pose additional hurdles.

– Negotiators must recognize that industrialised countries owe a historical debt to poor countries: that a neo-colonial system has prevented them from developing. However, as a result of the monopolistic power that corporations have over our governments, most of the solutions that are being advanced are in fact the perpetuation of the same unsustainable development that has caused the problem, says Tony Tujan

The prevailing development model is so dominant that, according to Tujan, even many people in developing countries find it difficult to recognise the alternative strategies and technologies that local communities have developed and control. The People's Protocol on Climate Change is one initiative that aims to mobilise communities, social movements and other parts of civil society, especially from the South, to participate in the process of drawing up a different climate change framework at the Copenhagen meeting and beyond.

Referring to the 2008 High Level Forum on Aid Effectiveness, Tujan said that while progress had been made in making development assistance more responsive to developing countries' priorities, as well as considering the development effectiveness of interventions, less has been achieved in terms of properly respecting human rights, social justice and environmental sustainability.

– All aid and funding must consider climate change. Funding

for fossil fuel technologies and industries that are based on them must be stopped. More funds are needed for programmes that are based on rights, inclusiveness and gender equity.

– We also need to adapt urgently to the day-to-day changes that we face, but funding for adaptation must not mean more money just for 'climate-proofing' the same old highways and ports. We need to strengthen our capacity to address development in a more enlightened and empowered way, Tony Tujan concluded.

Beyond Copenhagen: Provocations and solutions

In a panel discussion concluded the morning session of the first day Johan Schaar, Director of the CCD Secretariat, reflected on the converging crises that are affecting the South:

– During the visit of the CCD to Cambodia, the Commission could see with their own eyes how the food crisis affected the country. The financial crisis also strikes hard in the South. We need to make sure that the same funds can be used to build resilience against several of these crises.

While it is encouraging to hear CCD cite examples of how people are already adapting at different levels, many still do not understand what causes these changes, said Phyllis Kamau of the National Council of Churches in Kenya.

– We need to make room for more voices to be part of the discussion; document and explain different coping strategies through which the poor can adapt. It is also important to show that local adaptation responses do not need to be expensive.

Larry Lohmann, writer and analyst at The Corner House in the UK, commented on the 'financialization' of climate policy since the adoption of the Kyoto Protocol in 1997:

– The main thing that has happened has been the establishment of carbon markets and the subsequent privatization of property rights in the atmosphere. These rights are owned by countries in the North and by the largest polluters, and they generate profits for fossil fuel corporations. There are some 4–5,000 CDM projects, but many of them only increase poverty, and the system delays necessary action in the North.

– The main buyers of carbon credits are Wall Street, Deutche Bank and the like. But they buy credits to speculate, not to mitigate climate change. We need to address this privatisation and financialization.

Referring to Tony Tujan's presentation, Lohmann emphasizes the need to distinguish between development that sustains and preserves a fossil fuel based economy, and one that is responsive to the concerns and needs of poor people. Johan Schaar commented that Tujan's points resonate well with the findings of the CCD:

– The development process needs to consider many new aspects such as coping better with environmental risks and maintaining ecosystem services. More attention must also be given to long-running and persistent obstacles to development. Hopefully the negotiations on climate change can result in more aid resources finding the way to lower local levels with more involvement by local institutions and communities. Civil society will have a crucial role of participating in and monitoring such programmes.

Xiang Ning, from the CDM Club at Beijing University in China, states that the debates on climate change among students are beginning to reach out to broader audiences, including the corporate sector.

– We focus mainly on mitigation, because at our stage of development it is essential to influence production methods and policy. Changing the course now can make an immense difference, and it is also much better than having to compensate later for growing emissions.

The panelists agreed on the need for civil society to build alliances to address climate threats, but Phyllis Camau and Larry Lohmann cautioned against the risk that others may want to take advantage of the CSOs for their own purposes. Because of different interests of different actors, alliance building is difficult, and it is crucial to be careful about with whom loyalties are formed.

The panelists also agreed that capacity building is essential for enabling the poor to adapt to climate risks. Johan Schaar emphasized the need for access to information that is relevant to the user.

– We need to simplify the jargon, translate important documents, and identify and explain what climate change means to the poor. Only then can they mobilize and act, says Phyllis Kamau.

Closing Session

The afternoon session of the first day and the morning session of the second day of the conference, were devoted to presentations and discussions in five thematic workshops. Background papers and summaries of discussions in these workshops comprise the remainder of this report (see p 16 ff).

In a brief closing session, the authors of the papers summarised some of the outcomes of the workshops. All participants were then invited to post their reflections on the conference on four posters – one each for Africa, Asia, Europe and Latin America. Each continent was then asked to formulate their commitment to continue working for climate justice. These are the commitments that were presented as the conference was concluding:

Africa
The African delegation will do four things:
- Promote social mobilization
- Increase efforts in adaptation – giving a human face to climate adaptation
- Increase our lobby & advocacy efforts to our governments
- Fight for justice for Africa in the ongoing negotiations and beyond

Asia
We engage together with governments, the people and communities to resist and heal, to adapt appropriately, to influence and support law and policy, to apply pressure to achieve universal climate justice, and we should shout it to the world right now!

Europe
- Listen to children
- Ask fundamental questions
- Holistic responses to the different crises
- Policy advocacy
- Move from talk to action
- Find out what business are doing
- Give voice to the South, and listen
- Personal commitments: eat less meat, change consumption patterns

Latin America
Strive for human development with social justice, solidarity and gender equality in support of climate justice.

Issues Papers and workshops

Five thematic workshops were organised around the following issues papers that had been produced and circulated before the conference. In most cases, the whole or parts of the concluding "Issues for Discussion" section of each of the papers that were presented to the conference have been transformed into a section on the issues discussed in the workshop. Minor revisions have also been made to the main part of some of the text, to better reflect experiences gained in the discussions.

Lena Johansson Blomstrand, Sida, Head of Team Partnership and Gunilla CarlssonMinister for International Development Cooperation, Ministry for Foreign Affairs, Key Note Speaker at the Climate Justice conference in Härnösand.

Workshop 1

Three Crises: Climate, Energy and Food

By Richard King, Oxfam GB[i]

1. Overview

The world currently faces three interlocking long-term crises: a climate crisis, an energy crisis, and a food crisis. These crises are all a result of scarce resources and failure to make step changes in the way we fuel the world's economy and use the planet's natural assets. In 2009, a fourth crisis, a cataclysm in the world's economies, is masking some of the impacts and stalling demand for some of these resources. Whilst this may be putting a temporary dampener on greenhouse gas emissions and fuel and food prices, it by no means affords a long-term solution; instead it is creating new problems of its own, and, as with all these crises, the impacts are being felt most acutely by the world's poor.

As the latest science continues to emerge, the pressing urgency of the climate crisis becomes ever more apparent. For all the rhetoric and negotiation around climate change since the Rio Earth Summit in 1992, global emissions have continued to rise. They must now peak by 2015 at the very latest and then fall rapidly, by some five per cent per year.[1] This year, 2009, represents the last serious opportunity to ensure this happens if catastrophic future outcomes are to be averted. But crucial though this is, agreeing to, and then actually making, drastic emissions cuts will not prevent future climatic changes – the world is already locked into a significant amount of climate change. Stalled actions to date mean that containing future warming to manageable levels may now be a remote possibility under even the most stringent emission cuts being proposed.[2] The upshot is that finding means to adapt to the changing climate through increasing resilience to both sharp shocks and long-term trends is also increasingly urgent.

i Richard King is an economic justice researcher for OGB, please send comments and queries to him at rking@oxfam.org.uk

As early as 2015 the average number of people affected each year by climate-related disasters could increase by over 50 per cent due to both increasing frequency/severity of such events and rising human vulnerability to them. As poverty and inequality force ever more people to live in high-risk places, such as flood plains, steep hillsides and urban slums, and as climate change gathers pace, this figure is likely to continue to rise.[3] Those peoples and nations least responsible for climate change stand to be hardest hit by both its shocks and trends. And their already limited coping capacity is currently being further constrained by the world's other crises.

Opinion is divided on how quickly oil, the lifeblood of the global economy, is running out. Whether or not 'peak oil' is imminent, the world rapidly needs to reduce its dependence on the oil and other fossil fuels that are warming the planet. The only alternatives to decarbonising the global economy are a more dangerous and volatile climate, rising fuel prices and increased energy poverty. And as fuel prices rise, they also contribute to dragging up food prices (Figure 1). Fuel prices are embedded in food prices through the costs of fertilizers, pesticides, and transporting food to market. In recent years biofuels have further cemented the links between fuel and food prices, as they compete with food for land, water, and other inputs. Therefore when oil prices rise, biofuel production increases, squeezing food supplies and so forcing up food prices in line with fuel prices.

Rather than providing a solution to the climate crisis or the oil crisis, increased biofuel production has played a significant aggravating role in the food crisis. The UN, World Bank, and International Monetary Fund (IMF) have all identified biofuels as a major culprit of the food crisis. The UN's Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) suggests that biofuels may explain ten per cent of food price rises, the International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI) and the IMF suggest 30 per cent, while the World Bank puts the contribution of biofuels even higher, at 65 per cent.[4]

Other than high energy prices and increased biofuel production, factors at play in creating the food price crisis included very poor harvests in several major grain exporting countries due to adverse weather conditions – arguably as a result of changes to the climate – and export bans from some large exporting countries. Opinions differ on the importance (or irrelevance) of speculation as a driver of food price volatility.

Figure 1a: World crude oil prices 1999-2009 (Source: US Energy Information Administration (EIA))

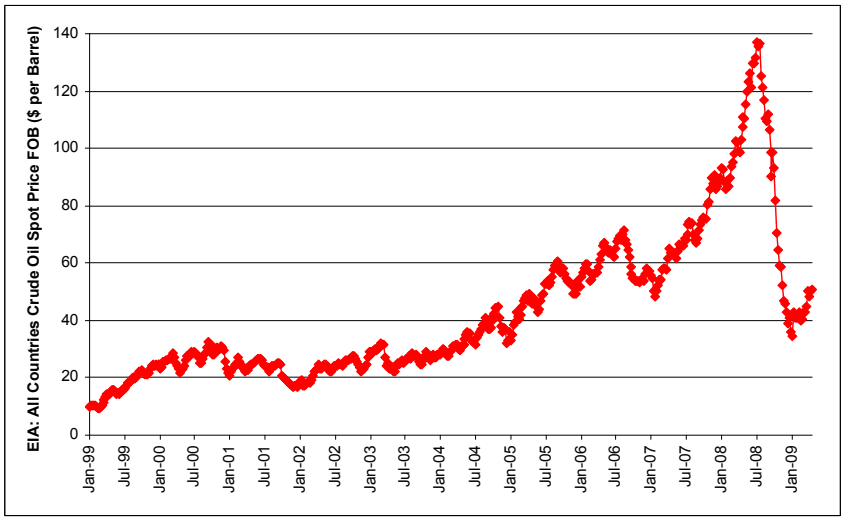
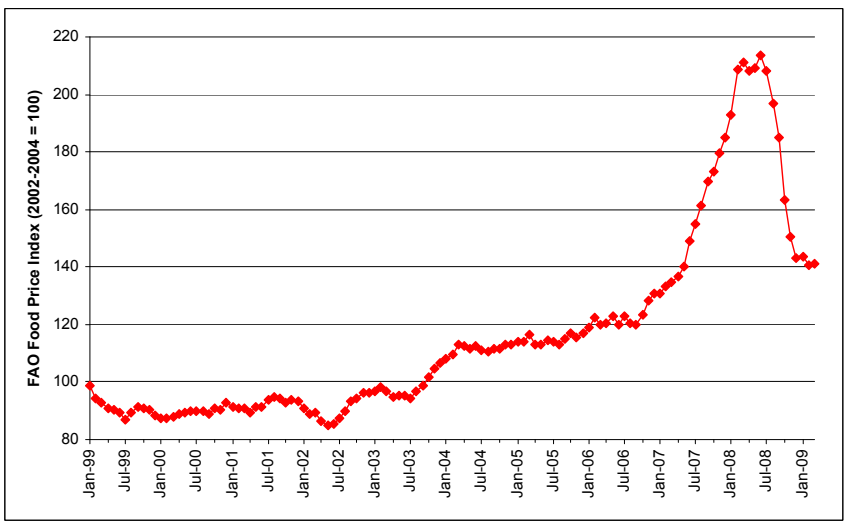


Figure 1b: FAO Food Price Index 1999-2009



As Figure 1 illustrates, the steady rise in fuel and food prices witnessed over the past ten years accelerated dramatically, and virtually simultaneously in early 2007 to record highs. By June 2008, the value of the FAO's Food Price Index was nearly 80 per cent higher

than two years earlier. Volatile international food and oil prices have since declined almost as rapidly as they rose, but not without leaving a destructive legacy and domestic prices that remain high.

The sharp increase in food prices should have benefited the millions of people living in poverty who make their living from agriculture. However, decades of misguided policies by developing country governments on agriculture, trade, and domestic markets – often promoted by international financial institutions and supported by donor countries – prevented poor farmers and rural workers from reaping the benefits of higher commodity prices.[5] Instead, the rapid rise in food and fuel prices during 2007–8 created a food crisis that continues to spell disaster for millions of people living in poverty. The poorest people living in the world's least developed countries generally spend 50–80 per cent of their income on food. When prices rose as rapidly and dramatically as they did, these people were left with few options other than to eat food with lower nutritional value, to eat less, or both. The number of malnourished people worldwide rose by 44 million in 2008, bringing the total number of malnourished people to nearly one billion (967 million).[6] And short-term shocks such as these have long-term impacts – spending more on food leaves less money for other essentials and jeopardises access to basic services such as health and education. Because of the food price crisis a generation of children, girls in particular, will be left with the lifelong effects of stunted growth and missing out on the opportunity to go to school.

Despite their recent decline, food and fuel prices continue to be extremely volatile and remain above long-term trends. The decline in international prices has been in large part due to the weakening of commodity markets experienced as part of the global economic downturn. What started out as a crisis in the financial sectors of Western economies has now mutated into a full-blown economic crisis of global magnitude. Already millions more people are being driven into poverty and those who may otherwise have escaped from poverty's grasp are being prevented from doing so. Oxfam estimates that in 2009 alone the crisis could push an additional 100 million people into poverty.[7] It could also further increase the number of people going hungry because of its impact on employment, incomes, and public spending.[8]

Yet this latest crisis is not even providing those living in poverty with respite from high food prices. International prices may have declined somewhat but domestic prices – the amount that poor

people pay for their food day-in day-out – have remained stubbornly high in many developing countries. According to FAO and World Bank sources, *"the obvious implication is that the 'food crisis' is indeed far from being over for poorer households in these countries, which spend the better part of their incomes on food."*[9] *"The food crisis has not gone away. In fact, it is coming back."*[10]

For people living in poverty, the volatility of prices creates as many problems as high absolute prices. The unpredictability of price fluctuations, exacerbated by increasing weather hazards and volatile oil markets, are a major challenge, especially for developing countries that have neglected their agricultural systems, cut cereal production, and become highly dependent on food imports.[11] Countries without money to pay for their imports, and without social protection systems and strategic food reserves to reduce the impact of price shocks are even more exposed.[12]

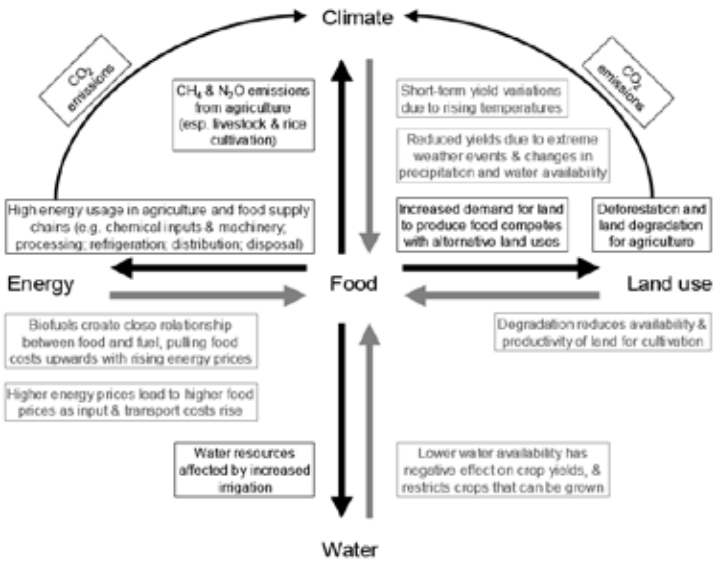
The recent fluctuations in food prices have demonstrated the vulnerability of food markets to shocks. The future is likely to present more shocks and volatility rather than less, particularly as a result of climate change.[13] Agriculture will be especially hard hit in seasonally dry and low latitude regions that are home to most of the world's poorest communities. There, even a slight increase in average temperatures will adversely affect millions of farmers, pastoralists, and artisan fisherfolk, who will suffer from both lower yields and higher vulnerability to extreme weather events such as droughts or hurricanes.[14] Africa, Latin America, and India will suffer the most severe losses.[15]

And as the world slowly emerges from the current global economic crisis, there is every reason to expect that international food and fuel prices will rise again. The Earth's resources – fossil fuels, productive agricultural land for food production, freshwater, remaining atmospheric space for development – are all increasingly scarce. Climatic stability, and food and energy security, which are closely interlinked (Figure 2), are all set to decrease. Long-term resource scarcity trends coupled with increasing demand from an over-consuming and growing global population are pushing our fragile planet towards breaking point. The US National Intelligence Council, looking forward to 2025, recently presented the stark reality:

…demand for food will rise by 50 percent by 2030, as a result of growing world population, rising affluence, and the shift to Western dietary preferences by a larger middle class. Lack of access to stable supplies of water is reaching critical proportions, particularly for agricultural purposes, and the problem will worsen because of rapid urbanization worldwide and the roughly 1.2 billion persons to be added over the next 20 years...

