



# CLIMATE GOVERNANCE IN AFRICA

**A Handbook for Journalists**



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**Email:** [africahq@ips.org](mailto:africahq@ips.org)

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<b>Editor:</b>	Kudzai Makombe
<b>Contributors:</b>	Leonie Joubert; Dorah Marema, GenderCC Southern Africa; Godwell Nhamo, EXXARO Chair in Business and Climate Change, Institute for Corporate Citizenship, UNISA; Brent Cloete, DNA Economics; Jerome van Rooij, Africa Climate Finance Hub, Farayi Madziwa, HBF Southern Africa
<b>Peer reviewers:</b>	Leonie Joubert; Elijah Chiwota; Terna Gyuse; Michael Shmidt; Servaas van den Bosch
<b>Research support:</b>	Tomitope Toby Fayoyin
<b>Administrative support:</b>	Kervine Phiri and Tafadzwa Rafemoyo
<b>Cover photograph:</b>	Davina Jogi
<b>Design:</b>	Marshall Patsanza

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# INTRODUCTION

## About this handbook

Climate governance is a difficult subject bringing together the social, technical, policy, financial and political elements of climate change. At the root of these issues remain grave concerns about Africa's development needs and the need to address imperatives such as poverty, unemployment, food security and health. In addition, questions remain about whether the interests of those people most affected by climate change are at the forefront of ongoing negotiations and climate change mitigation and adaptation efforts.

**Climate governance** is the measure by which we ensure that the interests of those most affected by climate change are met, that the different parties to the international instruments that govern climate actions live up to their obligations and the relations between them; the manner in which decisions are made and decision makers are held accountable; the policies, plans and measures that the state and its citizens put in place to address climate change and their implementation in a just and effective manner. Climate governance also deals with how inclusive the decision making process is in the exercise of power and responsibilities, that is, whether all stakeholders, including civil society, private sector and governments, have a voice. In short, it is about ensuring:

- legitimacy through transparency, accountability, fairness and equity;
- effectiveness through the right mix of strategies and tools; and
- sustainability of the policies and actions.

As reporters investigate these issues, climate change will increasingly be recognised as a rights and development issue as well as a technical or scientific issue.

Understanding climate governance issues in Africa will help reporters to put a human face to their stories while addressing the often complex and technical issues surrounding the governance of climate change on the continent in the context of market mechanisms, policy mainstreaming, climate finance and gender. Reporters should also look out for the complexity in terms of costs and benefits, agendas and the multitude of gray areas and smokescreens that present themselves in the subject. Such an approach will help to take the stories beyond the UNFCCC Conference of Parties negotiation events and look more closely and frequently at it as an ongoing process seeking **climate justice**.

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**Climate justice** is the fair treatment of all people and freedom from discrimination with the creation of policies and projects that address climate change and the systems that create climate change and perpetuate discrimination.

**Source:** Act for Climate Justice

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For news audiences, this will bring the issue home with a greater understanding of climate change as a rights and development issue and as an area in which they are central players with a role in influencing policies and practices towards a more sustainable future. The challenge is to ensure that when the people tasked to represent and make decisions on our behalf go to the negotiating table, they will increasingly do so based on the needs of the most disadvantaged and affected people in Africa.

This handbook brings together the available expertise and knowledge on climate governance issues affecting the African continent. It provides quick reference on what are often complex climate governance issues and examples of news features that speak to these issues, highlighting why these stories work. It is divided into six sections, specifically:

- Climate Change Governance: An Overview
- Gender Issues in Climate Change Governance
- Policy Mainstreaming
- Climate Finance
- Market-based Mechanisms for Climate Change
- Best Practices in Reporting Climate Change Governance

To guide users of this handbook, each section includes some additional resources that can be accessed online for background research. Words in bold are defined in sidebars or can be found in the glossary. Users – including training facilitators and reporters – are advised to supplement these tools with additional local sources.

The contents are drawn from a range of sources, including technical experts that provided input into a training workshop for 12 journalists from sub-Saharan Africa on reporting climate governance, Heinrich Böll Foundation and broad research from official, technical and civil society information resources. It has been reviewed by a panel of five media peer reviewers to ensure that its content is relevant and practically applicable for journalists.

The handbook is the result of a partnership between Heinrich Böll Foundation (HBF) Southern Africa and Inter Press Service (IPS) Africa on the Africa Climate Wire, a programme launched in 2013 to enhance reporting on climate governance in Africa.

## The human face of climate change

Telling the human stories in the climate change beat is the most powerful way to make the issue real. But it takes time, resources, careful groundwork, and a good working knowledge of the science if the story is going to have power, reach and integrity.

**Leonie Joubert\***, a science writer, describes her experience of researching and writing “Boiling Point: The impact of climate change in South Africa”, an in-depth portrait of the impacts climate change is expected to have on vulnerable communities across the country and provides some pointers on how to do it.

*It was after eight, on a bitter Cape winter’s night in 2007, when I finally lost my nerve. I’d turned the 4x4 off onto what looked like a proper farm road, but it soon became clear that it was little more than a dry river bed. I was high up on the remote Bokkeveld escarpment. There wasn’t a light to be seen in any direction, and not a single blip on the signal bar on my cellphone. I had no idea where I was and if the vehicle got stuck in the sand, it would have been a cold, lonely night sleeping in the driver’s seat.*

*I was scheduled to spend a few days with a family of emerging rooibos tea farmers outside Nieuwoudtville in the Northern Cape, but I wasn’t going to find their remote homestead tonight.*

*Carefully as I could, my heart thumping in my throat, I slipped the gearlever into reverse, crawled the vehicle backwards out of the loose sand, and drove an hour back to Nieuwoudtville where I found a room for the night.*

*By then, I’d written many stories about the projected impacts of climate change on the Western Cape. Fortunately there are a number of world-class scientific institutions producing good modeled projections of the likely impacts for this region. This made it possible to write accurate regional stories rather than take global climate projections and speculate about the regional implications.*

*Many of my earlier stories were based on desk-bound research: telephonic interviews, large scientific documentation sent by email or downloaded off the Internet, resulting in relatively dry news-style reports.*

*Telling the story through the lens of an emerging tea farmer on the very edge of the desert in the Northern Cape, as I did for Boiling Point, meant sinking a huge amount of resources into the story. But*

*the reach that the story got as a result made it worth every bit of effort.*

*It was immensely time consuming dealing with the logistics of finding a likely candidate who was willing for me to tell his story, and organising the practical arrangements. It is challenging at an interpersonal level to disappear off-grid into the Suid Bokkeveld for several days and live with complete strangers, all the while trying to glean their life stories from them while not intruding on their privacy.*

*The entire 4,500 word story probably took three or four weeks to organise, research and write. But the footprint that the story has had, along with the many other stories that have been written in this format, has been immeasurable.*



## Tips on reporting climate change governance

- View climate change not as an annual event in the form of UNFCCC Conference of Parties, but as an ongoing issue and ensure coverage between COPs;
- Investigate what decisions are being made;
- Follow the money to identify whether promises and pledges are genuine, where the money is going and how it is being used;
- Ask the right questions about who is benefitting and how, what has changed, how, why, for who, and who is or is not involved;
- Seek out the voices of all actors, including those affected but often marginalised and those working behind the scenes, such as civil society groups;
- Uncover and explain various public and private interests;
- Have a good understanding and awareness of the geopolitics involved;
- Be able to see and bring in a climate governance perspective in stories that would otherwise be considered as unrelated (i.e. health, conflict, trade);
- Find the local scientists who can explain the science and give you the credible research to base your stories on. There's an ocean of climate change literature out there, most of which is available on the internet. So you can hide behind the safety of your desk to write many of these stories. But if you want your stories to be local, you need to find local scientists, and local science that explains the possible impact on and vulnerability of your region to rising temperatures and extreme weather events. Scientists can be based in academic institutions like universities, or they could be in a government research facility or with a civil society organisation;
- Find the communities and individuals. Using one person or one community's story as a way to then discuss the broader issue of how climate change might impact an area is a powerful storytelling method. Civil society organisations working in specific sectors or geographical regions

can be an important gateway into communities and can help you connect with individuals who might be willing to have their stories told in this way. Make sure that your practice is ethical and respectful and not extractive;

- Do the work. There is no short cut. You have to immerse yourself in the often dense and complex literature, follow the news and stay in touch with your sources. It will be worth it in the end because the more you know, the easier it becomes to generate excellent stories in this new and emerging 'beat'; and
- Avoid the jargon. Explain the concepts simply. If you are unsure ask an expert to explain it to you in layman's terms.

\***Leonie Joubert's** books include *The Hungry Season: Feeding Southern Africa's Cities*, *Scorched*, *Boiling Point* and *Invaded* and she contributed to Max du Preez's *Opinion Pieces by South African Thought Leaders*.

SECTION

1



# CLIMATE GOVERNANCE IN AFRICA



**Flood waters disrupt lives and economic activities in Ajegunle, a low-lying slum in Lagos, Nigeria. Credit: Sam Olukoya/IPS**

## CLIMATE CHANGE - A DEVELOPMENT ISSUE

Climate change is happening on a global scale and the impacts of extreme weather events, changing weather patterns and changes in the climatic system will be felt by all nations.

Climate change has traditionally been regarded as an environmental issue. However, the growing recognition of its implications across a multitude of sectors, including agriculture and food security, gender relations, infrastructure, transport and health, requires that it now be seen as a much broader issue of rights and development. This is particularly true for the African continent whose economies are expected to face high vulnerability due to African states' dependence on climate sensitive sectors such as agriculture and forestry for economic growth.

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### Common But Differentiated Responsibilities

Article 3, Paragraph 1 (Principles) of the UNFCCC states:

"The Parties should protect the climate system for the benefit of present and future generations of humankind, on the basis of equity and in accordance with their common but differentiated responsibilities and respective capabilities. Accordingly, the developed country Parties should take the lead in combating climate change and the adverse effects thereof."

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The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), a scientific body to which thousands of scientists from all over the world contribute, was set up by the United Nations (UN) to generate scientific, technical and socio-economic information that helps in understanding the potential impacts of climate change options for adaptation and mitigation. The IPCC's credible and independent scientific information is the basis for the **United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change** (UNFCCC) and later the **Kyoto Protocol**.

According to the IPCC, there is little doubt that humans are largely responsible for observed global warming since the mid-20th century. The human impacts can be seen in warming of the atmosphere and the ocean, changes in the global water cycle, reductions in snow and ice, global mean sea level rise, and in changes in some climate extremes.

The UNFCCC's ultimate goal is stabilising global **green house gas** (GHG) emissions at a level that does not cause dangerous human induced interference with the global climate system. To achieve this, global carbon emissions have to be drastically reduced and there is growing consensus that at the very least, reductions should be by as much as 50 percent of current emissions by the middle of this century.

## Climate change and governance

Climate governance goes beyond the science of climate change to look at the social, economic and political issues related to climate change. It approaches climate change from a rights and sustainable development perspective and interrogates political and financial processes involved toward achieving change from the global perspective to the national and local. Geopolitics is at the centre, given the power rela

tions involved in negotiating priorities, commitments to obligations and resourcing for **adaptation** and **mitigation**.

The climate governance framework is defined at the highest and global level by international instruments or framework conventions, the primary one being the UNFCCC itself. All 195 member states meet each year in a Conference of Parties (COP) to assess progress and agree on concrete actions to reduce greenhouse gas emissions. The 1997 **Kyoto Protocol**, which set industrialised countries binding targets for emissions reductions, is one of the monumental achievements of the UNFCCC. Currently, no African country is required to take up emission targets although some, for example South Africa, have voluntarily set targets for themselves. This scenario, however, is likely to change after a new agreement is tabled to Parties at COP 21 in France.

Given that the economies of developed and developing countries alike

– their industry, power generation, transport, deforestation and agriculture – currently produce rising levels of harmful emissions, it is no simple matter for governments to agree on how to address climate change. With domestic political considerations and international competitiveness at



- About government's approach to climate change as a development and rights issue (follow-up – what about gender, environment, economic growth, key economic sectors, education, jobs, etc.?).
- What is our negotiating position, strength, capacity at COP as a country?
- What is your position on government's climate change adaptation/mitigation approach/plans (for civil society)?
- What credible positive alternatives are you proposing (as civil society)?
- Follow-up – what evidence do you have to support your position?
- What actions are you taking to influence the negotiations (government or civil society)?

stake, the negotiations are arduous. Some Parties back out of their commitments, for example China and India which refused binding commitments, and Japan, which reduced its ambitious carbon emissions target from 25 percent of 1990 levels by 2020 to only three percent of 2005 levels by 2020. Meanwhile, other countries, such as Canada and Russia have abandoned their targets altogether, opting to withdraw from the Kyoto Protocol. The limited resources of developing nations, and particularly of African economies, to participate and have representation in all the negotiation meetings at the global level compounds the problem, giving developed countries disproportionate power to influence the negotiations.

At the national level climate governance frameworks take the form of climate change policies that define how climate change will be addressed at national level and the roles and responsibilities of different

stakeholders, including government, private sector, civil society and affected citizens.

## Evolution of climate negotiations at the UNFCCC COP

The **Conference of Parties** (COP) is the annual meeting of the Parties to the UNFCCC. Its purpose is to assess progress towards achieving the goals of the Convention. There are now 195 Parties (194 States and one regional economic integration organisation), and three observer states. There are 192 Parties to the Kyoto Protocol.