Climate change is expected to exacerbate resource scarcities. Although the impact of climate change will vary by region, a number of regions will begin to suffer harmful effects, particularly water scarcity and loss of agricultural production. Regional differences in agricultural production are likely to become more pronounced over time with declines disproportionately concentrated in developing countries, particularly those in Sub-Saharan Africa. Agricultural losses are expected to mount with substantial impacts forecast by most economists by late this century.[16]

Figure 2: Scarce Resources: Linkages between food, climate, energy, land, and water[17]



But dire Malthusian scenarios are not inevitable. The global community still has time to avert catastrophic climate change, food insecurity and energy crises. Just. Actions will have to be swift, radical, and comprehensive, and they will have to put poor people front and centre. Initiatives are needed that *"…create economic, social, and environmental resilience that cushion the impacts of climate change, and*

help provide needed social stability".[18] Many such initiatives must be set in motion by governments and businesses, and through complex international negotiation, but there is much that civil society – both in the North and South – and poor communities themselves can do and are already doing to respond.

2. Civil society perspectives, positions, and strategies

'Civil society' evidently encompasses a hugely diverse range of organisations that are responding to the crises the world currently faces in very different ways. It is not possible here to do justice to the rich gamut of civil society responses, from international mobilisations, to national level advocacy, to grounded community support. Instead a few examples are presented, for simplicity, under three distinct categories: international advocacy, national advocacy, and community-level action. CSO initiatives can also be conceptualised in terms the part of the policy cycle they are seeking to address or influence: identifying the issue and setting the agenda, formulating policy, pressing for implementation of agreed policies, or monitoring and evaluating policy impacts (Table 1).[19]

Table 1: CSO crises response matrix (S = strong activity; W = Weak activity)

		Policy Cycle			
		Issue identification, agenda setting	**Policy formulation**	**Policy implementation**	**M&E of policy impacts**
Geographic scope	International advocacy	S	S	W	W
	National Advocacy	S	S	S	S
	Community-level action	W	W	S	S

In some instances these initiatives explicitly address just one crisis or one particular aspect of one crisis, in other cases multiple crises are tackled simultaneously. At the programme level in particular, multiple facets of the interlinking crises may be addressed at once, though they may not necessarily be labelled as such. For example, many initiatives that help communities adapt, or build resilience, to climate change aren't always identified as being specifically in response to climate change, often they appear to be just good development programmes. Although advocacy and campaigns work often occurs at the margins of official decision-making, as the

South Centre notes, civil society has an important role to play in documenting the impact of the crises at national and local levels and in identifying those who are particularly affected so that resources meet the needs of the most vulnerable. Civil society also plays an important role in empowering communities to influence national policies and to hold governments and other development actors to account.[20]

2.1 International advocacy

Climate change

At the international level much civil society effort is currently focussed around building awareness of the causes of climate change and mobilising people to exert pressure on negotiators participating in the UNFCCC process to ensure a fair and adequate deal is reached in Copenhagen at the end of the year. For example, the Climate Action Network (CAN)[21] brings together over 450 NGOs working together to develop and advocate for global solutions to the climate crisis. Third World Network (TWN)[22] is equally active, both providing regular updates on the state of negotiations and international fora, and representing Southern voices through submissions to the UNFCCC.

Civil society continues to spearhead efforts to secure the rights of vulnerable countries and their peoples in the post-2012 climate change framework. For example, CSOs have been instrumental in ensuring that least developed countries (LDCs) and the Alliance of Small Island States (AOSIS)[23] gained representation on the UNFCCC Adaptation Fund Board, tipping the representative balance in favour of developing countries. As part of the continued effort to assist LDCs and AOSIS ensure that the concerns of their already climate-afflicted populations are recognised in the global negotiations, Bangladeshi civil society will soon be hosting an international CSO conference to determine concrete ways forward for the world's most vulnerable countries in leading their demands at the 2009 Copenhagen negotiations.

The People's Movement on Climate Change[24] is a global campaign promoting the People's Protocol on Climate Change[25] as an avenue for grassroots civil society and communities, especially from the South, to participate in the process of drawing up a post-2012 climate change framework. This is providing the space for those peoples who will be worst impacted by climate change and yet who have been excluded from the Kyoto process to voice their views on

the current efforts to combat climate change. It also seeks to highlight the key issues that must be addressed in international efforts to confront the climate crisis and hopes to become a crucial lobbying tool to pressure governments and international bodies to put the grassroots perspective on the negotiating table leading up to Copenhagen 2009.[26]

Food and fuel crisis

The World Food Summit[27] held in Rome in June 2008 was a focal point for organisations working on the food crisis, with much effort now focussed on influencing the reform of food security related, Rome-based institutions and mechanisms so that they more coherently and effectively tackle global policy issues and support national level food and agriculture related policies, plans, and programmes.

Grassroots experiences can be vital in informing such reforms. For example, Hunger Watch, an advocacy and research arm of the ACF International Network, uses on-the-ground perspectives to improve understandings of global hunger and influence responses to humanitarian crises, ensuring that vulnerable communities have a voice in international humanitarian deliberations.[28]

International advocacy can also draw on diverse, but shared, experiences from peoples throughout the world. For example, La Via Campesina, an international movement of peasants, producers, landless, rural women, and indigenous people, continues to work to promote the causes of, and develop solidarity among, their global members to promote the preservation of land, water, seeds and other natural resources as well as food sovereignty and sustainable agricultural production.

2.2 National advocacy

National level campaigns and advocacy are as diverse as the innumerable countries and contexts within which they occur. Here are just two brief examples:

Climate change

In Bangladesh, ahead of the Poznań UN Climate Change Conference in December 2008 the Campaign for Sustainable Rural Livelihoods (CSRL) mobilised more than four thousand people[29] in the north of the country on a march to raise awareness of climate change and its impacts on the most vulnerable communities.

Food and fuel crisis
In the Philippines, organisations such as the Asia Pacific Network for Food Sovereignty (APNFS)[30] have been using the food crisis as an opportunity to advocate with renewed vigour for increased food self-sufficiency, greater public investment in agriculture and support for poor farmers, as well as agrarian and trade policy reforms in the medium term.[31]

2.3 Community-level action
Some of the most vibrant civil society activities occur at the community level:

Food and fuel crisis
Civil society action at the community-level on food and fuel is especially diverse, both in terms of actors and strategies. Recent research by the Institute of Development Studies on the impact of the food, fuel, and economic crises in five developing countries found that faith-based institutions and local charitable organisations are playing a significantly greater role than development NGOs in supporting communities through the food crisis. For example, in Bangladesh, which is well known for its large development NGOs, there was little evidence of these organisations providing support to help people through the crisis. By contrast, a shrine of a Sufi saint near the Dhaka community was reported to be feeding up to 500 people daily at the height of the food crisis. The strain being caused by the current crises is evident in the fact that many non-governmental sources of support appear to be declining, including informal support from neighbours, relatives, and local traders.[32]

Climate change
Often community-level responses to climate change also address energy and food insecurity as well. For example, in Tajikistan, where shifting seasons were identified by community members as the most visible aspect of climate change, women-headed households have been provided with cold frames to extend the growing season and trained in food preservation techniques to improve their food security.[33] In much of sub-Saharan Africa charcoal is commonly burnt for cooking. Charcoal production leads to deforestation and degradation of the land, making communities increasingly vulnerable to climatic shocks, and increases their time poverty (as people, often women and girls, have to walk further and further to find firewood). But many initiatives are now successfully replacing

charcoal with alternative sources of fuel. For example, in Ethiopia, where women refugees who spend long hours collecting fuelwood outside refugee camps are frequently attacked, ethanol-fuelled stoves are enabling clean, comfortable cooking with fuel produced from locally-available molasses, a sugar by-product which previously caused pollution.[34]

Biodiverse agriculture is being widely promoted as a means of both mitigating climate change (for example through nitrogen fixing, which improves natural soil fertility and reduces dependence on fossil fuel based inputs) and providing farmers with increased resilience to cope with its effects (for example through building soil organic matter).[35] In Malawi, organisations such as Churches Action on Relief and Development (CARD) are providing farmers with improved varieties of seeds, and with training on making proper compost manure and improving their planting techniques. This combination of modern crop breeding and new skills with the revival of old techniques has resulted in an eight-fold increase in maize harvests.

Not all community-level initiatives are necessarily programmatic though. Community mobilisations and workshops are widely being used to educate and mobilise community members. For example, the Southeast Asia Regional Initiatives for Community Empowerment (SEARICE)[36] recently held a forum for Filipino school children on 'The Role of the Youth in Mitigating Climate Change'. There is clearly huge value attached to such initiatives; one student participant commented, *"There are only a few who are aware of the current state of our environment, and even fewer who care. Why is this? As members of the youth, we should start the campaign to regain what has been lost and to protect what is left. We are already starting to experience the negative consequences of climate change. Why wait for the worst scenario if we can do things to minimize or mitigate the effect of climate change in this area."*

As Table 1 illustrates, international, national, and community level actions all have different strengths and weaknesses. Joining these different strands together can strengthen the effectiveness of civil society in addressing the plural crises the world faces. In doing so, international advocacy is more firmly rooted in real life impacts and responses, and grassroots activism and programmes gain a clearer overall conceptual framework.

3. Issues and challenges discussed at the conference

The integrated nature of the climate, energy, and food crises, and latterly the economic crisis, poses particular challenges for policy makers and civil society alike in responding to them. Yet, as Rahm Emanuel, White House Chief of Staff, has commented, "You never want a serious crisis to go to waste."[37] This is particularly true of the current set of interlocking crises with which the world must contend. For all the misery and suffering that they are causing, these crises also present a unique opportunity to achieve major changes in the way the global economy is run and the world's resources are used. In this context, civil society has an important contribution to make, both to the amelioration of suffering and to the setting in motion of positive changes for our collective future. In recognition of this fact, participants at the 2009 Commitment to Climate Justice conference discussed some of the issues and challenges relating to the current spate of crises and civil society's responses to them. This was a rich and wide-raging discussion in which some divergent opinions emerged. This summary of the conversations does not claim to be comprehensive or representative of all participants' perspectives and insights; it merely gives a flavour of some of the topics that were discussed under three broad themes suggested ahead of the conference.

Framing of the crises

The initiatives witnessed in the face of the crises, both amongst and beyond workshop participants, are very varied – not just in terms of where they are located in the above matrix (Table 1), but also in terms of whether they are addressing the different crises in a holistic or integrated way, or alternatively are tackling just one particular crisis or aspect of a crisis in isolation. Equally, whilst many initiatives are new responses, many others are not so much responses to the crises per se; rather they represent ongoing work that appears to have renewed urgency or salience in the light of the emergent crises.

Nonetheless, most workshop participants agreed that irrespective of the breadth or specificity of their work, it is helpful to conceptualise the three crises, and the underlying resource scarcity issues, in an integrated manner, such that the causal linkages and overlaps in responses are brought to the fore. There was general agreement about the need for responses or ongoing work in one stream to be cognisant of the impacts on the other crises. There were, however, different opinions as to quite how widely the con-

ceptual framework should be constructed. Some felt the term 'crisis' problematic when applied to food, fuel, and climate, because although the problems caused are severe, they are not, yet, equally acute. Similarly, some felt that the term 'crisis' was inappropriate because the current situation might not lead to decisive changes in the status quo. Conversely, other participants were of the opinion that the framing should be broadened to, at a minimum, fully incorporate the global economic crisis. Some people felt that these four crises were symptomatic of a wider 'crisis' in Northern lifestyles which, for some, have become hollowed of moral values, afflicted with a lack of solidarity with other peoples and places, and become overly dependent on (excessive) consumption. Equally, some participants felt that there exist fundamental failings in, and a 'crisis' of, orthodox development paradigms that are disproportionally predicated on the intrinsic value of capital accumulation.

Some participants, whilst recognising the integrated nature of the food, fuel, and climate issues, felt that food should be the conceptual starting point, as the one fundamental human necessity that the other issues threatened to undermine access to. It was recognised that a focus on food security does not necessarily mean maximising production as agriculture should also provide other ecological services aside from food production, and that food security is contingent not just on adequate production, but also on adequate access, often through markets, to food. It was suggested that the treatment of food security needs to be much more closely integrated with the reduction of greenhouse gas emissions and reduced fossil fuel dependence.

Institutions

The climate, energy, food, and economic crises have refreshed the roles of multilateral institutions in coordinating global responses, such as through the UN Secretary General's High Level Task Force on the Global Food Security Crisis, the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change, and through the G20 usurping the G8 as the pre-eminent forum for coordinating action between the most powerful actors in the world economy. Additionally, there have also been calls for a new world energy agency.[38]

Participants in the workshop considered that institutions at all levels from the local to the national, through to the global, all have a role to play in finding solutions to the issues underlying the current triad of crises. Many also believed that the nexuses between these various levels and institutions will be the most fertile hunting

grounds for finding positive ways forward, and that civil society has a role to play in facilitating discussions between actors at the different levels. Civil society was also regarded as having an important role to play in 'sounding the alarm bells' if institutions or international negotiations with specific foci proposed ways forward that did not adequately consider the implications for other interlocking crises. Many participants felt that, notwithstanding the importance of these multi-level interactions, the most positive responses witnessed by people living in poverty are most likely to be realised primarily at the local level, and this is where grassroots civil society should focus the majority of their collective energies. Responses based primarily on top-down multilateral actions were found wanting. It was also suggested that civil society should create more opportunities for community members themselves to advocate for changes to institutions at the local and national levels.

Policies and programmes / responses

Workshop participants largely agreed that civil society's own policies, programmes, and other responses to the crises, as well as those of other actors, need to occur at multiple levels. Some felt that the 'win-win-wins' – i.e. policies or initiatives that can simultaneously address challenges posed by all three crises are most likely to be found from the bottom-up, starting with community level initiatives tackling practical needs on the ground, rather than through top-down policy reforms. Some participants suggested that the capabilities people need to respond to the multiple crises largely involve building their resilience, and are not distinct to particular crises. In this sense, it was argued that resources must be mobilised holistically. It was also suggested that various forms of knowledge and education need to be much better harnessed and disseminated in addressing the crises, for example, increased use of indigenous knowledge of agro-ecological farming methods, wider (and gender sensitive) access to agricultural extension, and more popular education of the causes and effects of the various crises; particularly of climate change which is still poorly understood by many communities and individuals outside NGOs. Many people and communities were found to be coping or responding well to current events, but without pigeonholing which crisis their actions are in relation to. Civil society needs to document and learn from these bottom-up actions.