Decision making under the UNFCCC is by consensus at the COP and is based on the principle of **Common But Differentiated Responsibilities** (CBDR), which recognises the differing capacities of Parties, particularly the economic development needs of developing countries.

There are also negotiations under the **Kyoto Protocol** (KP) of the UNFCCC, which was adopted in 1997 and entered into force in 2005, and which commits Parties to reduce their carbon emissions based on agreed upon targets. The first commitment period of the KP ended in 2012 but was extended to 2020 to allow for continued emissions reductions by Parties until a new agreement comes into effect in 2020.

Given their own unique situation, each Party brings to the table its own agenda, expectation and commitment. Some countries have formed negotiating groups that coordinate negotiating positions.

## Africa's negotiating strategy

In order to strengthen their negotiating power at COP, African Countries meet before the COP as the **Africa Group of Negotiators** (AGN) to establish a common position, advance African interests and strengthen their negotiating power. During the COP they negotiate as part of the G77 and China (Developing Countries) group as well as the Least Developed Countries (LDC) Group.

A major focus for Africa during negotiations is strengthening adaptation efforts, particularly lobbying for greater support for adaptation finance, technology support and including the issue of establishing mechanisms to address the current **loss and damage** from extreme climatic events in line with their economic development agenda.

African negotiators have, therefore, over the years, lobbied for a "polluter pays principle", approach to reducing **green house gas** (GHG) emissions to stabilise the level of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere at

450 parts per million and to limit the global average temperature increase to below 1.50°C above pre-industrial levels in order to avoid catastrophic climate change impacts in Africa. As per this principle, developed countries, who have contributed the overwhelming bulk of greenhouse emissions historically, are expected to reduce their emissions and accept binding emissions reduction targets.

On their part, African governments have largely accepted their responsibility to implement sustainable development practices and transformation of economic development pathways in order to keep emissions from growing economic activity to a minimum. This, however, is mostly on condition that they receive financial, technological, research and development and capacity building support from Annex 1 Parties (developed countries) to the Convention. However, Annex 1 Parties have persistently argued for emerging countries, like China, India and Brazil and possibly South Africa, that do not clearly fall under either the 'developing' or 'developed' countries category, to also take up binding emission targets.

To date, mitigation measures – actions to reduce emissions -- are not clear and are marred by **conditionality**. There is no **comparability of efforts**, common accounting rules, methodologies and common base years, which leaves more questions than answers. In addition, the implementation of **Nationally Appropriate Mitigation Actions** (NAMAs) and voluntary GHG emission reductions in Africa is subject to finance, technological support, capacity building and Mali and Ethiopia have progressed on this front.

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## ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

- Climate Action Network (CAN) [www.climatenetwork.org](http://www.climatenetwork.org)
- Climate and Development Knowledge Network (CDKN) [www.cdkn.org/](http://www.cdkn.org/)
- Climate Diplomacy: Environment, Conflict and Cooperation [www.ecc-platform.org](http://www.ecc-platform.org)
- Madzwamuse, M. Climate Governance in Africa - Adaptation Strategies and Institutions Cape Town: Heinrich Böll Foundation Southern Africa, 2010 <http://za.boell.org/web/publications-631.html>
- What future for International Climate Politics? A Call for a Strategic Reset, <http://www.boell.de/en/2013/09/05/what-future-international-climate-politics>
- Climate Governance and Development in Africa – Policy Briefs for Namibia and Tanzania: Heinrich Böll Foundation Southern Africa, 2012. <http://www.za.boell.org/web/climate-change-859.html>
- Lili Fuhr, Barbara Unmubig, Hans JH Verolme, Farhana Yamin, A Future for International Climate Politics – Durban and Beyond, Heinrich Böll Foundation, Berlin. November 2011

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## Africa Group of Negotiators

The Africa Group of Negotiators (AGN) is a structure of all African Member States' senior officials, experts and negotiators in the UN-FCCC negotiations, with the African Ministerial Conference on the Environment (AMCEN) providing political oversight on the group.

The (AGN) operates as a regional coalition for pooling resources and power among African states. It seeks to advance common African interests on the issue of climate change and is chaired by a leader selected on a rotational basis.

The African Ministerial Conference on the Environment (AMCEN) was established in 1985 to strengthen cooperation between African governments on economic, technical and scientific activities in order to halt the degradation of Africa's environment and satisfy the food and energy needs of the continent's people.

AMCEN has facilitated the broadening of the political and public policy legitimacy of environmental concerns in Africa.

**Sources:** IISD; Department of Environmental Affairs, South Africa; Charles Roger

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SECTION

2



## **MAINSTREAMING CLIMATE CHANGE POLICIES**



**Bordered by Chad, Cameroon, Niger and Nigeria, Lake Chad once spanned 25,000 square kilometres but in the last half century it has shrunk by 90 percent.  
Credit: Mustapha Muhammad/IPS**

## MAINSTREAMING CLIMATE CHANGE POLICIES

Climate change is a threat to sustainable development, demanding coordinated action not only from the environmental sector but across sectors. The goal of mainstreaming policy is to identify and resolve contradictions and align policy and practice across government departments and agencies, for example trade, agriculture and environment, in the pursuit of **sustainable development**.

### Mainstreaming climate change adaptation

This is the continuous process of integrating climate change adaptation into policy-making, budgeting, implementation and monitoring processes at national, sector and subnational levels. It takes place year on year, involving a range of stakeholders and aims to ensure human well-being and inclusive economic growth towards the goal of reducing poverty.

**Source:** UNEP

The agricultural sector, for example, plays a central role in Africa's economic life, contributing between 35-40 percent of the gross domestic product (GDP) and as much as half of total export earnings <sup>1</sup>. Even more fundamentally, agriculture employs many millions of people in producing perhaps the most essential of goods: food. So the threat posed by climate change to agriculture extends not simply to Africa's soils and water, to crop yields and livestock health, but also threatens food security, income, and has health implications, including malnutrition and ultimately the perpetuation of inter-generational poverty and sustained high vulnerability.

Adaptation measures in Africa need to address infrastructure development (roads, power lines, railway lines, pipelines etc), agriculture, housing and general construction that should be climate resilient. The mining sector is not immune either, with flooded mine pits resulting in reduced outputs and export earnings whilst water shortages affect all industries across the board. Adaptation measures, for example the transition from coal powered electricity to solar power would have implications on labour relations, education and infrastructure among many other factors.



## FAST FACTS

The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) predicts the following trends in weather and climate events in Africa:

- by 2020, yields from rain-fed agriculture could be reduced by up to 50 percent;
- towards the end of the 21st century, projected sea level rise could affect low-lying coastal areas with large populations and the cost of adaptation could amount to at least 5-10% of GDP;
- prolonged droughts and/ or floods with agricultural losses of between 2-7% of GDP by 2100 in some parts of sub-Saharan Africa (SSA).
- fisheries are predicted to be negatively impacted, with an estimated decrease in productivity due to sea temperature rise reaching between 50-60% by 2100.