Additionally, it was argued that although many coping strategies can be realised successfully in the South, more emphasis needs

to be given to tackling the issues at their source – largely in the North; in the parlance of climate change, more emphasis needs to be given to crisis mitigation, rather than focussing purely on crisis adaptation. It was suggested that changing lifestyles and patterns of consumption in the global North (for many an issue underlying all three/four crises) could be more successfully promoted by highlighting how these would foster long-term prosperity (in the broadest sense), rather than short-term austerity. Equally, it was argued that environmental externalities need to be internalised within understandings of growth and prosperity, and that ecological concerns need to be mainstreamed within development if the benefits of such developments are to be realised into the long term. In this vein, there was support for organic and bio-diverse agriculture and for greater, or more creative, use of renewable energy technologies, especially within the South. This raises a few outstanding issues in relation to whether a shift towards a low CO^2e global economy can also meet the need to adequately feed and resource a growing world population. These issues, highlighted below, are difficult to objectively resolve in a conference workshop, and may merit further scrutiny and discussion:

- Will the chances of successfully feeding the world's growing population with reduced greenhouse emissions be greater under an approach that employs more modern technologies (e.g. biotechnologies), or less (e.g. organic farming), or both?
- Are certain technologies (e.g. mobile phones or genetically modified organisms) inherently pro- or anti-poor? Where might future technologies that could help people escape from poverty and deal with resource scarcity come from? Is it possible to actively seek out such technologies?
- Is there any evidence to suggest that people living in poverty and developing countries will be able to use new technologies to 'leapfrog' up the development ladder or tunnel through the 'environmental Kuznets curve'[ii] or will future development necessarily follow the historical trajectory of dirty growth in the early stages, followed by cleaner development in later stages?

ii Kuznets's hypothesis was that economic inequality increases over time while a country is developing, then, after a critical average income is attained, inequality begins to decrease – thus the Kuznets curve has an approximately parabolic inverted u shape when per capita income is plotted (on the horizontal axis) against inequality. The 'environmental Kuznets curve' would therefore show income or development plotted against greenhouse gas emissions, with emissions first increasing and then decreasing as development increases.

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Workshop 2

Just About the Climate: Climate Change, Human Rights, and Civil Society Engagement

By Clarisse Kehler Siebert, Stockholm Environment Institute

1. Introduction to the climate change and human rights nexus

We [the Inuit] are in essence defending our right to be cold…
– Sheila Watt Cloutier

In tackling climate change, Governments worldwide must bear in mind that they have not only moral but legal obligations to protect and promote basic human rights enshrined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and international human rights law.
– Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights

In the last two-to-three years, an unconventional global cast of characters has mobilised around the intersection of climate change and human rights – from advocacy groups and research institutes, to Indigenous communities, governments of countries particularly vulnerable to climate change, and the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights. These actors reflect both practice and policy interests, and come with different perspectives and motivations in linking human rights and climate change. The diversity of these actors, however, suggests that this nexus has a broad relevance the world over.

This discussion paper is mandated to provide background information on the interface between climate change and human rights, and identify challenges and opportunities for civil society organisations (CSOs) who work at this nexus. The paper further situates within a broader context of "climate justice" – which is here bro-

adly understood to address the equitable distribution of rights and burdens. The remainder of this introductory section cursorily examines the meaning of climate justice, and looks at nuances in the interaction between climate change and human rights. Where this relationship is often understood through the impacts of climate change on the protection and promotion of human rights, the potential for the human rights regime to contribute to how climate change policy evolves is a dimension that should not be overlooked.

Part 2 of this paper looks at the approaches and entry points different civil society groups have taken to working with human rights and climate change, and the challenges faced in so doing. Broadly it is observed that while explicit work on the intersection of human rights and climate change is a relatively new area for most CSOs, it is a nexus that has very rapidly gained currency. Part 3 summarises and elaborates the discussion had by CSO participants at the Härnösand conference, responding to questions of possibilities and challenges for those working with rights-based approach to climate change.

Finally, this paper aims to complement rather than repeat a wealth of relevant information in the background documentation made available to Sida Civil Society Centre's 2008 Civil Society on Climate Change and Justice International Conference. The paper does not claim to be a complete study of how CSOs do and can work at the intersection of climate change and human rights, but it is submitted as the beginning of an iterative process. It is hoped both that missing pieces and perspectives will emerge and be filled in as the global community moves toward UNFCCC COP-15 in Copenhagen.

1.1 What is climate justice?

Climate justice can mean many things. As presented in the background document for Sida's 2008 Climate Justice conference (Civil Society and Climate Justice Overview), it comes down to a matter of equity in the distribution of benefits and burdens, considering some balance of historic responsibilities for greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, and current economic and other capacities to contribute to global and local solutions. It is relatively well understood and accepted that the climate change already experienced today and anticipated in the future is the result of a certain development path that has broadly benefited the global North, where the adverse effects are disproportionately experienced in the global South. This

dynamic, it is argued, places responsibility both to mitigate and to fund adaptation, squarely on those who have benefited from high GHG emissions. Climate justice understood in this way includes justice for people and justice the planet.

What a human rights approach adds to a discussion of climate justice is open for debate. It has been said that looking at climate change through a human rights lens changes the diagnosis of the problem: what might otherwise be considered an environmental or economic challenge becomes a problem of human dimension. The human rights infrastructure – including codified fundamental and universal human rights, and the architecture of domestic and international courts to uphold these rights – creates procedural guarantees. Through these mechanisms, the human rights regime further translates the ethical concerns of a climate justice debate into legal obligations with related enforcement mechanisms. Furthermore, equity principles known to international law, such as the polluter pays principle and the principles of common but differentiated responsibilities, struggle with questions of "who is the duty holder?", and cannot be applied where this cannot be answered. By contrast, human rights law clearly places the responsibility for human rights protection with states, irrespective of who caused the rights violation. As applied to climate change impacts on human rights, this removes the difficulty of having to prove which country caused emissions that adversely affect a population half way around the world – something that is nearly impossible.

Attention turns now to the human rights and climate change interface.

1.2 Climate Change & Human Rights

Human rights law is relevant because climate change causes human rights violations. But a human rights lens can also be helpful in approaching and managing climate change.

…

If we build human rights criteria into our future [climate] planning, we will better understand who is at risk and how we should act to protect them.

– Mary Robinson

The fact that so many actors have recently chosen to focus on the interrelation between climate change and human rights makes sense, as the nexus engages two concepts that are nearly universally applicable and relevant. Both human rights and climate change

have strong moral grasp: people have strong opinions about protecting human rights and about preventing dangerous climate change. Both concepts demand global cooperation and high levels of leadership.

Yet these concepts also differ. They differ in that the development of the human rights regime was a challenge that benefited from retrospect, whereas the climate change challenge today is one of prospect. To be more precise, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was a response to a massive political failure that gave rise to a world war that resulted in sweeping human tragedy. Climate change, by contrast, has been characterised as a "tragedy in the making". The Human Development Report 2007/2008 suggests that letting this tragedy evolve would again be a massive political failure, and represent a "systematic violation of the human rights of the world's poorest, and future generations".

The relationship between climate change and human rights is often understood by looking at the impacts of climate change on achieving and promoting fundamental rights. This relationship lends itself to tangible and graphic illustrations that are, thus, useful for advocacy work. The reverse relationship, however more conceptual, is also relevant. This is to say that the human rights regime can contribute to the way in which climate policy is done, notably by building rights criteria into future climate policy, in turn lending enforcement mechanisms, and creating legal obligations. A two-way relationship is also reflected in international law and policy, where there seems to be a certain interconnected dissonance between the international human rights and climate change law: low ambition and weak compliance in the climate regime results in violations in the human rights regimes, while upholding rights necessarily obligates stronger compliance with more ambitious climate treaties.

The climate change impacts of human rights, and the potential for human rights to influence how we approach climate change, will be looked at in turn.

Climate Change impacts of human rights

How does climate change impact the fulfilment of human rights? To illustrate, it is useful to look at some of the most fundamentally affected rights. It is not hard to imagine potential direct and indirect impacts that climate change has on the right to life. These can be immediate – think for example of climate change-induced extreme weather events – or more gradual effects, such as in health

deterioration, diminished access to safe drinking water, temperature change resulting in wider spread of vector-born diseases. The *right to food* is implicated as well. Regional food supply is affected by climate change, as increased temperatures accelerate grain sterility and change in rain patters render certain lands infertile while accelerating erosion and desertification. Rising sea levels increase soil salination making coastal land unusable for agriculture, while causing fish species to migrate. Climate change affects access to water, resulting in lower and more erratic rainfall in tropical regions. Conflicts over water are anticipated to become more widespread, causing threats to human security. The *right to adequate health* is affected, as climate change is linked to the spread of diseases like malaria, and for malnutrition, while changes in rainfall and temperature also make it more difficult to control dengue fever.

Broader rights, such as to *social and international order* are further implicated: forced migration due to climate change is but one example. As reflected in the quotation at the start of this paper, Indigenous *cultural rights* and local knowledge are being adversely affected, for instance as Inuit people in the Arctic can no longer hunt as they did traditionally, due to thinning ice. As communities and island nations are threatened, other social and cultural rights such as to cultural identity and language are at stake. In sum, climate change appears so far-reaching that it impacts a wide range – perhaps all – universal and indivisible rights.

Human rights and climate policy

As already alluded to, various actors have identified human rights norms as a different way through which to approach the climate challenge. The quote by Mary Robinson above suggests using human rights criteria to address climate planning, in order to better understand the human impacts of a changing climate. The logic is that human rights provide a thus-underutilised set of universal norms which raise basic needs to entitlement status, are legally binding rather than morally persuasive vis-à-vis States, and provide prevention and enforcement mechanisms that are known to policy-makers and tested before tribunals. States' human rights obligations to not commit or omit apply when these same states negotiate climate change obligations, thus making available monitoring and compliance tools. This reasoning has been articulated normatively by advocacy groups in campaigns but has yet to be actively seen in practice.

In their *Rough Guide*, the International Council on Human Rights Policy has further proposed that both mitigation and adaptation strategies raise new human rights questions as well through areas such as "assigning accountability for extraterritorial harms; allocating burdens and benefits, rights and duties among perpetrators and victims, both public and private; constructing reliable enforcement mechanisms." This implies that groups working with human rights tools will be forced to think about a whole new problem set in light of climate policy challenges.

2. Civil Society Perspectives

Contingent on their mandate and capacities, civil society organisations have found different entry points to work with climate change and human rights. These entry points demonstrate that for some, linking climate and rights is an end in itself (notably for advocacy purposes), whereas for others it is a new means by which to pursue old aims (notably, in humanitarian and development work). This section briefly examines the entry points and challenges identified by CSOs in working with the intersection between human rights and climate change.

2.1 Perspectives/Entry points

The main entry points identified by CSOs interviewed in preparing this discussion paper are summarised below. These reflect a certain similarity in approach – which might be expected of organisations already gathered with a relatively common worldview. It is hoped that additional entry points will be imagined and pursued in discussion at the Härnösand conference.

- *Disaster risk reduction*
  Particularly for CSOs working with children's rights, disaster risk reduction is a point of departure. Children, families and communities must be engaged in becoming more resilient to the adverse effects of climate change. This raises further questions about the intersection between disaster risk reduction, adaptation and development cooperation – in many cases these overlap or are effectively the same thing. The Swedish Humanitarian Network (Nätverket för svenska humanitära aktörer) which formed in December, 2008, noted that while climate change has not been an official item of discussion, certain actors have raised disaster risk reduction and climate change

adaptation as important issues to bring forward in humanitarian advocacy work.

- *The humanitarian imperative*
  Flowing from disaster risk reduction, CSOs also use the climate change and human rights interface to highlight the humanitarian focus of their work. Here, emphasis is on climate change impacts as illustrative of ways in which humanitarian work is made more difficult because of climate change. Increased extreme weather events, for instance, complicate and increase the need for emergency humanitarian relief work, and also thus affects human rights of implicated communities.

- *Opportunity to engage (with) new actors*
  For human rights groups, showing the interaction between human rights and other fields – such as climate change – provides opportunity to interact with new actors and ideas. For instance, where the researchers, scientists, policy makers and activists working on climate change may not normally find synergies with their human rights counterparts, linking the two issues provides opportunity for this to happen. [iii] This type of interdisciplinary sharing is proving beneficial in academic circles as well as among advocacy groups. The applied policy and legal fields appear more reticent, though this may be changing. This strategy of combined effort might at times be at odds with the challenge identified below in the form of reluctant human rights and climate communities to work with others.

- *Equity*
  It would seem that the vocabulary of climate change and human rights is being used strategically, particularly by development CSOs, to address broader questions of equity (or "fairness") in approaching burden sharing for climate change mitigation and adaptation. To illustrate, by using a "right to development" as a threshold against which to measure relative responsibility and capacity, the Greenhouse Development Rights framework is advocated by CSOs around the world as means to assign responsibility for mitigation.

[iii] In Sweden, for example, the 2009 Human Rights and Climate Change theme of the Swedish Forum for Human Rights (MR-Dagarna) has attracted groups in both environment and human rights fields (policy and applied) to work together. Similar new coalitions were formed between the Anna Lindh Memorial Fund and the Stockholm Environment Institute, bringing efforts together on a climate science and human rights event.

2.2 Challenges

CSOs consulted in preparing this discussion paper also identified a range of challenges in approaching the climate change and human rights nexus. Many of these are summarized here.

- *Climate change or human rights are not "on the table"*
  In some cases, climate change and/or human rights are not a specific focus for a given CSO. It follows that even where the link would be strategic to draw between a work programme or project and human rights or climate change, it is difficult to mobilise support among colleagues. In the case of larger organisations, this dynamic can also exist between national and international chapters.

- *A complicated message*
  The nature of the relationship between climate change and human rights is complex. It is not something that can easily be easily communicated, and so is avoided.

- *A reluctant human rights or climate change community*
  Specific to human rights groups, there is a disagreement among human rights practitioners themselves about using the human rights regime to promote or uphold other causes, such as climate change. The belief is that using rights language to affect broader social phenomena confuses the existing human rights framework. The traditional response is that while the credibility of traditional standards must be upheld, these standards must also be understood within today's world, to be able to respond to the emergence of new threats to human dignity – again, such as climate change. This tension can make it difficult for human rights groups to link their work to climate change. Likewise, those working with climate change science and policy are not necessarily looking for new disciplinary lenses through which to approach the issue. Human rights organisations seeking to work with climate change cite disinterest from parts of the climate change community as a barrier to further exploring linkages.

- *Issue areas*
  A detailed analysis of all the human rights challenges caused by climate change would be a complete discussion paper in itself. Here it will be sufficient to say that many CSOs identified the

particular rights challenges of climate change they see in their work, from malnutrition, health, displacement, and education, to conflict and problematique of justice: that those who have contributed least to the climate problem bear most of the impact.

- *Research and sharing between communities of practice*
  The absence of research, particularly applied research, was identified as a challenge that perpetuates uncertainty and lack of funding (see below). In particular, CSOs noted that adaptation to climate change in developing countries is in particular need of research and pilot programmes that can drive policy development and financing. This links also to the need for more sharing between practices communities, and also linking natural and social science with policy.

- *Funding*
  The climate – human rights nexus is not immune to the perpetual problem of insufficient funds. A combination of above factors including the complexity in communicating the problem, and uncertainties in the research of human rights impacts of climate change make it difficult to mobilise funds. A difficulty in raising funds to work on cross-cutting or combined issues was also cited. Private sector investment in adaptation activities in developing countries is usually difficult to attract. For development and humanitarian practitioners, this comes up against the much bigger "question mark" for COP-15, on how financing for adaptation will be generated, governed and dispersed.

3. The Potential and Challenges of Working with Human Rights and Climate Change – a summary of workshop discussions

As shown above, the opportunities and challenges of CSOs working on issues related to climate justice generally, and at the intersection of climate change and human rights in particular, vary according to factors such as sector, country, and aim. This section reflects specific observations, concerns and questions of CSOs working in particular sectors or on specific issues, and also on procedural and sometimes more universal concerns of engagement, participation and access, interface with decision-makers or other

CSOs, and funding. The following synthesis is based the discussion had during the climate change and human rights workshop at the Härnösand Commitment on Climate Justice Conference 2009. Because of the variation in aspirations and purposes of the organisations involved, it reflects a variety of options rather than concrete conclusions. The synthesis is non-exhaustive, but serves as the basis for further discussion, for disagreement, and above all, it is hoped, for action.