<sup>1</sup> Fisher, G., Shah, M., & Van Velthuis, H. (2011) Climate change and agriculture in Africa. Luxembourg: International Institute for Applied systems Analysis.

Trade is similarly affected, with the new green consumers around the globe increasingly demanding goods and services that have a low carbon footprint. This affects the design of policies within Africa in response to changing global consumer patterns that increasingly acknowledge climate change. Two typical examples of international disputes arising out of high carbon content products come from trade

between Africa and Europe. In the year 2000 consignments of flowers from Kenya were dumped while in South Africa the wine industry is now being forced to export significant amounts of wine in bulk containers to reduce its carbon footprint. The European Union is lobbying strongly to include the civil aviation and maritime sectors in its carbon trading system.

## Climate policies to address adaptation and development needs

Many African countries are still working on their climate change policies while a few others have only recently established policies which are yet to be implemented. Examples include the South African National Climate Change Response Strategy (NCCRS), finalised in 2011 and the Kenyan national Climate Change Response Strategy, completed in 2010. Botswana and Zimbabwe have no clear strategy or dedicated policy towards climate change mitigation and adaptation. An adaptation response strategy is under development in Zimbabwe but progress has been halted by a lack of funds. Uganda and Nigeria have developed National Adaptation Programmes of Action (NAPA) under the UNFCCC although these are yet to be translated into comprehensive national climate plans. Other countries, such as Nigeria, are still making efforts to submit National Communications under the UNFCCC and have no specific climate change policies and strategies. Ghana adopted an approach of mainstreaming climate change into existing strategies, for example the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy, and this has led to the development of a National Climate Adaptation Strategy for the country.

South Africa's National Development Plan (NDP Vision 2030) has a whole chapter dedicated to addressing low carbon transition. The South African NCCRS makes provision for using taxes to address development challenges linked to climate change. The key positive aspect from the two policies is that the NDP makes references to the NCCRS and has mainstreamed climate change to a greater extent with both the adaptation and mitigation agenda coming out as well. The 2012 Let's Respond initiative assists South African municipalities to mainstream climate change into their Integrated Development Plans.

In Kenya, the national development plan, Vision 2030, was developed in 2007. Other countries making significant inroads in addressing climate change and development include Ethiopia, Mozambique and Rwanda. The Ethiopian government sees a strategic link between economic growth, social development, greenhouse gas emission reduction and building resilience to climate change <sup>2</sup>.

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### Civil Society Action in Climate Change Negotiations

The role of NGOs is primarily to represent the voiceless and playing an oversight role that puts pressure on governments. They do so by:

- conducting independent research and providing reporting that supports their advocacy and lobbying and informs policy;
- following debates and evaluating actions;
- informing the general public, usually through the media;
- demonstrating to amplify the views and voices of ordinary people;
- raising awareness of critical issues;
- observing and reporting on processes;
- working on the ground to translate policies and plans to practical actions; and
- engaging in civil diplomacy by promoting understanding and cooperation when they meet at international platforms.

Civil society actors on climate issues are wide ranging with participants varying from independent think tanks to community based organisations. ·

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<sup>2</sup>[http://gggi.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/10/GGBP\\_3GF\\_Briefing\\_Paper\\_Oct\\_2013.pdf](http://gggi.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/10/GGBP_3GF_Briefing_Paper_Oct_2013.pdf) (Accessed 18 November 2013).

In addition to the its 2010 National Climate Change Response Strategy (NCCRS) and the 2012 National Climate Change Policy (NCCP), Zambia's NCCRS has proposed the creation of a Climate Change and Development Council.

Despite the progress in developing climate change policies in many African countries, many have not reached the implementation stage let alone made clear links between climate policy and development policy. Another concern is the lack of such policies within Regional Economic Communities (RECs) like in the Southern African Development Community (SADC), whilst climate change strategies in the Common Market for East and Southern Africa (Comesa) and the East African Communities (EAC) are also at an early stage.

## Challenges to mainstreaming climate change adaptation

The global climate change regimes have in the past prioritised the mitigation of the effects of climate change over the adaptation of economies to reduce the adverse impacts of climate change. The emerging national climate change and development policies in Africa therefore also suffer from this bias towards mitigation over adaptation. This is

not surprising given that at the global level, adaptation discussions only seriously began in 2007 during the Bali COP13 and the COP decisions on adaptation only emerged in 2010 in Cancun during COP16. Yet, in many African countries, adaptation, particularly in the agriculture and development sector, is key to economic development and is an issue that fully



- How does this climate change policy affect the various economic sectors?
- How is civil society involved in the development, planning and implementation of this policy?
- Are new structures necessary for overseeing the implementation of this policy or can they be managed under existing structures (follow up – why was this particular structure selected, how will it coordinate with others, how will it be financed)?
- How are the policies mainstreamed at local government and community levels?

embraces local and indigenous knowledge systems as one of the intervention measures.

While the progress to mainstream climate change into national policies and strategies in Africa has to a large extent been through the influence of donors and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) who are mostly based in developed countries, such donor funding may also have undue influence on how priorities are set.

Additional challenges include:

- the tendency to place climate change adaptation solely within the environmental rather than economic policy frameworks. This tends to limit understanding of the impact of climate change on national economies and undermines political buy-in for prioritisation and resource mobilisation for climate change adaptation;
- a bias in agricultural policy towards large-scale commercial agriculture and technological transfer at the expense of small-scale commercial and subsistence farmers. Land grabs (now also increasingly viewed as water grabs), for example, by commercial agriculture for growing export crops, tourism or commercial forestry are threatening to leave rural farmers landless and vulnerable to the adverse effects of climate change;
- the failure of adaption strategies to take gender and economic inequalities into account. Provisions such as security of land tenure, provision of technical information, such as meteorological and weather forecasts, and access to micro-finance as well as opportunities for productive employment are often not adequately and appropriately extended to women; and
- limited participation of civil society in developing climate change adaption policies and strategies.

African governments are waking up to the call demanding that development should be climate sensitive and climate resilient. However, most of the policies are still new or not yet at implementation stage and in many instances non-existent. Further, the policies that do exist still need to be aligned with broader economic development policy.