Climate change policy and strategy

- *Up to, during and beyond Copenhagen.*
  The question of cooperation among civil society groups now in 2009 and post-Copenhagen is one of both substance and of strategy. Some CSOs want to focus on putting the human rights and climate linkage forth on the COP-15 agenda, where others think of this linkage more as a lens through which to approach their work, or alternatively as a longer-term (beyond Copenhagen) objective. While the answer to how an organisation approaches the human rights-climate interface is one that is internal for each organisation, it will impact whether or how different CSOs work together in the lead up to Copenhagen.

  During the workshop, a question was posed as to what to do if the outcome of the UNFCCC COP-15 lacks ambition and does not reflect the aspirations of many CSOs. Where some CSOs choose to focus on the most immediate opportunities and not to address this type of negative hypothetical, others wanted to strategise on how to work beyond and irrespective of the COP-15 outcomes. For the latter, areas on which to focus longer-term work plans can be anticipated: environmental groups immediately think about environmental impacts and in turn how these affect rights. Groups working more on the human rights and humanitarian agenda focus their messaging on the human dimensions of climate change impacts – particularly those in developing countries. Southern CSOs (and those in solidarity with) are particularly concerned about mechanisms for governance of adaptation funding, and Northern CSOs about their governments' commitment to financing for adaptation or domestic reduction targets. It is open for consideration as to whether a shared message – despite disparate concerns – from CSOs prior- and post- Copenhagen is plausible or even desirable. Irrespective of a shared message,

it seems that a shared resolution to work with purpose and focus on relevant issues "beyond Copenhagen" is necessary, whatever the spirit and outcomes in December this year.

- *The strategic benefit of linking human rights and climate change policy.* Climate change and human rights are linked with greater frequency and increasingly in new fora. As already presented in some detail above, there are different reasons for why CSOs choose to look at the rights dimensions of climate change, or the climate dimensions of human rights. Some CSOs working at the international climate policy level, for instance, want to introduce human rights language into the Copenhagen agreement as a way of emphasising human impacts within the future climate agreement. Workshop participants suggested that a human rights-based approach to climate policy is more feasible than alternatives – for instance, convincing developed countries that their (lack of) accountability in the context of development cooperation is linked to the climate change negotiations. Some proposed that a human rights approach to climate policy would also have the effect of mitigating emphasis turning to developing country reduction commitments. Embracing a human rights approach, it was suggested, further has potential to strengthen credibility of developed countries and contribute to bridging the extant trust deficit. Humanitarian CSOs, for their part, are keen to use climate change to demonstrate the imperative of their primary mandate – that is, of delivering on immediate needs in times of crises, and/or of longer term efforts to build more resilient communities thus decreasing risk. For others, the reason might be more utilitarian, drawing the support and solidarity of civil society sectors who do not conventionally share a common goal.

  Just as it was clear to certain workshop participants that it is important for them to work at the human rights – climate change nexus, it was also discussed that despite the increased attention paid to the intersection of climate change and human right, others perceive this focus as irrelevant, detrimental, or detracting efforts from the crucial, individual issues. Within the climate negotiations, negotiators indeed appear reluctant to add human rights considerations to an equation that already involves too many variables. Comparably, before the UN Human Rights Council, some countries have taken the position that cli-

mate change is to be addressed within the UNFCCC, and human rights within the Human Rights Council – and that these should not communicate. Several CSOs pointed to the irony that while the human rights agenda has always been a prerogative of the North (though admittedly in a manner less controversial than environment protection), certain developed countries are the greatest opponents to looking at human rights within the climate change context, and vice versa. In sum, there are many answer to questions such as whether climate change policy benefits from a human rights analysis, whether the plight of human rights advocates and practitioners would benefit from strong(er) climate policy, and whether these links are relevant at a policy level and whether they have practical application "on the ground".

Sectoral challenges

- *Working sectorally and/ or working on cross-cutting issues.*
  The challenges of working on cross-cutting issues (such as at the nexus of climate change and human rights), and with organisations that typically work on completely different issues, were addressed. In this context, accessing resources to work on issues that do not fall within traditional "silos" was identified as a challenge. CSOs also identified a number of actions that can be worked on in cooperation. Notably, there is a need to create and translate the issues at stake into a language appropriate to respective constituencies – that is, customise the climate change agenda and associated human rights challenges in a way that is geographically and thematically relevant. It was also suggested that the scope of partners needs to be broadened to form non-conventional alliances – that is, cooperation need not necessarily be with other non-governmental organisations, but also with other sectors such as trade unions and local governments. Civil society organisations with other expertise (such as democratisation – see below) should also be engaged.

- *A recombination of tools: From justice to rights; rights to justice.*
  When approaching human rights and climate change from different entry points, it was observed that different disciplines conventionally adopt different "tool kits" appropriate to address the set of problems known to that discipline. For instance, human rights advocacy groups make use of (among other things) the human rights regime and communication strategies,

where groups working first and foremost on environmental concerns use domestic or international climate policy (among other things) to focus on environmental impacts. Sharing perspectives through activities such as the Härnösand conference itself was identified as one way of starting to share perspectives and tools among CSOs.

Questions of process

- *A issue of voice.*
  A joint concern of CSOs meeting at the intersection of climate change and human rights is one of voice in the international negotiations context. Human rights extend, after all, to democratic rights of representation and also of participation. Civil Society Organisations, particularly from the developing world, observed that their governmental delegations were in all circumstances overstretched: there are too many parallel sessions for a small delegation to follow, and as a result they must rely on the G77, which is not all-inclusive. In some circumstances, the delegations are not most representative of the people of their country. In addition, there are rarely resources for civil society to be part of the delegation. This brings questions of equity into the discussion, as well as questions of governance and due process. It was suggested that engaging another sub-set of CSOs in future discussion, working specifically on democratisation and participation, would be beneficial, both domestically and internationally.

- *From a problem-based to solutions-oriented analysis.*
  It was observed that CSOs' very raison-d'être is often a particular cause or problem. For CSOs working with climate change and human rights, this might for instance be a problem of economic or environmental North-South equity, burden sharing, desertification or poverty linked to climate change, or communicating a need for added emphasis on disaster risk reduction. At the workshop, methods and tactics for moving from concentrating on and communicating the problem, to promoting proactive measures to reach solutions, were discussed. In response, it was suggested that the climate negotiations are a highly politicised process. The humanitarian imperative that can be expressed using the language of rights was proposed as a more "apolitical space", which might be used strategically by

CSOs in advocating the human face of climate change. As a specific suggestion – and picking up on a suggestion made in the conference plenary – it was proposed that CSOs, potentially together with Sida, produce a user-friendly summary of the Commission on Climate Change and Development report and that this be translated into major languages. This would be available as a tool for CSOs with their constituencies.

- *CSOs and trust-building.*
  The climate change "deadlock", as the lack of progress in negotiations is sometimes characterised, is often attributed to a mistrust between developed and developing country negotiating blocks. Differences in emphasis and concern also exist among CSOs along South-North lines and particularly across sectors. It was discussed whether CSOs can play a role bridging the mistrust. Here it was suggested that CSOs can focus on those issues where they share common aims. Notably, the notion of bringing the "voices of the voiceless" to the negotiations process was an important element. This links to the discussion above on the necessity of democratic representation within the negotiating process itself.

4. Further information

The following references were used in preparing this paper, and are relevant sources for further information.

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http://www.ichrp.org/files/reports/36/136_report.pdf

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Fighting Climate Change: Human Solidarity in a Divided World
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http://www2.ohchr.org/english/issues/climatechange/study.htm

Petition to the Inter-American Commission on Human Rights Seeking Relief from Violations Resulting from Global Warming Caused by Acts and Omissions of the United States, submitted by Sheila Watt-Cloutier with the support of the Inuit Circumpolar Conference (7 December 2005).
http://www.inuitcircumpolar.com/files/uploads/icc-files/FINALPetitionICC.pdf

Partners for Climate Justice and Sustainable Devlopment meet at Sida Partnership Forum.

Workshop 3:
Carbon, Forests and People

by Göran Eklöf, Context

Forests are important for several different reasons. Approximately 1.6 billion people worldwide derive some part of their income or livelihood from forests and where international trade in forest products in 2004 was worth USD 327 billion. Forests act as home for hundreds of millions people, of which 60 million belong to many indigenous peoples that rely on the forests for their livelihoods and for their cultural identity. Forests provide these people with almost everything they need: food, fodder, fuel, water, medicines, materials for construction and handicrafts, and much more. As long as forests are managed in ways that allow these forest-dependent communities to continue their traditional use and practices, these forests can continue to support a life style that may not be rich in material terms, but that is usually better than other options available to most community members. If the situation changes, and access to forest land and resources is restricted or external interests such as logging or plantation companies lay their claims to the forests, local forest-based economies may quickly collapse.

Forests also have an immense ecological value – they contain 80 percent of all terrestrial biodiversity on the planet and provide a great amount of ecosystem services important for human well-being. The United Nations Millennium Ecosystems Assessment found that forests' soil formation and protection against erosion, water retention and purification, protection against floods and storms, and the regulation of local climates, as well as the capacity of forests to absorb and store atmospheric carbon in living organisms and in soils are crucial ecosystem services that forests provide. [iv]

iv www.millenniumassessment.org/en/Synthesis.aspx

Forests as important carbon stores

The world's forests contain over 600 Gt (billion tonnes) of carbon. This exceeds the total amount of carbon present in the atmosphere. Any changes in the capacity of the forests to store carbon can thus have important consequences for the climate. Forests whose carbon storage increases over time are called sinks, while those that lose carbon are called sources.

Green plants absorb atmospheric carbon through photosynthesis, and convert it into sugars and other compounds that build up living organisms. When organisms burn energy, they release the carbon again as carbon dioxide. This is also what usually happens when dead organic matter decomposes. Over time, in forests undisturbed by human intervention, these two processes result in an equilibrium, or a slow net uptake of atmospheric carbon. But the balance created by these natural mechanisms has been severely affected by forestry practices and changes in land use in a large part of the world's forests. In addition to the loss of stored carbon that result from the felling of trees, the drainage of peat forest land can result in passive releases of carbon dioxide – one of the most cited examples is the conversion of peat land to oil palm plantation in Southeast Asia.

Forests may also release other greenhouse gases than carbon dioxide. For instance, when organic material in the soil decomposes in the absence of oxygen it produces methane, which is 21 times more potent that carbon dioxide as a greenhouse gas. Tropical forests, as well as drained boreal forests, also produce smaller amounts of nitrous oxide, which is 300 times more potent than carbon dioxide.

According to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) deforestation is responsible for 17.4 percent of global greenhouse gas emissions and agriculture (including animal husbandry) being responsible for another 13.5 percent. This is, however, only one way of presenting reality. The expansion of agriculture is the single most important driver of deforestation: expanding animal production alone is responsible for almost one third of all emissions due to the loss of forests. But the IPCC does not attribute these emissions to agriculture's account. If the deforestation that agricultural expansion causes were included, agriculture would be responsible for about 20 percent of the emissions, and 'deforestation' for about 10 percent.

Deforestation and forest degradation

"Deforestation" is not the only cause of greenhouse gas emissions from the loss of forest biomass. "Forest degradation" can be equally or more important.

There is a significant distinction to be made between these two concepts. Deforestation is the measure of the loss of forest areas that meet specific standards of a 'forest'. The most commonly used standard is an FAO definition that sets a minimum level of 10 percent crown cover, trees that have the potential to grow to a height of 5 meters or more at the specific location, and a minimum area of 0,5 hectares. When countries report forest cover to the climate change convention, slightly more flexible definitions may be used.

Forest degradation is instead a measure of the loss of quality by forests, and can be seen as more relevant in regard to carbon storage. For example, a loss of 80 percent of crown cover, from 85 to 15 percent, is defined as forest degradation, but a loss of 1 percent – from 10.5 to 9.5 percent – is deforestation. Parameters like the loss of biodiversity and ecosystem services are also covered by the term degradation.

Table 1 illustrates the differences in the results of applying the two concepts. [v] While 'deforestation' in Brazil is almost twice as high as in Indonesia, while the result for emissions due to deforestation and degradation area almost the opposite. It can also be noted that while Malaysia does not even appear on this "deforestation top 12" list in the left column, it comes in third on the list in the right column, which shows the top 12 countries based on emissions caused by both deforestation and forest degradation.

v Conference participants from Indonesia suggested that Table 1 should be revised, since the data cited for Indonesia is based on years with an unusual amount of forest fires in the country. The author responded that the purpose of the table is only to illustrate the differences between the results of measuring deforestation and measuring the effects of all land use changes, but offered to review any new data that may be available. After the conference, Indonesian participants supplied the author with more recent data for deforestation in Indonesia. However, the author has not been able to find comparable data for the same years for other major forest nations. Table 1 has therefore been kept in its original form.

Table 1: Top 12 countries in terms of deforested area, and of emissions caused by deforestation/forest degradation[vi]

Country	**Deforestation** *(in million hectares)*		**Country**	**Emissions from deforestation *and* forest degradation** *(in million tons of CO_2e)*
Brazil	3.1		Indonesia	2,563
Indonesia	1.9		Brazil	1,372
Sudan	0.60		Malaysia	699
Myanmar	0.47		Myanmar	425
Zambia	0.45		Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC)	317
Tanzania	0.40		Zambia	235
Nigeria	0.40		Nigeria	195
Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC)	0.32		Venezuela	144
Zimbabwe	0.31		Mexico	97
Venezuela	0.29		Ivory Coast	91
Bolivia	0.27		Bolivia	84
Mexico	0.26		Cameroon	77
Sum for the countries listed above	*8.77 (=68%)*		*Sum for the countries listed above*	*6,299 (=83%)*
World	**12.9**		**World**	**7,590**

Sources: FAO(2005) for deforestation, Greenpeace (2007) for emissions (using WRIs CAIT4 data base).

Forests in the climate change convention

The 1992 UN Framework Convention on Climate Change, UNFCCC, does not mention much about forests. It does, however, contain a commitment by all parties to promote and cooperate in the conservation and enhancement of sinks and reservoirs of greenhouse gases, including forests. Developed countries have also committed themselves to provide assistance to help developing countries to address the negative effects that climate change will have on forests.[vii]

The Kyoto Protocol, which was adopted in 1997, contains more detailed regulations on forests, yet they only apply to those

vi Reproduced from Frühling & Warfvinge (2008): For Reasons of Climate: Reflections on criteria for new Swedish international forestry undertakings. www.fruhling.se/docs/For_Reasons_of_Climate_Final_Report_June_2008.pdf

vii United Nations (1992): United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change.
http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/convkp/conveng.pdf
http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/convkp/convsp.pdf
http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/convkp/convfr.pdf

industrialised countries that have ratified the Protocol.[viii] Two paragraphs regulate how the net effect changes in emissions that result from afforestation (the establishment of new forests) and reforestation (the regeneration of forest) may be used to meet counties' emissions reductions commitments for the 2008-2012 period, as well as how the effects of other land use changes may be added or subtracted during subsequent commitment periods.

The Kyoto Protocol also introduced market based 'flexible mechanisms' such as carbon trading and the Clean Development Mechanism, CDM, which allows for industrialised countries to obtain emissions credits that are generated through the implementation of projects that reduce emissions in developing countries. The role of forest projects in CDM have been an issue for intense debate, due mainly to the scientific uncertainty in the quantification of net CO^2 uptake or greenhouse gas emissions from forests, and the fact that forest fires or changes in land use can rapidly turn a sink into a source. The rules that were agreed in 2001 only allows for afforestation and reforestation projects to be included in the CDM during the 2008–2012 implementation period, and the amount of such credits that each industrialised country can use is limited to the equivalent of one percent of that country's greenhouse gas emissions in 1990. By the end of 2008 only one single CDM forest project had been registered. In March 2009, 39 project applications had been received, but they still only represented 0.04 percent of the emissions reductions from all projects that had requested or obtained approval for registration.[ix]

In 2005 Papua New Guinea and Costa Rica, as representatives of the newly formed Coalition for Rainforest Nations, proposed that the option of compensating countries for measures that reduce deforestation should also be explored.[x] Since then several different proposals and models have been discussed. Several of them are linked to emissions trading and propose that CDM or CDM-like mechanisms ought to be extended to allow for trade in certified emissions reductions from avoided deforestation. The UNFCCC

viii United Nations (1997): Kyoto Protocol to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change.
http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/convkp/kpeng.pdf
http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/convkp/kpspan.pdf
http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/convkp/kpfrench.pdf

ix www.cdmpipeline.org/cdm-projects-type.htm viewed on 22 April 2009.

x Papua New Guinea & Costa Rica (2005): Reducing emissions from deforestation in developing countries: approaches to stimulate action. http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/2005/cop11/eng/misc01.pdf

meetings in Bali in December 2007 agreed on a decision to launch a process aiming to come to an agreement on "policy approaches and positive incentives on issues relating to reducing emissions from deforestation and forest degradation in developing countries; and the role of conservation, sustainable management of forests and enhancement of forest carbon stocks in developing countries".[xi] This decision puts the issue of deforestation and forest degradation firmly on the agenda for the negotiations that lead up to the next Conference of the Parties in Copenhagen in December 2009.

"Do trees grow on money?" Earlier experiences of financing for reducing deforestation

In the last few years, reducing deforestation has increasingly come to be seen as a rapid and cheap way of reducing greenhouse gas emissions. The assumption that it is cheap has been supported not least be the Stern Review prepared by former World Bank economist Nicholas Stern for the British minister of finance in 2006.[xii] According to the report, "a substantial body of evidence suggests that action to prevent further deforestation would be relatively cheap compared with other types of mitigation". This assessment is, however, based more on economic modelling than on practical experience. The review estimates that the opportunity costs for completely stopping deforestation in eight countries that collectively are responsible for 70% of land-use emissions would amount to around USD 5-10 billion annually. In addition to this, action to address deforestation would also incur administrative, monitoring and enforcement costs for the government, but according to Stern's estimates these costs would be small. The report concludes that "large-scale pilot schemes are required to explore effective approached to combining national action and international support".

However, large-scale programs to halt deforestation have been tried before. The *Tropical Forestry Action Plan*, TFAP, launched in 1985 by the FAO, UNDP and the World Bank, was one of the largest and most controversial programmes. Over a period of 6-7 years, USD 8 billion was spent on projects in more than 70

xi UNFCCC (2007): Decision 1/CP.13: Bali Action Plan. See also Decision 2/CP.13: Reducing emissions from deforestation in developing countries: approaches to stimulate action. Both documents are available via:
http://unfccc.int/documentation/decisions/items/3597.php?such=j&volltext=/CP.13#beg

xii Stern (2006): The Economics of Climate Change – the Stern Review. http://www.hm-treasury.gov.uk/sternreview_index.htm . A summary in Swedish is available at
http://www.naturvardsverket.se/Documents/publikationer/620-5711-1.pdf

countries. The plan was met by unprecedented protests from environmental groups, human rights organisations and representatives of the forests dwellers. In 1986 the World Rainforest Movement was formed, largely as a civil society response to the challenges posed by the TFAP.

The results of this and other programs are generally not very encouraging. In a presentation of its recently launched Forest Carbon Partnership Facility, the World Bank offers a succinct summary of the experiences so far:

Combating the destruction of forests has been on the international community's agenda for the past three decades. However, little progress has been made so far in reversing deforestation trends in most tropical and subtropical countries.

The reasons behind the failures differ, but they are often related to a lack of understanding of the causes that drive deforestation. As a result, the access by local communities to forests has often been restricted, even when their use of forest resources is not part of the problem. For instance, rotational agriculture as practiced by indigenous peoples has been targeted, also in areas where there is historical evidence that these practices have been sustainable for over hundreds of years. Many programs have also built on the assumption that the pressures on natural forests can be reduced through the establishment of intensively managed tree plantations. In many areas, however, tree plantations have expanded at the expense of natural forests, as demand for pulp wood and timber has continued to grow.

The underlying causes of deforestation

In any given location, deforestation and forest degradation usually result from a combination of direct and indirect causes, which are often external to the forestry sector. [xiii]

The main direct causes are, in falling order of importance: agricultural expansion, infrastructure expansion, and wood extraction.

xiii For an analysis of causes, see Chomitz et al (2007): At Loggerheads? Agricultural Expansion, Poverty Reduction, and Environment in the Tropical Forests. www.worldbank.org/tropicalforestreport or Geist and Lambin (2002), Proximate Causes and Underlying Driving Forces of Tropical Deforestation. Bioscience 52(2): 143-150. http://www.freenetwork.org/resources/documents/2-5Deforestationtropical.pdf

The most important indirect, or underlying, cases are macro-economic factors. The market demand for forest products like wood and paper, or of products that can be produced on forest land (such as meat, biofuels and cash crops) is growing steadily. This growing demand may be stimulated or complemented by other drivers, such as taxes and economic incentives, global and national agriculture and trade policy, or policy conditionalities dictated by international financial institutions.

The indirect causes also include governance issues, such as the degree of transparency and democratic participation in decision-making, corruption among politicians, civil servants and corporate leaders, or the way that tenure and land rights are defined and respected. Weaknesses in all these areas are important causes behind the loss of forests in many countries and regions.

Proposals and strategies in the REDD negotiations

The issue of how to reduce emissions from deforestation and forest degradation is on the agenda for the negotiations leading up to the meetings in Copenhagen in December 2009, and of a number of countries and country groups have presented their proposals and positions. Unfortunately, the negotiations have so far been limited to the technical level. At the last set of meetings, in Bonn in March, many speakers pointed to the need a more political discussion of issues like indigenous and local communities, human rights, biodiversity and governance.

Sources and models for funding

Identifying the sources of financing for REDD is one of the key issues in the discussions. The two main options are:

- Programs financed by public funds generated through taxes, levies, or new sources like income from the auctioning of emissions allowances.
- Funding through market based mechanisms that allow private and public investors to finance projects in exchange for receiving emissions reductions certificates that that are tied to emissions trading systems.

The implications of choosing one or the other of the two models are important. Firstly, programs financed with public money will be implemented in addition to mitigation measures in the industrialised countries, but the driving force behind the market mechanisms is to achieve emissions reductions from tropical forests instead of

investing in the same amount of reductions at home. The market mechanisms are only means for reducing the costs for industrialised countries to meet their commitments to reduce their emissions, and for investors, traders and consultants to make money. In publicly funded programs, reducing deforestation can be an end in itself, which can be combined with other ends like protecting biodiversity or developing local economies.

There are mainly two arguments for using market based mechanisms. Both are challenged by many civil society organisations, as well as by some governments:

1. Mobilising more money

The Eliasch Report, which was produced for the British government, estimates that by 2020 the market for emission allowances can provide USD 7 billion annually for reducing emissions from deforestation. The report also states that an additional USD 11-19 billion per year will be needed from other sources.[xiv] But several of the innovative sources of financing that have been proposed – auctioning of emissions allowances (Norway), an international tax on CO^2 (Swizerland), levies on international air transports and shipping (Tuvalu, others) – are estimated to each generate incomes in the range of USD 5-30 billion annually. It may thus not be necessary to rely on market mechanisms for generating sufficient funds.

2. Cost effectiveness

Market mechanisms are said to direct the flow of investments towards the most cost effective measures. But in the carbon markets there is only one possible measure of this effectiveness, and that is tonnes of carbon per dollar or euro. Values of great concern to civil society, including development of local economies, recognition of human rights and biodiversity conservation, do not have a price on the carbon market. Furthermore, the markets are only interested in measurable and verifiable emissions reductions. As EcoSecurities, one of the leading companies in the market, put it: "We can't only rely on markets. Markets do what is profitable. They won't fund capacity building. So we need both." REDD-Monitor, a REDD news and analysis web service, comments: "The private sector is asking for public money to address the problems such as land rights, indigenous peoples' rights, mapping forest cover, good

xiv Eliash (2008): Climate Change: Financing Global Forests. The Eliasch Review. 2008. http://www.occ.gov.uk/activities/eliasch.htm

governance in the forest sector and so on — in order that the private sector can profit from trading forest-carbon." [xv]

The Coalition for Rainforest Nations, a grouping with about 40 members, supports the use of market mechanisms as a means to raise funds for compensate countries that reduce deforestation and forest degradation. The most important opponent among countries that are rich in tropical forests is Brazil, who is opposed the linking any forest programs under the UNFCCC to compensate for emissions by industrialised countries. According to Brazil, this would reduce the pressure on industrialised countries to shift to a low-carbon economy. Instead, Brazil has proposed the establishment of a publicly financed global fund. Bolivia, although it is a member of the Coalition of Rainforest Nations, also recently presented a proposal for such a fund as a part of the new financing mechanism that G77 and China have proposed should be set up under the UNFCCC. [xvi]

Civil society organisations are divided on the issue. Some of the large international environmental NGOs are strong proponents of market mechanisms, while others (IUCN, WWF) have taken a more cautions approach by emphasising the need for investments in capacity building, governance and land tenure reform, etc. Among environmental organisations with a strong membership in developing countries, social movements among farmers and forest communities, and development organisations, there is a widespread opposition to market based REDD mechanisms due to the risks that they will undermine developed country emission reductions, disempower local communities, promote a narrow view of forests as carbon sinks, and several other reasons.

Who will get paid?

The idea of compensating countries for reducing deforestation raises some very fundamental questions, such as Who will get paid? and For what?.

The first issue is about defining the area. One of the methodological problems that has so far prevented the inclusion of REDD projects in CDM is referred to as "leakage": reduced deforestation

xv The private sector and REDD: "Turning liabilities into assets". Chris Lang, 4 december 2008. http://www.redd-monitor.org/2008/12/04/the-private-sector-and-redd-turning-liabilities-into-assets/

xvi Bolivia (2009): Proposal on REDD-plus financing under the G77 and China proposal on Financial Mechanism for Meeting Financial Commitments under the Convention. http://unfccc.int/files/kyoto_protocol/application/pdf/boliviaredd250409.pdf
För en diskussion om den av G77 och Kina föreslagna mekanismen, se Eklöf (2009): Klimatnotan – de rikas ansvar och de fattigas rätt till utveckling.

in one place can come at the expense of increased deforestation somewhere else. If Malaysia was to stop the conversion of forests to oil palm plantations, the industry would most likely expand their plantations elsewhere, assuming that demand for palm oil continues to grow. This problem is best addressed by measuring deforestation and degradation on a global scale, yet most proposals and models would compensate for REDD on a national scale or – in the chase of market mechanisms – project by project.

Representatives of local forests communities and indigenous peoples are also concerned about who will get paid, and how their interests will be safeguarded. Many indigenous and traditional communities rightly claim that they have used and managed their forests for centuries without degrading or destroying them, and continue to do so where political and economic powers permits a sufficient degree of control. Instead, deforestation is often driven by external forces and interests. Forest communities therefore fear that these external actors will now scramble to get their hands on compensation for reducing their harmful activities, with the possible outcome that access to forests by local communities may be further restricted.

Developing countries that already have a low deforestation rate have pointed to a similar dilemma: why should countries that have failed protect their forest be compensated, while countries that have managed their forests sustainably receive nothing? Proponents of REDD plans often refer to them as *payment for ecosystem services* (PES) programs, but if that was indeed the case, compensation should be paid for all forests that are preserved. Surinam has recently proposed that countries with historically low deforestation rates should have access to funding from a targeted conservation fund additional to ODA.[xvii]

The role and rights of communities

While the Bali decision on REDD does mention that actions that aim to reduce deforestation should also address the needs of indigenous peoples, it does not say anything about their rights. Ever since the 2007 Bali meeting, representatives of indigenous peoples have repeatedly demanded that all decisions on REDD must also respect theirs rights, and make direct reference to the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples that was

xvii Surinam (2009): Submission of Views to the Ad-Hoc Working Group on Long Term Cooperative Action. http://unfccc.int/files/meetings/ad_hoc_working_groups/lca/application/pdf/surinameredd240409.pdf

adopted by the General Assembly in 2007. [xviii] The declaration from the Indigenous Peoples' Global Summit on Climate change in April this year mentions carbon trading, CDM and offset programs within the forest sector as measures that threaten these rights.

It is easy to imagine how large flows of capital can further undermine the rights of indigenous peoples to use and control their lands. For example, the Indonesian government's proposed regulations for REDD programs would make it just as easy to give out concessions for REDD as it has been to give concessions to loggers and plantation companies. The United Nations Committee for Elimination of Racial Discrimination says that this proposal reiterates legislation that "appears to deny any proprietary rights to indigenous peoples in forests", and calls on the government of Indonesia to review these laws.[xix]

But Indonesia also offers examples of local communities, like the Koperasi Hutan Jaya Lestari forest cooperative on Sulawesi, who refine their own forest management practices in order to increase the capacity of their forests to store carbon.[xx]

Summary of discussions in the workshop

1. The importance of forests for climate change is only an additional reason for why it is important to intensify efforts to halt deforestation and forest degradation which, in quantitative terms, mostly occur in developing countries. Forests are, furthermore, important for local economies and the livelihoods of forest communities, for the culture and identity of indigenous forest peoples, for the continued provision of ecosystem services, and for biodiversity.

- How can civil society help ensure that the new commitment to reducing deforestation and forest degradation address a broader set of concerns than the role of forests as carbon reservoirs and sinks?
- What is needed in order to draw and disseminate lessons from the accumulated experiences of communities and civil society organisations that have worked on forest policy and the rights of forest communities, so that new plans and programs work with them rather than against them?

xviii http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/unpfii/en/drip.html

xix Letter to Indonesia's ambassador to the UN in Geneva, 19 March 2009. http://www.fern.org/media/documents/document_4377_4378.pdf

xx Forest Watch Indonesia: Community Logging to Store and Sink Carbon: A Model from Konawe Selatan http://fwi.or.id/english/?p=43#more-43

2. As the causes that drive deforestation are numerous, complex and vary from one site to another, no universal policy for containing tropical deforestation can be devised. Instead, strategies must be developed nationally and locally in order to accurately identify and address the drivers behind deforestation and forest degradation, or else these programs are likely to fail to meet their objectives.

- How do civil society organisations respond to the argument that rapid action is needed and that there is no time to wait for proper governance structures, clarified land tenure regimes, capacity building or broad based participation?
- How can CSOs and forest communities work together to identify and address those underlying causes that are related to consumption patterns, corporate investments and government policies in the in industrialised countries?

3. Conducting 'consultations' with indigenous and local communities has become a recognised standard practice among many international institutions and programs. But being consulted is not the same as having a say in decision-making.

- What is an acceptable level of influence from communities and civil society? Should communities have the right to veto a project? What about access to information?
- How can CSOs in the North and the South strengthen the recognition of the right of communities and civil society to participate in planning and decision-making?

4. The issue of market based REDD mechanism is central to the discussion, and there are proponents as well as sceptics among governments in both industrialised and developing countries, as well as among CSOs. During the last year's discussion, the idea of a "phased approach" to financing of REDD programs has been gaining increasing support. In short, it implies making commitments to finance the initial investments and programs through officially managed funds, and then gradually link such programs to the carbon markets.

- What are the advantages and risks, if any, with this "phased approach"? What position should CSOs take on the proposal?

Participants from Indonesia suggested that Table 1 in this paper should be revised, since the data cited for Indonesia is based on years with an unusual amount of forest fires. The author respon-

ded that the purpose of the table is only to illustrate the differences between the results of measuring deforestation and the effects of all land use changes, but offered to review any new data that may be available.[xxi]

Suggested further reading

Angelsen et. al. (2009): Reducing Emission fron Deforestation and Forest Degradation(REDD) An Options Assessment Report. Prepared for the Government of Norway. www.redd-oar.org

CIFOR (2008): Do Trees Grow on Money? The implications of deforestation research for policies to promote REDD. http://www.cifor.cgiar.org/Publications/Detail?pid=2347

FERN (2008): An overview of selected REDD proposals. http://www.fern.org/media/documents/document_4314_4315.pdf

Griffiths, Tom (2008): Seeing 'REDD'? Forests, climate change mitigation and the rights of indigenous peoples and local communities.
http://www.forestpeoples.org/documents/ifi_igo/seeing_redd_update_draft_3dec08_eng.pdf

Peskett et. al. (2008): Making REDD Work for the Poor. http://www.povertyenvironment.net/pep/?q=making_redd_work_for_the_poor_october_2008_draft

Rights and Resources Initiative (2008): Seeing People Through the Trees: Scaling Up Efforts to Advance Rights and Address Poverty, Conflict and Climate Change.
http://www.rightsandresources.org/publication_details php?publicationID=737

xxi After the conference, Indonesian participants has supplied the author with more recent data for deforestation in Indonesia (available only in Bahasa). However, the author does not have access to comparable data for the same years is not available for other major forest nations. Table 1 is therefore kept in its original form, for illustrative purposes.