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## ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

- GEF/UNDP The National Communication as a Tool for Integrating Climate Change into National Development 2011 [http://ncsp.undp.org/sites/default/files/Mainstreaming-GUIDE\\_WEB.pdf](http://ncsp.undp.org/sites/default/files/Mainstreaming-GUIDE_WEB.pdf).
- Global Green Growth Institute <http://gggi.org/>
- Heinrich Böll Foundation Southern Africa <http://www.za.boell.org/web/publications-631.html>
- Knowledge exchange portal <http://zunia.org/cat/environment>
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- Mickwitz et al. Climate Policy, Integration, Coherence and Governance 2009 [http://www.peer.eu/fileadmin/user\\_upload/publications/PEER\\_Report2.pdf](http://www.peer.eu/fileadmin/user_upload/publications/PEER_Report2.pdf)
- UNEP Mainstreaming Climate Change Adaptation into Development Planning: A Guide for Practitioners <http://www.unep.org/pdf/mainstreaming-cc-adaptation-web.pdf>.
- Patrick Thaddayos Balla (editor). Towards a Coherent and Cost Effective Policy Response to Climate Change in Kenya. Country Report. Heinrich Boell Stiftung. East and Horn of Africa 2013
- Lindlyn Tamufor, Joshua Klemm and Liane Schalatek, Ready to be Africa's Climate Bank? A Mapping of Climate-related Policies, Programs and Practice at the African Development Bank. Heinrich Boell Stiftung, United States of America 2011

SECTION

3

A photograph of a person, likely a woman, working in a field. She is wearing an orange shirt and a patterned skirt. The field is filled with dry, harvested crops, possibly corn or sugarcane, lying on the ground. The background shows a clear blue sky and some distant trees. The overall scene suggests a rural, agricultural setting.

## GENDER AND CLIMATE CHANGE



Farmers in Mumbwa district of Zambia practice conservation agriculture, an age old practice that sustains soil fertility and better harvests.  
Credit: Davison Mudzingwa/IPS

## GENDER AND CLIMATE CHANGE

Women comprise the majority of the poor living in developing countries. In Africa, climate change is threatening to reverse decades of work aimed at improving their lives. Rural women are most immediately affected due to a lack of resources to manage the changes.

This section addresses gender in the context of governments' accountability to women as the most disadvantaged group. It addresses transparency and fairness of the negotiation processes in which this group has limited representation at global and national levels and what effect this has on efforts to achieve **gender equity** and sustainable development through climate governance.

### Gender-specific vulnerabilities and responses to climate change

Many climate related policies are **gender blind**. Yet men and women are affected differently in all phases of a disaster, from exposure to risk and risk perception; to preparedness behavior, warning communication and response; physical, psychological, social and economic impacts; emergency response; and ultimately to recovery and reconstruction.

Some of the factors that make women more vulnerable to disasters include lack of means and assets to ensure their own safety in situations of flooding, landslides and storms.

With changes in the climate, traditional food sources become more unpredictable and scarce. They may lose their harvests – often their sole source of food and income.

Women are not as mobile as men and do not have the same networks so they may not receive information, such as early warnings. In emergencies their lack of mobility and having to remain at home to deal with the damage and look after the sick or injured means they could lose out on aid distribution. In some cases, climate impacts force people to migrate in search of work. Both women and men face security risks in migration but also leave behind a population largely made up of older women and small children also at risk and with limited support in their household and agricultural work.

Women also face higher security risks during and after disaster. As communities scatter, women, who either remain behind to deal with

the aftermath or are similarly scattered and separated from their community, may be more at risk of sexual and other gender based violence, including trafficking. This is also the case where climate change impacts force women to go further each day in search of food, fuel, water or other household necessities.

Because of the social construction of men's and women's roles in a given culture or location, women may not have the skills to deal with climate related disasters like flooding. As girls they may be discouraged from activities such as climbing trees, may not have had the opportunity to learn how to swim or may be restricted by the type of clothing they are expected to wear, all of which could make it difficult for them to escape quickly. This is a contributing factor to the higher death rates among women during climate related disasters. After a disaster, women are among the first to lose their homes, their jobs and have to work long hours to regain stability and get their households back in order.

These gender differentiated impacts of climate change are the result of existing inequalities between men and women, including unequal access to resources, gendered division of labour and gender discrimination in decision-making and sharing of power.

## Women and climate change adaptation

Although women are among the most vulnerable to climate change impacts, they can also be important change agents at household and community levels in the management of natural resources, conflict resolution and peace building efforts. Their strong knowledge and expertise ideally locates them for climate change adaptation and disas



### FAST FACTS

- Women are responsible for 70–80 % of household food production in sub-Saharan Africa and climate change will systematically affect women due to their reliance on subsistence farming activities;
- Women use vegetation and forests for medicinal plants, food and fuel as well as for income generation, but these ecosystems are threatened by climate change;
- Climate variability contributes to disease outbreaks, for example cholera and malaria, in which women are most affected due to limited access to health services or due to the increased workload of caring for the sick;
- Public shame, social and clothing inhibitions, and lack of survival skills (swimming, climbing trees etc.) contribute to a greater death rate of women compared with men in hurricanes and floods. Moreover, women often care for children, the sick and elderly, and may place themselves at higher risk to do so;
- Collecting water will become more difficult for women due to droughts and floods and those living within 60km from a shoreline will be susceptible to increased salinity of their water sources;
- Travelling longer distances to collect water and fuel can also place women and girls at risk of violence. This risk is exacerbated in or near conflict zones, which have the added impact of often degrading local natural resources.

ter management, for example, seed selection, medicinal plants, local hydrology, community organisation, and coping strategies that can promote adaptation to climate change.

Usually left to take care of the household, women are constantly developing innovations to adapt to climate change, including identification of alternative food sources for household and income. In various parts of southern Africa, for example, women are developing new products and preservation methods for natural food sources, such as mopane worms and marula tree fruit that may be in abundance or in short supply as a result of shifting seasons. This contributes to food security and income through sales of surplus. Women generating an income also have more opportunities and power to decide what the income can be used for, thereby improving livelihoods and household security.

## Women and climate change mitigation

Women already play an important role in the mitigation of climate change by changing buying habits, educating family members, conservation efforts, and their willingness to take action. Women are more inclined to work for a change in lifestyles and a general reduction in energy consumption (Röhr 2009). Where technology is concerned, they are the ones who have to work with the renewable forms of energy such as **biomass**, **biogas** and solar, necessary in order to tackle climate change.

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### Beware of smokescreens

Is there true gender integration in national policies and plans or are governments merely paying lip service to the issue to attract funding?

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Most of the mitigation projects and funds so far have supported large-scale energy infrastructure and industrial efficiency programmes, often viewed as mitigation projects with little connection to gender equality or other social issues <sup>3</sup>. According to Women in Environment and Development (WEDO), prevailing approaches to reducing emissions have prioritised scientific and technological measures, often at the expense of social and behavioral considerations.

However, some climate finance institutions, including the Global Environment Fund (GEF) and the UNFCCC have started to recognise the importance of gender equality in climate projects and financing. The UNFCCC highlights gender equality in its Clean Development Mechanism through a methodology that allows for aggregation of small-scale projects that can help meet women's needs for energy services while also achieving reductions in greenhouse gas emissions. There is also growing attention to the role of women in Reducing of Emissions from Deforestation and Degradation (REDD) programmes, which use market and financial incentives to reduce GHG emissions resulting

<sup>3</sup> <http://gender-climate.org/Content/Docs/Publications/financial-mitigation-factsheet.pdf>

from deforestation and degradation.

Low or alternative energy cook stoves tend to dominate the market for mitigation projects. According to the 2013 State of the Voluntary Carbon Markets report, cook stoves are the fourth most popular mitigation activity in the voluntary carbon markets, with voluntary buyers funneling 80 million dollars towards offsets from these. In 2012, distribution reached 15 countries on three continents – Ghana, Mozambique and Kenya being the most prominent locations in Africa.

The challenge where these projects are implemented is the extent to which the women who will ultimately use these alternative technologies participate in and are consulted at the development stage. Women's involvement in the development of new technologies can ensure that they are user friendly, effective and sustainable. Such involvement would include women's access to training, to credit and skills development programmes to ensure that they participate fully and that the technology is not harmful to women, for example by extending their working hours.



- How have women been affected differently by climate change at the local level (follow up - family health, increased workload, family nutrition, loss of income, migration, conflict etc.)?
- What are women's coping mechanisms / What are they doing differently (follow up – further travel, networking, technology and other innovation, etc.)?
- How have women benefitted financially or materially from adaptation or mitigation projects (follow up - for example, what is this reforestation project worth to participating women in dollars per day/week/month/year and how much time does the woman spend on this project in relation to her other work)?
- Are women involved in the design of alternative technologies (like energy efficient cook stoves) or adaptation projects? Are they using them regularly?
- Were women consulted in the development of this climate adaptation or mitigation project and how are they expected to benefit?

Various organisations have developed toolkits for policy makers to determine whether private and public mitigation projects and financing are integrating gender considerations. These include ENERGIA's Energy Project Gender Action Plan; WOCAN's Women's Carbon Standard; WEDO's Gender Mainstreamed Social and Environmental Standards for REDD+ checklist tool and IUCN's Environment and Gender Index.

## Gender and climate change in the UNFCCC COP process

Women's rights and gender equality groups have been engaging in the UNFCCC COP process for many years and their lobbying for greater gender integration in the negotiated text towards a global climate change deal has been gaining momentum.

In 2001, the parties to the UNFCCC agreed on the first text on gender equality and women's participation. Two decisions were adopted at this 7th Conference of Parties in Marrakesh. In 2010, parties agreed that gender equality and women's participation are necessary for effective action on all aspects of climate change. Gender equality issues have since been incorporated in nearly every UNFCCC thematic area. At COP 18, Doha, the UNFCCC launched its first Gender Day, aimed at raising awareness of gender and climate change.

In spite of these actions, many women's rights and gender equality advocates question whether there will be real gender integration in the UNFCCC COP negotiations or if countries just pay lip service to this important issue in order to attract funding and support.

Gender equality advocacy and lobby groups are regrouping and strategising on how they can effectively influence the global climate change negotiations to integrate gender justice. Gender justice in the global climate change regime will result in a bottom up approach where UNFCCC Parties come to the COP with clear positions on gender justice within the global climate change deal that have been influenced by their citizens, including the women in their countries. This will also ensure that UNFCCC Parties are held accountable by their female constituents should they fail to keep up with their commitments.

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### ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

- ABANTU for Development [www.abantu-rowa.org](http://www.abantu-rowa.org)
- ENERGIA [www.energia.org](http://www.energia.org)
- GenderCC Southern Africa [www.gendercc.net](http://www.gendercc.net)
- Gender and Disaster Network [www.gdnonline.org](http://www.gdnonline.org)
- International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN), [www.generoyambiente.com](http://www.generoyambiente.com)
- WEDO [www.wedo.org](http://www.wedo.org)
- Jenny Jungehülsing. Gender Relations and Women's Vulnerability to Cli-

mate Change, Heinrich Böll Foundation. Report, April 24, 2012. <http://www.za.boell.org/web/cop17-841.html>

- Belynda Petrie. Gender and Climate Change in Southern Africa. Heinrich
- Böll Foundation. <http://www.za.boell.org/web/publications.html>

SECTION

4

# CLIMATE FINANCE



In the Karoo region of South Africa, solar power has become a popular alternative source of energy  
Credit: Davison Mudzingwa/IPS

## CLIMATE FINANCE

Climate finance places the burden of compensation for the global climate change impacts worst experienced by developing nations on developed nations who are largely responsible for the damage caused. Climate finance, which refers to all financial flows from private as well as public sources directed at climate change responses globally, is grounded in the UNFCCC's principle of '**common but differentiated responsibilities**'. The principle takes into account the developed world's historical responsibility for GHG emissions and the disparity in wealth and capacities for adaptation and mitigation between the developed and developing countries.

### Obligations

Decisions adopted by the COP recognise that in order for developing countries to meet their commitments to climate change mitigation and adaptation, developed countries must meet their obligations to provide the necessary financial resources and technology transfer. The 2009 Copenhagen Accord describes the collective commitment, confirmed by the Cancun Agreements, by developed countries to provide new and additional resources approaching 30 billion dollars for 2010–12, increasing to 100 billion dollars annually by 2020.

Various estimates of developing country climate finance needs range from annual investment of 177-695 billion dollars for mitigation and 71-81 billion dollars for adaptation. For Africa alone, the estimates are about 18 billion dollars per year <sup>4</sup> for mitigation and 20 – 30 billion dollars <sup>5</sup> per year for adaptation when including Africa's current adaptation deficit.

A comprehensive annual inventory of global climate finance during 2012 shows that flows plateaued at around 359 billion dollars or roughly 1 billion dollars per day -- far below even the most conservative estimates of investment needs. The inventory calls for incentives for the private sector to significantly accelerate its investment in low-carbon and climate resilient growth options. In its annual review, 'Landscape of Climate Finance 2013', the Climate Policy Institute estimated 353 billion dollars was spent on climate finance globally. Fully 95 percent of this was spent on mitigation but only half of the total expenditure was spent in developing countries.

### Public or private, multilateral or bilateral?

Least developed and most vulnerable countries insist that public sector contributions by developed countries should make up the bulk of

<sup>4</sup> World Bank Economics of Adaptation to Climate Change, 2010

<sup>5</sup> African Development Bank, 2011

financial commitments. Developed countries on the other hand emphasise the importance of mobilising private financing.