Workshop 4:

Issues for Copenhagen and Beyond

By Meena Raman, Third World Network

1. Background

The Bali meeting of UNFCCC (COP) and Kyoto Protocol (MOP) was an important event. It involved complex and sometimes contentious and controversial issues and events.

Perhaps the most important decision at Bali was the establishment of a new ad hoc working group (AWG) on long-term cooperative action (LCA) under the UNFCCC to undertake a "comprehensive process to enable the full, effective and sustained implementation of the Convention through long-term cooperative action, now, up to and beyond 2012, in order to reach an agreed outcome and adopt a decision at its fifteenth session." (i.e. in 2009).

Climate change is a very serious problem, at the level of crisis, and there has emerged a scientific consensus on its seriousness through the IPCC. While the developed countries are mainly responsible, especially historically, the developing countries will be most severely affected. There is tremendous need to curb and reduce emissions as soon as possible. The key issue is "burden sharing", i.e. which country should undertake what future emission path. It is also imperative that adaptation measures e undertaken to prevent adverse effects.

The current international climate regime comprises the UNFCCC and Kyoto Protocol. The developed countries have two types of commitments: (1) to assist developing countries on finance and technology transfer; and (2) to reduce their emissions. Under Kyoto, developed countries (which are known as Annex I countries under the Convention and listed in annex B in the Protocol) have

to undertake cut their emissions overall by 5.2% below 1990 levels in the protocol's 1st commitment period of 2008 to 2012.

Developed countries have not made enough progress in meeting their reduction targets. The UNFCCC's Greenhouse Gas Data 2006 report reported a "worrying" upward trends in 2000-2004 period. Although overall emissions by developed-country parties overall dropped 3.3% in 1990-2004, this most mostly due to a 36.8% decrease by countries in transition (Eastern and Central Europe or EITs). Most worrying was that other industrialized countries registered a 11% increase. The worrying fact is that the EITs are now increasing their emissions (up 4% in 2000-2004). According to UNEP's Geodata, CO^2 emissions rose from 1990 to 2003 in Western Europe from 3.5 to 3.6 billion metric tons and in North America from 5.5 to 6.4 tons. Meeting the first-commitment period targets should thus be a top priority of the next years (to 2012).

Developed countries are also obliged to provide financial resources and technology transfer to developing countries under the articles of the Convention and the Protocol. Developed countries are obliged to provide new and additional financial resources to meet the agreed full costs of developing countries in implementing commitments (for data) and provide financial resources (including technology transfer) to meet the agreed full incremental costs needed by developing countries to implement their commitments (which include formulating and implementing national/regional programmes for mitigation and adaptation. These commitments of developed countries have yet to be implemented in any significant manner. Indeed there is a large "development deficit" in terms of unfulfilled finance and technology obligations.

The developing countries do not have to undertake emission reduction commitments under Kyoto. All UNFCCC parties have to undertake commitments under Article 4 (1) to collect and submit data; and to formulate and implement mitigation and adaptation measures, plus other measures. Article 4 (7) of UNFCCC says that the extent to which developing countries implement their commitments under the Convention will depend on the effective implementation by developed countries of their commitments related to financial resources and technology transfer, and will take fully into account that economic and social development and poverty eradication are the first and overriding priorities of developing countries.

Kyoto Protocol mandates a first commitment period (of 2008-2012) for emission reduction for Annex 1 countries of 2008-2012 in Article 3(7); and says commitments for subsequent periods for Annex 1 parties shall be established by amending Annex B of the Kyoto Protocol (which contains specific reduction commitments of each developed-country party) [Article 3(9)]. Thus, the Kyoto commitment period 1 will end in 2012 and a 2nd commitment period should start in 2013. Kyoto mandates further commitment periods after that. Therefore there is an in-built mechanism in the Protocol for the continuation of commitments of Annex I countries, which is beyond 2012 and which does not end, unless it is explicitly ended. This it is an error to say that the Kyoto Protocol expires in 2012.

From the above brief account, it is clear that the UNFCCC and the Kyoto Protocol recognize the responsibility of developed countries for causing the crisis and their higher capacity level to resolve the crisis, and thus they have accepted the two main commitments of binding emission reduction targets and of assisting the developing countries with finance and technology. The developing countries are also obliged to collect data and undertake mitigation and adaptation measures. However, it was agreed they are not to undertake binding reduction commitments, and the extent to which they undertake these measures depends on the extent to which developed countries keep their finance and technology commitment.

It is important to recognize that developed and developing countries are treated differently in the UNFCCC and in Kyoto Protocol, in terms of levels of responsibility, with developed countries having binding commitments, while developing countries have non-binding responsibilities which are also conditional on their obtaining adequate support.

This differentiation of roles is a most fundamental feature of the UNFCCC and the Kyoto Protocol.

2. The future of the convention and kyoto protocol

The future framework of the UNFCCC and Kyoto Protocol appear to feature prominently in the recent climate talks. Some countries seem have the intention of scrapping the Kyoto Protocol and in creating a new protocol, or else to change it fundamentally. There is already a lot of misleading talk about "the post Kyoto protocol", a "new 2012 agreement", etc. Well-established newspapers

and news agencies talk of "when the Kyoto protocol expires in 2012." Even the UN media service misleadingly mentions the expiry of the Kyoto Protocol in 2012. In reality, it is only the first commitment period of Annex I countries which ends in 2012, and the Protocol has an in-built mandate for subsequent commitment periods. When the Protocol was established, it was not intended to last only a few years. The intention was and is for it to continue for the long term.

At Bali, many in the media were wrongly projecting that a new post-2012 agreement needs to be launched to replace the Kyoto Protocol. Several G77 countries were concerned about it and they requested the Secretariat to put the picture right. However this wrong portrayal continued to the end, even beyond Bali and now.

International action on climate presently and in the future should continue to be within the UN framework; and within the UNFCCC, and the Kyoto Protocol. There should not be an attempt to create a "new agreement" other than UNFCCC nor to fundamentally alter the nature of the UNFCCC or the Kyoto Protocol. In particular, the built-in development safeguards and provisions in UNFCCC and Kyoto should be considered fundamental to the integrity of the framework and should not be altered.

Thus is it advisable to reject notions of a new convention or a new protocol, and instead accept the built-in agenda of negotiating a second commitment period of the Kyoto Protocol. Such a negotiating process is already under way in the Ad-hoc Working Group on the further commitment of Annex I countries, known as the AWG-KP.

As the G77 and China strongly pointed out in Bali, the weakness in the Convention and Protocol is the lack of implementation of the existing commitments under both. The focus should be to ensure the implementation of commitments of developed countries (Phase 1 reductions, and commitments to finance and technology), and to build the capacity of developing countries to be able to better deal with mitigation and adaptation, while retaining their development objectives.

3. The post-bali process and the road to Copenhagen

At Bali, the G77 and China correctly argued that the top priority in the next phase is to ensure the full implementation of the developed countries' commitments. This should be the basis of the prioritization and sequencing of the post-Bali process. This is especially

because the implementation of the finance and technology commitments is needed as a basis and condition for the developing countries to undertake their own programmes.

The focus of the "negotiating" agenda of the Parties should thus be the implementation of the commitments by developed countries: (1) the implementation of emission reduction in commitment period 1 ending in 2012; (2) the provision of finance to developing countries; (3) the transfer of technology to developing countries; (4) the conclusion of negotiations on the emission reduction targets in the second commitment period.

As can be seen in the difference of language used in the mitigation section of the Bali Action Plan, the developed countries are to undertake "commitments or actions" while developing countries are to undertake nationally appropriate actions. The actions to be undertaken by developed countries are already part of commitments previously made. On the other hand, the developing countries are having a new undertaking on actions, which are not in the nature of binding commitments.

In particular, there should not be attempts to lead the developing countries into binding commitments or even non-binding commitments which they are unable to undertake unless several conditions are in place.

The developed countries may want to establish linkage between their commitments and the actions of developing countries. The fulfilment of their commitments should not be linked to an attempt to get developing countries to make new commitments.

4. Commitments of developed countries

The commitments of developed countries (or Annex I countries) are at the centre of the Convention and the Protocol. The following are their current commitments.

(a) Implementation of emission targets for 1st commitment period (2008-2012). The picture is disappointing overall, and some countries are very far off course. Hence, what is critical in this period of negotiations is to ensure developed countries, including the United States, which is not a party to the Kyoto Protocol, commit to deep quantified emission reduction targets, that will enable the developing countries to have the environmental space they need for their sustainable development.

Indeed, developing countries have been stressing the historical responsibility of the developed countries and on the climate debt

which they owe to developing countries in taking up the atmospheric space in building their wealth, prosperity and development. This unfair appropriation of the atmospheric space by the developed countries has been at the expense of developing countries and has been raised by several developing countries at the UNFCCC climate talks.

In fact, Bolivia, in a recent submission to the UNFCCC has stressed that the scale and timing of emission reductions by the developed countries must be sufficient to ensure that developed countries' historical debt fpr their excessive past consumption of environmental space and their continuing excessive per-capita emissions, is fully repaid to developing countries, and this repayment must begin with the outcome to be agreed in Copenhangen. Bolivia has said that developed countries with less than 20% of the world's population are responsible for around 3/4s of historical emissions. It also added that their current per person emissions continue to exceed those of developing countries by a factor of four. Their accumulated historic emissions on a per person basis exceed those of developing countries by a factor of eleven.

(b) Implementation on finance and technology. Developing countries at Bali expressed great disappointment at the failure of implementation on both finance and technology. the Bali Action Plan Para 1b(ii) calls for mitigation actions by developing countries "supported and enabled by technology, financing and capacity-building, in a measurable, reportable and verifiable manner."

Developing countries, under the umbrella of the G77 and China comprised of more than 130 countries, at the Accra climate talks in August 2008, proposed the establishment of a financial mechanism to ensure enhanced financial resources, as well as a new technology mechanism to accelerate the development and transfer of technology for both mitigation and adaptation actions. The technology proposal includes addressing the issue of patented climate technologies, which can be a barrier to affordable access by developing countries. In fact, several developing countries at the Bonn climate talks recently called for a relaxation of intellectual property rights on climate friendly technologies, including the exclusion from patentability of such technologies and products.

At the Bonn climate talks from March-April this year, it was clear that good decisions on finance and technology are key in Copenhagen and that this would be a 'make or break' issue for developing countries.

(c)The negotiations on the further emission reduction commitments of Annex I countries. This is taking place under the AWG of the Kyoto Protocol on this issue. Developing countries have been calling for deep emission cuts by developed countries so as to ensure that developing countries are not harmed further by the impact of the GHG emissions and for them to have the environmental space for their development options.

Regrettably, the recent Bonn talks failed to make any progress with developed countries not providing any figure for the total level of GHG emission reductions that they will undertake in the next commitment period and this is a critical issue for a decision in Copenhagen. The less the developed countries undertake in their domestic emission cuts, the more the burden on developing countries to adapt to the consequences of such inaction, in addition to having to do more in terms of mitigation actions.

(d) The Bali Action Plan decision para 1b(i) mandates that under the AWG-LCA of the Convention, the developed countries will undertake enhanced mitigation action including consideration of "measurable, reportable and verifiable nationally appropriate mitigation commitments or actions, including quantified emission limitation and reduction objectives, by all developed country Parties, while ensuring the comparability of efforts among them, taking into account differences in their national circumstances." This para is especially aimed at involving the United States in a Convention process for mitigation commitments, since the US is not a member of the Kyoto Protocol. If the US does not intend to join the Kyoto Protocol, an important legal issue for Copenhagen would be how its' domestic emission reduction targets will be made binding internationally and be comparable to the efforts of the Kyoto Protocol Parties.

5. The role of developing countries

Developing countries are not required by the existing rules of Kyoto to have binding emission reduction commitments before or after 2012.

Under UNFCCC Article 4 (1), UNFCCC parties, including developing countries, undertake to to collect and submit data on emissions, and to formulate and implement mitigation and adaptation measures, plus other measures. Article 4 (7) of UNFCCC says that the extent to which developing countries implement their com-

mitments under the Convention will depend on the effective implementation by developed countries of their commitments related to financial resources and technology transfer, and will take fully into account that economic and social development and poverty eradication are the first and overriding priorities of developing countries.

The non-binding nature of developing countries' obligations and the recognition of their finance and technology needs are in recognition of their negligible historical role in the build up of Greenhouse Gases in the atmosphere, their low development levels and their need for development.

However there are now strong pressures by developed countries to have the developing countries to increase the level and scope of their obligations. For example, the US has explained that a major reason for its non-membership of the Kyoto Protocol is that major developing countries do not have to undertake the binding commitments. The US tried in Bali to remove the categorization of developed and developing countries in the approach to mitigation actions (proposing instead other criteria), but did not succeed.

Following the Bali talks, many developed countries continue to stress the need for differentiation among the developed countries, so that those who are "advanced developing economies" or "countries with significant emissions profiles" take on binding quantified emission reduction targets, while other developing countries do mitigation actions that are nationally appropriate.

Developing countries have opposed any form of differentiation, arguing that the Convention does not provide for it this, while stressing the principle of common but differentiated responsiblities among developed and developing countries.

This issue is one of the most contentious issues of the climate talks.

In Bali, Parties agreed to the following language in relation to developing country mitigation actions under what is called para 1b(ii):

(b) Enhanced national/international action on mitigation of climate change, including, inter alia, consideration of:

(ii) Nationally appropriate mitigation actions by developing country Parties in the context of sustainable development, supported and enabled by technology, financing and capacity-building, in a measurable, reportable and verifiable manner.

The wording of this paragraph and its linkage of developing countries' actions to the provision of technology, finance and capacity-building also places the paragraph side by side with Article 4 (7) of UNFCCC.

The phrase "nationally appropriate" mitigation actions gives some flexibilities for countries to set their actions within the context of national conditions and needs. It also allows for the diversity of developing countries, so that the poorest and most vulnerable countries can make a case that their actions are guided or constrained by their national conditions. The reference to "sustainable development" also enables the developing countries to set their actions within the context and objectives of sustainable development, which includes not only the environmental but also the requirements for the country's economic and social development which, as UNFCCC article 4.7 recognises are first and overriding priorities.

Finally, the reference to the need for finance, technology and capacity-building makes clear that obtaining these are pre-requisites to *enable* the actions. It is in line with the UNFCCC principle that the extent of developing countries' ability to fulfil their roles depends on the extent to which developed countries fulfil their finance and technology commitments.

Given all this, developing countries can also be positive in a balanced way and seek ways in which it can take mitigation actions in the various sectors and fields. Some countries are already setting up high-level national councils to deal with climate change, and formulating national action plans.

It would be useful and timely for developing countries to formulate and implement national climate action plans. These can include actions for better data collection, improving scientific assessments and analysis, mitigation and adaptation measures in various sectors, preparedness for climate events and disasters including early warning systems and management of crises, reconstruction, technology needs and financing requirements.

In formulating the measures and policies, the national needs in terms of capacity-building, finance and technology will become evident in concrete and quantifiable ways. This can be the basis for demands for external support.

6. The link between between global goals and emission reductions of developed and developing countries

The establishment of a "global long-term goal" was a key part of the Bali meeting which decided that the AWG process will address:

(a) A shared vision for long-term cooperative action, including a long-term global goal for emission reductions, to achieve the ultimate objective of the Convention, in accordance with the provisions and principles of the Convention, in particular the principle of common but differentiated responsibilities and respective capabilities, and taking into account social and economic conditions and other relevant factors;

Long term goals or "global targets" are phrases used by some developed countries (especially EU) and UNFCCC secretariat to mean that a consensus be formed on three global goals or targets:

(a) Temperature increase: to limit global temperature increase (e.g. to 2 degrees Celsius or less over pre-industrial levels);

(b) Greenhouse Gas concentration: to limit the rise in the concentration of Greenhouse Gases in the atmosphere to a certain level (e.g. 450 parts per million CO^2equivalent or less) which is associated with the target for temperature increase; and

(c) Emission Targets: to reduce global Greenhouse Gas emissions by a certain specified extent (e.g. 50% or more by 2050 below 1990 levels). This is accompanied by a proposal (for example from the EU) for emission reduction by developed countries of 30% by 2020 and 60-80% by 2050 (below 1990 levels).