## Multilateral

The majority of dedicated climate funds are disbursed through multilateral channels. Different countries will contribute to such funds, among which are: the Global Environment Facility (GEF) - an operating entity of the financial mechanism of the UNFCCC that operates the Least Developed Countries Fund (LDCF) and the Special Climate Change Fund (SCCF), which support adaptation plans and projects, and the Climate Investment Funds (CIF) administered by the World Bank in partnership with regional development banks. These include the African Development Bank, the Asian Development Bank, the European Bank of Reconstruction and Development and the Inter-American Development Bank. Funds channelled through the World Bank are mainly for mitigation plans and programmes.

In some cases, multilateral funds go directly into a developing country's National Climate Change Fund. An example is Brazil, where the Amazon Fund is administered by the country's National Development Bank and governed by a committee of Brazilian government, civil society and private sector representatives.

According to Climate Funds Update, an initiative founded from a partnership between the Heinrich Böll Foundation (HBF) and the Overseas Development Institute ([www.climatefundsupdate.org](http://www.climatefundsupdate.org)), as of October 2013 European countries have been the largest contributors to multilateral climate funds, delivering 3.4 billion dollars since 2008. Most of the finance was made available as grants offered to countries on a concessional basis, with the potential to help meet the additional costs of investments in climate change. After Europe, the US and Japan have committed to the largest pledges.

## Bilateral

Bilateral climate finance makes up a large share of financing and includes funding through direct projects with private sector sources. An example is Germany's International Climate Initiative (ICI) for adaptation and mitigation. Some of the funds channelled through ICI are obtained from the sale of national tradable emission certificates. Norway and Australia's bilateral funds have mainly been focussed on REDD+ projects through national trust funds.

## Private Sources

Calls for greater private investment in climate change, mitigation and

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### Beware of smokescreens

Not all financing goes towards real mitigation or adaptation. According to [climatemarkets.org](http://climatemarkets.org), the 30 billion dollars pledged for "fast-start" finance at the Copenhagen climate conference in 2009 includes everything from multi-million dollar loans to coal-fired power stations in Indonesia, oil refineries in Brazil, subsidies for maritime border security in Yemen and Tunisia, and Coca-Cola bottling plants in Nigeria.

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climate-resilient development in particular, grew stronger following the global financial crisis in 2008, as cash-strapped northern governments realised that they would not have the resources to meet their UNFCCC obligations.

Private sources of funding include financial institutions such as banks, pension, hedge and insurance funds, providing loans to enterprises.



- Does government have the necessary institutional structures in place to manage climate funds?
- Are new structures necessary for managing climate funds or can they be managed under existing structures?
- How are local government/local authorities involved in managing climate finance and implementing adaptation and mitigation initiatives?
- How will this climate project benefit the people most vulnerable to climate change financially or materially?

These enterprises may use the loans for investment in renewable energy or highly efficient technologies to reduce carbon emissions; the transport sector; energy efficient building; industry; agriculture or providing technical assistance and capacity building to address the impact of climate change.

Private companies are answerable to their shareholders and are expected to generate profits, so one of the challenges to private sources of funding is the investment climate in Africa. Investors naturally evaluate the risks and returns of any investment and as such prefer to put their money into countries they consider low risk in terms of currency, sector regulations, execution, capacity and knowledge gaps. Where risk is considered to be high, investors require a higher anticipated level of return to compensate for this.

Private finance for climate change is a complex area where governance is concerned. There is limited transparency and accountability and it is very difficult to get information because of “commercial confidentiality”. Since the private sector’s primary motivation is profit, they focus mainly on mitigation and, as such, the benefits of such investments to sustainable development may be limited. For more on private sources of climate financing go to [www.climatemarkets.org](http://www.climatemarkets.org) and download their toolkit.

## Climate funds for Africa

Most climate funds are relatively new, although the Global Environment Fund (GEF) has been around since 1991. Among the most recent is the Green Climate Fund (GCF), intended to be the primary channel for climate finance.

### Top Funds Supplying Sub-Saharan Africa

Type	Fund (main funders)	Amount approved for SSA (in \$millions)	Amount approved as % of global approvals
Mitigation	Clean Technology Fund – CTF (US, Japan, UK, Germany & France)	401	18%
Mitigation	Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation Congo Basin Forest Fund (UK, Norway & Canada)	95	100%
Various	Global Environment Facility - GEF (US, Germany, Japan, UK & France)	198	13%
Various	Global Climate Change Alliance – GCCA (EU, Central Asia, Ireland)	185	48%
Various	International Climate Initiative – ICI (Germany)	96	10%
Adaptation	Least Developed Countries Fund – LDCF (Germany, UK, Sweden, US, Netherlands)	320	63%
Adaptation	Pilot Program for Climate Resilience – PPCR (UK, US, Japan, Canada, Germany)	155	38%

## Adaptation and mitigation financing

The bulk of climate finance is for mitigation with South Africa being the top recipient in sub-Saharan Africa and among the top 20 recipients globally, following closely behind Mexico in second place. Funding approvals for mitigation for South Africa have mostly gone into the largest approved project in the region -- the Eskom Renewable Energy Support Program (US\$ 350 m).

In North Africa, approvals are concentrated in Morocco (nearly 60%) and Egypt (about 33%). Most of this finance has been made available as concessional loans for mitigation activities.

Adaptation is the overriding priority for Africa as a whole, for Small Island Developing States (SIDS) and Least Developed Countries (LDCs) generally.