These figures are informed by the findings of the IPCC 4th assessment report. The IPCC however provides scientific estimates and ranges of figures (with degrees of probability) but does not make a decision or proposal on what targets or goals should be adopted. It is for the UNFCCC to decide whether to adopt global goals, and if so what these should be.

At Bali there was no agreement on whether to mention any global targets or goals. This was one of the contentious issues that lasted to the end. The Bali Action Plan does not explicitly mention the global numbers. However footnote 1 linked to the 4th para of the Chapeau (which recognizes that deep cuts in global emissions will be required and emphasizing the urgency to address climate change) refers to certain figures in the IPCC's 4th assessment report (working group III).

The long term goal is one of the most important and controversial issues in the AWGLCA. It is also fraught with major development and equity implications.

One concern on process is that the "long-term goals" above may be negotiated in one forum (the AWG-LCA under the Convention) whereas the reduction commitments of Annex I parties is negotiated in another forum (the AWG on further commitments of Annex I under the Kyoto Protocol).

Yet the two aspects have important inter-connected links. In particular, developing countries could be indirectly committing themselves to a cut of a certain percentage in their emissions without directly being aware of this.

If a global goal of 50% emission cut is agreed to, and the AWG agrees on a reduction by Annex I countries of 70% (mid-point of 60-80%), the implication is that developing countries have to undertake the residual emission cut.

A commitment to take emission cuts in absolute terms is in contrast to past and present positions, that developing countries need the environmental space to enable them to grow, so they would need more time for emissions growth; or they may aspire to reduce the growth of emissions.

While the IPCC 4th assessment report makes the science clear on the seriousness of climate change trends, why emission reductions are required and by what ranges of percentage, what is still not clear is the economics and social aspects required to translate the implications of the climate science into development policy. And what is still to be worked out is the degree and nature of international cooperation required to enable the developing countries to make their great transformation. Without assurance and confidence that the corresponding assistance from developed countries is forthcoming, it would be difficult for developing countries to make binding or semi-binding commitments to cut their emissions.

The issue of global targets is thus linked with the following: (1) the emission reduction commitments of Annex I countries, and the setting of their targets; (2) the role or contribution of developing countries regarding emissions; (3) the demands of developing countries on finance and technology, and on capacity building (4) the supply of finance and technology by developed countries.

7. Suggested issues for discussion[xxii]

(a) Developed countries emission reduction targets, their historical responsibility and the climate debt owed are key issues for discussion. It is critical for civil society groups to understand the concept of historical and climate debt, and the need for fair shares in the use of the atmospheric space.

In this regard, the current proposals by the developed countries as to their targets should be seriously reviewed. Developing countries and civil society groups like the Third World Network critically question the sufficiency of the emission targets proposed. They have proposed a number of equity-oriented approaches to identifying appropriate mitigation commitments for developed countries, and appropriate levels of financing, technology and other resources in order to support and compensate developing countries that go well beyond what is put forward by most Northern-based, mainstream environmental organisations. They are also clear that there is no room and time for offsets when domestic actions are long overdue and the debt is accumulating. By limiting demands and adjusting to what is perceived as 'politically realistic' rather than drawing the full implications of what science tells us as well as recognising full historical responsibility, parts of civil society are restraining not only themselves but also other actors such as progressive politicians (who feel they can't go beyond what the environmental movement demands).

- What are reasonable targets for developed countries, and what should be the principles on which to base these targets? Should there be a possibility for developed countries to off-set some of their reductions by activitities in developing countries?

(b) The role of the developing countries in emissions reductions has become a controversial issue, especially in the call for differentiation among developing countries. Civil society is also split on this issue, as some call for differentiation, while others, especially from the South are opposed to this.

What should be the role of developing countries regarding emissions and adaptation efforts and how can this can be supported and enabled? What are developing countries already doing at national levels which should be recognised?

xxii As the author was unable to attend the conference, and has not been in a position to integrate the outcomes of the discussions in her text, a summary of the discussions in Workshop 4 is provided separately in the next section.

The need for a massive scaling up of finance and technology for developing countries, all according to the climate convention, is key.

How can we support the developing countries in their call for enhanced financing? Do you agree that financing should be dealt with under the UNFCCC rather than the World Bank (where many developing countries are now putting their money)? If so, how can we mobilise effectively to ensure this and avoid that the World Bank takes a leading role?

d) Technology is obviously an important part of the solutions for curbing climate change – both in terms of supporting existing, sustainable practices as well as development and transfer/diffusion of both established and new technologies. Currently both costs and patent/intellectual property regimes pose barriers for developing countries to access useful technologies.

What can and should be done about this? And how can we ensure that we do not promote risky technologies that may have significant negative health, environment and socio-cultural effects?

(e) What can civil society do to ensure a fair climate deal? What is the role of popular mobilisation, external pressure and broad-based action to influence both the current negotiations and the longer-term agenda for change? What can you do in your organisation/movement to contribute towards an ambitious and equitable climate agreement?

8. Summary of workshop discussions

Much of the discussions in the workshop revolved around how CSOs will handle the outcome of the Copenhagen meeting. What are the likely scenarios? Can an outcome like the one from Kyoto be avoided, where controversial new proposals like the CDM were accepted in the final stages in order to reach an agreement? Or, the acceptance of an agreement that may look good on paper but which will make little difference for climate change? What is the lowest acceptable level of ambition, below which no agreement is better than a bad agreement? Participants agreed that civil society has an important role in drawing attention to such risks.

Civil society needs to mobilise themselves to ensure that industrialised countries must first of all honour their existing commitments regarding climate change. This is an essential step for overcoming the mistrust they face from developing countries

CSOs in the North need to scrutinise the agendas of their governments and put pressure on them to accept the "common but differentiated responsibility" that UNFCCC is based on. An acceptable Copenhagen agreement must include large emissions reductions by industrialised countries as well as binding commitments on financing and transfer of technologies to developing countries. Many CSOs support, in principle, the idea of a global fund under the UNFCCC, as proposed by G77 and China, but participants also pointed to the need for CSOs and social movements to simultaneously influence governments in the South to promote alternative sustainable development strategies and support local bottom-up initiatives.

To many of the CSOs and movements that focus on equity and climate justice in particular, the issue of how solutions will be implemented are equally important as any other outcome of the negotiations. If an agreement is reached on the provision of new funding, how will the money be spent? Which mechanisms will be needed for distributing and monitoring the use of the funds? How can corruption be avoided in the management of such large amounts of money? Will benefits reach the most vulnerable, or is there even a risk that they will be harmed by measures that do not consider their vulnerability? Civil society will have many roles to play in dealing with these problems.

The workshop also discussed how civil society should relate to the negotiating process, and whether the influence that it has on the decision-making can be increased. Third World Network and Climate Action Network were mentioned as examples of organisations that can influence negotiations through policy advocacy and by working very close to the process. Other civil society organisations are more involved in mobilising people to exert pressure on the negotiations from the outside, while some focus less on the negotiations and more on mobilising around broader structural issues, alternative development models, or promotion and defence of existing climate-friendly systems and practices.

Several participants thought that CSOs "had not done their homework" because if they had, people would be out in the streets protesting and forcing their political leaders to take more decisive action on climate change. In fact, some governments and negotiators have expressed surprise that there is not more popular mobilisation and rallying around the issue. In the words of one participant:

"We need to develop our own game board, in which all systems are connected to each other. We have all the capacity and different qualities we need, but all these skills are underused. Today we are so busy with infiltrating conferences and politics that we forget the power of the people, of the majority. We need to have a 'people strategy'. We need to have self-confidence and show that the power is with the people."

Participants pointed to the need for new voices to be heard in Copenhagen; pointing to the lack of representation and voice of children and the young. One participant suggested that many children and young people are concerned about these issues, but that there is little space for them to engage in most CSOs.

The workshop concluded with a call for new alliances in the mobilisation against climate change. The People's Protocol on Climate Change mobilises for Copenhagen, but also aims to help build a stronger climate justice movement in the longer run. Third World Network and Climate Action Network both provide support for organisations that want to follow the negotiations, different Swedish organisations have local chapters or national climate networks where people can participate, and many of the Swedish development CSOs work closely with organisations that mobilise people and communities in the South. Finally, it was agreed that there is a need to further strengthen and co-ordinate the many efforts of different parts of civil society.

Workshop 5

Addressing Climate Change in CSO North/South Partnerships

By Dominic Walubengo, Kenya, Forest Action Network

Overview

The Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA) defines civil society organisations (CSOs) *as an arena, separate from the state, the market and the individual household in which people organise themselves and act together in their common interests*[xxiii]. CSOs are found in all countries. They may be informal or formal organisations. In some countries, CSOs started as pressure groups that were put together to make governments listen to the people's point of view[xxiv]. CSOs are now a permanent feature of life and they have been recognised by governments and the United Nations system. CSOs came into perspective in 1972 when they helped to push for the formation of the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), at the Stockholm Conference on the Human Environment. Environment concerns gained currency in the 1960s in the United States and Europe through the efforts of social movements. At that time, the focus was on burning rivers, dying lakes, dead forests and toxic chemicals that were affecting animals and human beings. The Stockholm Conference was instrumental in declaring environmental degradation a global phenomenon. Ever since then, CSOs have grown in number and strength. Further, while during the Stockholm Conference, there were very few CSOs from the South[xxv], the situation is now different. There are now a large number of environmental CSOs working in the South in partnership or in collabo-

xxiii Sida's Support to Civil Society in Development Cooperation. 16 May 2007.

xxiv Adapted from the book "Whose Natural Resources? Local Natural Resource Management in Tanzania". Dominic Walubengo and Linet Obare. Forest Action Network . 1997

xxv The "South" here stands for Africa, Asia and Latin America

ration with their counterparts in the North.[xxvi] While both Northern and Southern CSOs have remained "people's" organisations, a large number have become professional organisations with expert knowledge of complicated issues like biological diversity, climate change, conflicts, food security and human rights. Because of modern communications technologies, CSOs with similar aims and expertise can easily communicate and share their strategies and experiences. This is why we now have many North- South CSO partnerships and development cooperation.

North – South CSO interactions are encouraged by international processes or developments. Environmental processes that have brought CSOs together in the past include the following:

- The Ramsar Convention on Wetlands of International Importance – 1971
- The United Nations Conference on the Human Environment - 1972
- The Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Flora and Fauna (CITES) – 1973
- The United Nations Conference on New and Renewable Sources of Energy (1981)
- The United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS) – 1982
- The United Nations Conference on Women (1985)
- The United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED[xxvii])

UNCED marked a major watershed for the establishment of relations between the CSOs in the North and the South. These relations were cemented, maintained and exploited in later conferences like the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) in 2002 as well as the various Conferences of Parties (COP) to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) that have been held ever since the convention was adopted. Those CSOs in the North and in the South that are interested in climate change are for the most part not satisfied with the implementation of the Kyoto Protocol. It is therefore imperative

xxvi The "North" here roughly means western Europe , North America, Japan, Australia and New Zealand

xxvii UNCED, or the Earth Summit, was held at Rio de Janeiro, Brazil in June 1992. The main docu ments that the conference produced were: Agenda 21, the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), the United Nations Convention on Biological Diversity (UNCBD) and the Forest Principles.

that stronger partnerships and collaborative arrangements be used to urge governments to come up with a better post Kyoto agreement at the Copenhagen Conference that is scheduled for December 2009. These CSOs must continue their commitment to climate justice.

Commitment to climate justice

Both Northern and Southern CSOs are concerned about climate justice. In particular, these CSOs are apprehensive about some of the following major issues:

- The actual assistance the Northern governments have provided to the South as opposed to what was promised through the Kyoto Protocol;
- The fact that the developed economies may not be on track regarding reducing carbon emissions as required by the Protocol;
- The effect of climate change on livelihoods in the South;
- The impact of climate change on infrastructure in the South;
- The relationship between climate change and conflict over natural resources in the South;

The Kyoto Protocol comes to an end in 2012. The Copenhagen Conference scheduled for December 2009 is expected to negotiate the successor to Kyoto. In anticipation, Northern and Southern CSOs have established strong partnerships to advocate for a fairer post-Kyoto agreement. Northern CSOs like Action Aid, CARE International, Cordaid, Concern Worldwide, Christian Aid, Diakonia, the International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED), MS Denmark, Norwegian Church Aid, Oxfam GB, Practical Action, the Stockholm Environment Institute (SEI), the Swedish Society for Nature Conservation (SSNC), Trocaire and WWF have been particularly active. Because many CSOs are aware that action must be taken immediately to alleviate the suffering of the most vulnerable communities, many partnerships focus their cooperation on climate change adaptation projects on the ground in southern countries.

Some concrete examples of the collaborative work in climate change

Reports produced by the Inter-government Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), clearly state that, climate change will affect the South more severely than the North. The major reason for this is the lack of capacity and appropriate technology in the South to

deal with the climate induced disasters. These include droughts, floods, landslides, sea-level rise, increase in vector borne diseases, loss of agricultural land and pastures and lack of fresh water.

Northern CSOs are working hand in hand with Southern CSOs on two fronts: to advocate for government action to increase resources to enable their citizens to adapt to climate change; and to prepare local communities in the South to deal with these serious effects of climate change. The partnerships between these CSOs have got several advantages. The Northern CSOs bring with them expertise and network contacts that are useful in assisting the South to adapt to climate change. The Southern CSOs on the other hand not only bring in their expertise, but have the advantage of being on the ground, have the trust of the local communities and have a good understanding of the local political context. Below are examples of some partnerships.

Advocating for climate change policy and legislative framework

While globally, most countries have not yet domesticated the UNFCCC into their policies and laws, there is a greater effort in the North than in the South to do so. Thus several Northern countries have either got laws that deal with climate change on their statute books[xxviii] or are preparing such laws[xxix]. In Kenya, five Northern CSOs (Christian Aid, Cordaid, Norwegian Church Aid, Oxfam GB and Trocaire) have established partnerships with national CSOs to support them to lobby for the introduction of a climate change policy and the passing of a climate law by the country's legislature. Through these partnerships, research is being carried out to obtain data that can be used to convince law makers that climate change is real and its effect is detrimental to development. Kenyan CSOs on their part, have established the Kenya Climate Change Working Group (KCWG) as a vehicle for advocating for the establishment of a climate change legal framework. This work has not been without challenges. First of all, the Member of Parliament who was at the forefront of pushing for a climate change law and was in the process of preparing the requisite Bill for Parliament was appointed to the Cabinet[xxx] . Parliamentary rules do not allow a Minister to present a private Member's Bill.

xxviii The Climate Change Act, 2008 of the United Kingdom

xxix For example,; "The American Clean Energy and Security Act" May 2009,, the Climate Change Bill, Northern Ireland, February 2009.

xxx Mr. Franklin Bett, who introduced the Global Warming Motion in Parliament in November 2008 became the Minister for Roads in February 2009

The first challenge therefore is to look for another Member to take up this role. The other challenge is the fact that although the Northern CSOs concerned in this work have got offices in Kenya, some of them have to seek authority from their headquarters in the North now and then. This has the effect of delaying some of the decision that the partnerships need to take to move forward. Further, most of the Northern CSOs have their own partnership policies. For example, some require that separate project bank accounts be opened by their partners, while others do not have this requirement. At the local level, the CSOs have learned that not all partners are at the same level of development, therefore some need capacity building even before they embark on this work. For this reason, these partners have undergone training on the effects of climate change and why it is important that action be taken now.

Climate change hearings

The effects of climate change are already being felt in many countries in the South. However, government officials do not link the plight of the local people to the effects of climate change. Some Northern and Southern CSOs that have got expertise in sensitising communities are working together to organise climate change hearings in the South. Thus in May 2009, Oxfam GB worked with the Association for Rural Community Development (ARCOD) to organise the first Climate Change – Poverty Hearings in Malawi and Africa. These hearings allowed local communities to state in their own words what they see as the negative impacts of climate change and how they are coping with these effects. Further, these hearings enabled local government officials to interact with communities and learn the full effect of climate change on these communities. The officials are then expected to take these experiences with them to their senior colleagues and in this way policy change can be effected. The intention is that government climate change negotiators will pick these messages and use them at the post- Kyoto climate change meeting scheduled for Copenhagen in December 2009. The climate hearings were recorded on video and on posters. These will enable many more communities to learn from the others. Experiences from these hearings show that the local people are pleased that visitors can come to them for information on climate change. They appreciate the fact that their experiences are recorded and used by other communities. Further, these hearings show that local communities are not often listened to. Similar hearings are planned for Kenya. They will be carried out by the Forest

Action Network (FAN) and the Kenya Federation of Agricultural Producers (KENFAP) with support from Oxfam GB.

Adapting to climate change in agriculture

Agriculture has already been hard hit by climate change. Most countries in the South depend on rain fed agriculture. Frequent droughts, erratic rainfall and flash floods have all affected agriculture and thus food production negatively. In 2007, Action Aid and the Institute for Development Studies (IDS) produced a publication called "We know what we need. South Asian women speak out on climate change adaptation". The research for this work targeted poor women in Nepal, India and Bangladesh and shows how these women are struggling to protect their lives, homes, assets and their livelihoods from weather-related hazards. The women stated that their priorities are a safe place to live, and store their harvest and livestock during the rain season. In addition, they would like better access to agricultural extension services, and information on better adaptation strategies and alternative livelihoods.

Research conducted by FAN in partnership with the International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED) in Kenya shows that the local communities are already adapting to climate change in their own way. They are doing this by introducing quick maturing crops and replacing large livestock with small ruminants. However, these communities are doing all this without any policy support. The Kenya Federation of Agricultural Producers (KENFAP) with support from Oxfam GB is carrying out further research on how farmers are adapting to climate change. The intention is to use the results from this work to lobby policy makers to support the diversification of staple foods. These results will also be used to provide information for the team advocating for the climate change legislation. The main challenge in adapting agriculture to climate change is at the policy level. This is because in the case of Kenya, the country is divided into various agricultural land uses. Thus there are areas that are supposed to be good for growing maize, wheat or potatoes. The fact that is no longer the case on the ground has not moved policy makers yet. Thus the government still gives outdated extension messages to farmers – for crops which are no longer grown in the area in question.

Interventions in the livestock sector

A large number of people in the South depend on livestock for their livelihoods. They have witnessed the climate changing, resulting in reduced pastures and lack of water. The net effect has been the loss of livestock, converting many pastoralists into paupers. Northern CSOs especially Concern Worldwide, Practical Action, Oxfam GB, and Trocaire have established partnership with their Southern counterparts to reduce the impact of climate change on pastoralists. In 2009, Practical Action produced a document known as the "Livestock Emergency Guidelines and Standards (LEGS)". This publication is a set of guidelines and standards for the design, implementation and assessment of livestock interventions to assist people affected by humanitarian crises, including those brought about by climate change. Working with their partners, Northern CSOs are supporting restocking programmes, rehabilitating livestock watering points and training community based animal health workers. Further, these CSOs are introducing hardy livestock that is able to survive drought. There are many challenges in working with pastoralist communities. One major one is to convince these communities to destock, even in the face of a severe drought. They are always hopeful that their livestock will survive the drought, only for the whole stock to be lost. Another challenge has been to try and introduce alternative livelihoods to pastoralists. Some of the alternatives that have been suggested include agriculture. This has not been very well received.

Capacity Strengthening in the Least Developed Countries for Adaptation to Climate Change (CLACC)

This partnership is a global support programme working in the least developed countries (LDCs) to strengthen their efforts to adapt to the impacts of climate change. It is an initiative of the following policy research organisations: ACTS-Kenya, IIED-UK, IISD-Canada, SEI-Sweden, ZERO-Zimbabwe, NEST-Nigeria, Vitae Civilis-Brazil, RIDES-Chile, ENDA (TM)-Senegal, SDPI-Pakistan, BACS-Bangladesh, CENESTA-Iran, DA-India. Its project countries are: Bangladesh, Benin, Kenya, Malawi, Mali, Mauretania, Mozambique, Nepal, Senegal, Sudan, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

CLACC's objectives are:

- Strengthening the capacity of CSOs in LDCs to adapt to climate change and fostering adaptive capacity among the most vulnerable groups
- Establishing an information and knowledge system to support countries to deal with the adverse impacts of climate change
- Mainstreaming the NAPA[xxxi] Process with key non-governmental stakeholders

CLACC has leveraged resources to support its members in Africa to carry out community based adaptation projects. The aim of these projects is to demonstrate how local communities are adapting to the adverse impacts of climate change.

In 2008, CLACC published reports on climate change and coastal cities; and climate resilience at Africa's grassroots. Further, CLACC has a programme for training CSOs to engage effectively in the global climate change adaptation agenda. CLACC's newsletter carries information on important climate change conferences and meetings.

The main challenge to CLACC is posed by the expectation of local communities in the South. At that level, people want to see practical projects: that is the hardware, and not the software of development. Communities who hear about such a large network expect that they will see immediate tangible results, and for them participation in research is not enough. Thus while they may appreciate information indicating that their crops cannot do well because of climate change, they would like to receive seeds of alternative crops. Further, they would like to see measures that will protect their houses against floods. Informing them that flash floods are due to climate change is not enough.

Mainstreaming climate change in development projects in the South

Many Northern CSOs support development projects in the South. These projects may be in agriculture, water, forestry and small scale manufacturing. Working together with their Southern counterparts, Northern CSOs have put in place mechanisms that ensure that these projects first do no harm. In the case of climate change, it means ensuring that these projects do not increase the impact of this phenomenon. Thus some Northern CSOs have revised their policies to ensure that climate change is mainstreamed in all their

xxxi National Adaptation Programmes for Action (government led)

projects. A good example is the "Environmental Sustainability and Climate Change" policy of the Swedish Cooperative Centre (SCC) and Vi Agro-forestry (Vi AFP) published in 2009. The policy describes the basic principles and guidelines which govern the work of the SCC and Vi AFP in relation to environmental sustainability and climate change. It provides the basis for determining priorities when working with partners in the South. Another example is from the Norwegian Church Aid (NCA) in Kenya. It has produced a publication on 'Best Practices in Climate Change Programming'. This publication describes in detail projects that help people to adapt to climate change. These projects include an integrated Jatropha energy system; large scale propagation of indigenous and exotic tree seedlings for afforestation; and rain water harvesting and water resource management in dry areas.

These two Northern CSOs are working closely with Southern CSOs to ensure that the above initiatives are realised. Thus in 2009, SCC/Vi AFP signed an MOU with FAN to work together to mainstream environmental sustainability and climate change in all their projects. The NCA on the other hand, is working closely with the Kenya Climate Change Working Group (KCCWG) to disseminate its publication and thus reach more people at the local level.

In 2009, Practical Action Publishing produced the book *"Understanding Climate Change Adaptation: Lessons from Community-based Approaches"* by Jon Ensor and Rachel Berger. This book is a good guide to those CSOs which wish to change their policies to put into account climate change.

Providing relief to affected communities

Finally, when the effects of climate change are too much for communities to bear on their own, Northern and Southern CSOs work together to alleviate the people's suffering. These CSOs provide relief services in times of severe drought or flash floods. Once the emergency is contained, the CSOs assist the communities to rebuild their asset base. This may include restocking (in the case of livestock) or providing seeds (in the case of agriculture). CARE International, The Red Cross, Oxfam, and World Vision are particularly active in this field. Others are Concern Worldwide and Trocaire. These organisations are able to link with the United Nations High Commission for Refugees and the World Food Programme to provide relief services to affected communities. On the ground, Southern CSOs take the lead in mobilising local communities.

The main challenge with providing relief services is that com-

munities quickly get hooked. A study carried out by FAN for Concern Worldwide in the pastoralist areas of Kenya revealed that some communities have been receiving relief aid since 1984. Even households who had recovered sufficiently to get off relief did not opt out. These households do not find it necessary to involve themselves in other development activities as their livelihood is assured through relief aid.

Civil society perspectives, strategies and tools

From the above description, it is clear that many civil society organisations (both in the North and the South) are convinced that climate change is here with us and that we must all join hands to prevent a catastrophe. These CSOs are convinced that while mitigation measures are being put in place, it is necessary to work with climate change adaptation. This is because there are changes in the climate already, and mitigation activities will not change this fact.

One position that most CSOs have taken is that more needs to be done in the post Kyoto era. Thus the governments in the North have to take the reductions in carbon emissions more seriously and enforce the standards that they have agreed upon. Further, these governments should support the South to adapt to climate change.

CSOs are using several strategies to achieve these goals through lobbying and advocacy. Some try to shame their governments into action; others use science to illustrate the need for more to be done, while some highlight examples on how people in the south are affected. The climate change hearings carried out in Malawi and research carried out in Bangladesh, India and Nepal, show that adaptation to climate change is possible and desirable

In order to be more effective in lobbying their governments, CSOs have formed alliances and networks. Some of these include, Climate Network Africa (CNA); Climate Action Network International (CAN); the Global Forest Coalition; the Pan Africa Climate Justice Alliance (PACJA); and the Third World Network (TWN). In Kenya, CSOs have established the Kenya Climate Change Working Group (KCCWG).

Some members of these alliances and networks have got accreditation with the UNFCCC and other UN agencies and are therefore able to obtain up-to-date information on climate change. They then pass on this information to their members and thus build consensus on whom to lobby and on what particular topic.

Another tool that CSOs use effectively, is what is known as "direct action". That is demonstrations that catch the attention of the media. Having said this, it is the view of some CSOs that not enough has been done to sensitize the public about the dangers of climate change. These CSOs are asking themselves this question: "why are people not in the streets?" Is it because CSOs have not mobilised citizens to express outrage about climate change?

Issues and challenges discussed at the conference

During the workshop held in Härnösand on this topic, several lively group discussions were held. The discussions focused on the following topics: :

- What practical experiences of North /South partnership in relation to climate change issues are there?
- What characterizes successful and sustainable North/South partnership in climate change related issues?

It was concluded that issues related to climate change offer a unique opportunity for Northern and Southern organizations to come together for a common cause, where partnerships worthy of the name should be possible.

Several examples of actual North/South partnerships were presented, from which some conclusions were drawn. The importance of trust, transparency and accountability between Northern and Southern CSOs was highlighted: partnerships must be beyond funds. Partnerships will prosper if both parties place their respective agendas on the table. Another question raised was: Who is really an expert on what, when it comes to climate change issues? North or South? There must be a contextualisation of the problems of climate change. It was concluded that there is a lot for CSOs to learn from each other, and expertise should thus not only flow from the North to the South, but also vice versa. Therefore, projects should not only be initiated by Northern CSOs but also by their Southern partners. There should be a bottom-up perspective.

Furthermore, sustainable partnerships must not be based on cooperation only around one project, and must outlive the projects. Program based support is more sustainable.

There is a need for Northern and Southern CSOs to speak with one voice. This will enable the CSOs to develop stronger partnerships. In this way, CSOs will be able to play a greater role in the climate change debate. This is how their advocacy capacity and knowledge will be utilised to the full.

One group raised the fear that climate change adaptation is seen as a business opportunity. This means that any dialogue on climate change must start in an honest way ensuring that all those that are involved undertand their roles.

Another group discussed the risks of professionalization of development support. An example was given where "capacity building" or "professionalization" of a southern CSO resulted in new barriers between themselves and the people they were meant to work for. Could such professionalization as a result of the aid-architecture be a way to sustain human suffering?

Why are CSO Alliances formed?

CSO alliances come about when the issue at hand is too big or complex for one organisation to manage. Climate change is one such issue. Apart from environmental questions, climate change encompasses issues of conflict, employment, energy, forests, food security, health, industry, infrastructure, land tenure, sea level rise, security, shelter, trade, transport and water. This is by no means the complete list. No single CSO can deal with all these issues. An alliance bringing together a number of CSOs, each specialising in one or two of these important issues is therefore necessary. Such an alliance would be able to generate adequate information and raise enough awareness to attract the attention of governments. This would not be possible without an alliance. As we prepare for the Copenhagen climate change conference, Northern and Southern CSOs should strengthen their partnerships and in this way go to the conference as a united force.

How will CSOs ensure their sustainability?

The decisions that will be reached at Copenhagen, will need to be implemented. Therefore, CSOs must be prepared for the long haul. This calls for sustainable CSOs. At the same time, we know that most CSOs depend on grants for their operations and survival. A few others supplement these grants with payments for carrying out contracted work. Such payments are even more unstable. In this case, CSOs are treated like consultants and must bid for work.

To be sure, most CSOs have no sustainable sources of funding. This is an area that has to be given a lot of thought. One way may be to establish foundations or trusts that support CSO work. Further, CSOs should establish networks and alliances that will enable them to raise funds. However, for the time being, Northern CSOs should continue to offer Southern CSOs technical and

financial support. This support should be used for assisting communities in the South to adapt to climate change. At the same time, both Northern and Southern CSOs should work together to achieve political support for action against climate change in the North and in the South.

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Commitment on Climate Justice

Sida

Programme – International Arena Conference

MONDAY 25 MAY

15.00	Arrival and registration	(T)
18.00	Boat trip at the river of Ångermanland with M/S Ådalen III Dinner and mingling	

TUESDAY 26 MAY

Facilitators:	Dr Agnes Abuom, TAABCO, Kenya Dag Jonzon, Sida Centre for Development Partnerships	
8.30-10.00	Open Space	
10.15-12.30	Opening Session:	(T)
	Official welcome: Lena Blomstrand, Head of Sida Centre for Development Partnerships	
	Gunilla Carlsson, Minister for International Development Cooperation, Sweden	
	Recommendations from the Commission on Climate Change and Development	
	Tony Tujan, People's Protocol on Climate Change and IBON, Philippines CSOs' Perspectives on Climte Justice	
	Mia Horn af Rantzien, Deputy Secretary General, Sida's View on Climate Change and Development	
	Partners in Panel Discussion: Beyond Copenhagen: Provocations & Solutions	

12.30	Lunch at the Theatre	
14.00-17.00	Three Workshops: Based on thematic papers produced for the conference by Swedish and international CSOs and development partners	(SCSC)
	1. Three Crises: Climate, Energy and Food. Introduction by Richard King and Duncan Green, Oxfam, UK	
	2. Just About the Climate: Climate Change, Human Rights, and Civil Society Engagement. Introduction by Clarisse Kehler Siebert, Stockholm Environment Institute	
	3. Carbon, Forests and People. Introduction by Göran Eklöf, Context	
19.30	Dinner at Hamnkorgen/Seaport Restaurant	

WEDNESDAY 27 MAY

09.00 - 09.45	HARD RAIN - Our Headlong Collision with Nature Mark Edwards presents innovative solutions developed by businesses, NGO's and communities around the world, accompanied by 200 photographs	(T)
10.15 - 12.30	Two workshops: Based on thematic papers produced for the conference by Swedish and international CSOs and development partners	(SCSC)
	1. Issues for Copenhagen and Beyond. Introduction by Tony Tujan, People's Protocol on Climate Change and IBON, Philippines	
	2. Addressing Climate Change in CSO North/South Partnerships. Introduction by Dominic Walubengo, Forest Action Network, Kenya	
12.30-13.30	Lunch at the Theatre	
13.30-14.30	Closing Session: Partners in panel discussion: commitment on climate justice "The Road Ahead"	(T)
	Wednesday evening and Thursday - an opportunity for partners to meet and continue the dialogue	
16.00-	Bustrip to People's House in Söråker. Bus departures from SCSC Dinner Demonstration: Cleantech Arena and Energy Factor 2 Film: Africa's Climate of Change	

THURSDAY 28 MAY

Facilitators:	Hanna Wetterstrand, Swedish Cooperative Centre	(SCSC)
	Dag Jonzon, Sida Centre for Development Partnerships	
09.00-10.00	Andreas Ulfsax, Diakonia Integrating the environment in development work: overview of methods and approaches	
10.00-12.00	Workshop for Swedish frame organisations and partners, based on Andreas Ulfsax presentation/overview, with focus on future possibilities and work	

Venue: Theatre (T), Sida Civil Society Center (SCSC)

Arena Conference:
Commitment on Climate Justice
Sida Civil Society Center
May 25-27, 2009

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Sida works according to directives of the Swedish Parliament and Government to reduce poverty in the world, a task that requires cooperation and persistence. Through development cooperation, Sweden assists countries in Africa, Asia, Europe and Latin America. Each country is responsible for its own development. Sida provides resources and develops knowledge, skills and expertise. This increases the world's prosperity.

Commitment to Climate Justice

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