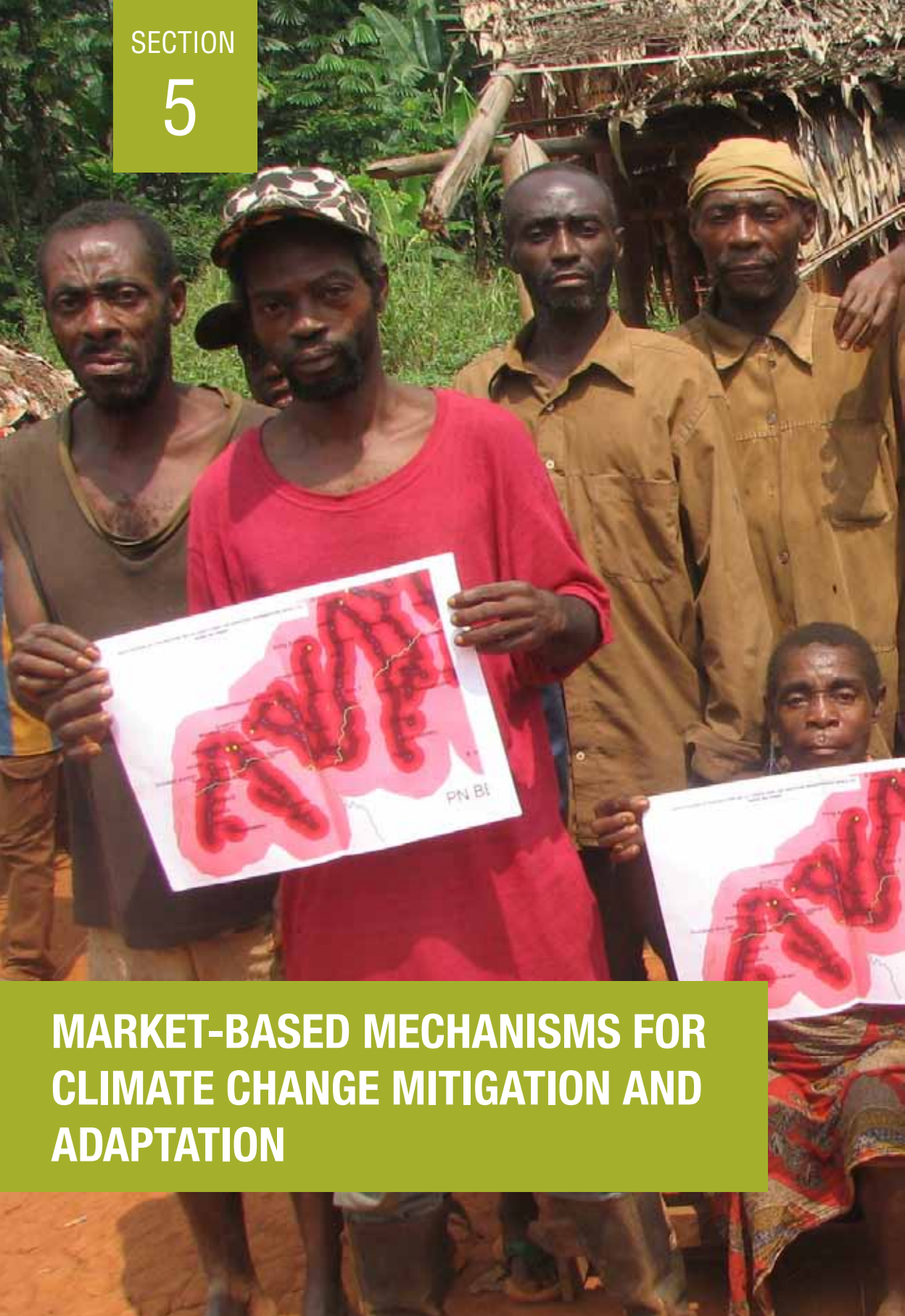
Regional distribution for adaptation favours sub-Saharan Africa (38%), followed by Asia and the Pacific (26%) then Latin America and the Caribbean (11%). Top recipients in Africa are Niger and Mozambique.



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## ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

- AFDB <http://www.afdb.org/en/topics-and-sectors/sectors/climate-change/>
- A Matter of Principles: A normative framework for a Global Compact on Public Climate Finance, Heinrich Boell Stiftung, 2013 <http://www.boell.de/en/2013/12/09/matter-principles-normative-framework-global-compact-public-climate-finance>
- Africa Adapt <http://www.africa-adapt.net>
- Africa Centre for Cities <http://africancentreforcities.net>
- Africacclimate.net <http://www.africanclimate.net>
- Climatedmarkets.org [www.climatemarkets.org](http://www.climatemarkets.org)
- UN Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA) <http://new.uneca.org/acpc>
- Richard Calland and Trusha Reddy, Towards a Framework for National Climate Finance Governance in Africa. Heinrich Böll Foundation, 2011 <http://www.za.boell.org/web/climate-change-889.html>
- Heinrich Böll Foundation, Ensuring Climate Finance Effectiveness in Africa. Workshop Report, August 1, 2013. <http://www.za.boell.org/web/climate-change-912.html>



## MARKET-BASED MECHANISMS FOR CLIMATE CHANGE MITIGATION AND ADAPTATION



**Baka from Ngoyla, near Cameroon's Nki National Park, hold up a map of the forest. They have been restricted from entering the dark red areas which are of social, economic and cultural importance to them. Credit: Ngala Killian Chimtom/IPS**

## MARKET-BASED MECHANISMS FOR CLIMATE CHANGE MITIGATION AND ADAPTATION

Market-based mechanisms to address climate change aim to reduce greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions by trading carbon credits.

### Parties under the UNFCCC

The UNFCCC divides countries into three main groups according to differing commitments:

**Annex I** Parties include the industrialized countries that were members of the OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development) in 1992, plus countries with economies in transition (the EIT Parties), including the Russian Federation, the Baltic States, and several Central and Eastern European States.

**Annex II (B)** Parties consist of the OECD members of Annex I, but not the EIT Parties.

**Non-Annex I** Parties are mostly developing countries. Certain groups of developing countries are recognized by the Convention as being especially vulnerable to the adverse impacts of climate change, including countries with low-lying coastal areas and those prone to desertification and drought.

The 49 Parties classified as least developed countries (LDCs) by the United Nations are given special consideration under the Convention on account of their limited capacity to respond to climate change and adapt to its adverse effects. Parties are urged to take full account of the special situation of LDCs when considering funding and technology-transfer activities.

**Source:** UNFCCC

Market-based mechanisms are based on the market forces of supply, demand and pricing. In the context of climate governance, they provide the flexibility to countries and firms to reduce GHG emissions to meet legally binding or voluntary GHG emissions caps. They are mainly focused on mitigation, although activities covered by trading, like forest conservation and renewable energy projects, can also have adaptation impacts.

The UNFCCC requires each Party to monitor its emissions and calls on developed countries, as those most responsible for historic GHG emissions, to voluntarily limit their emissions. Under the **Kyoto Protocol**, a number of countries have undertaken to reduce their GHG emissions with the help of market-based mechanisms.

Under this system, nations determine their GHG limits and may enact laws to limit how much companies can emit and providing these with quotas. The company can either reduce its emissions or buy certificates that relate to emissions or offset its excess by buying credits from someone who has reduced emissions.

### Emissions trading

Emissions trading, sometimes referred to as cap and trade, limit how much nations and their industries can emit and provide some flexibility on how to meet these limits. The flexibility includes the use of certificates that allow emissions reduced below allowable levels to be saved up to offset future emissions or sold to another emitter who can use them to increase their own allowance.

These tradable emissions certificates are carbon credits, a form of currency where GHG emissions are offset by non-pollution elsewhere. One metric tonne of GHG emissions is equal to one carbon credit. The price for carbon credits is normally quoted in Euros and is designed to provide a monetary value to GHG emissions reductions. This allows entities not covered by trading schemes to be paid for actions that reduce GHG emissions. .

Commercial and individual customers interested in reducing their carbon footprint on a voluntary basis can buy carbon credits from an in-

vestment fund or carbon development company that has accumulated credits. Credits are also traded on the carbon exchanges, which are like stock markets for carbon credits.

## Kyoto Protocol emissions trading framework

Under the Kyoto Protocol's emissions trading framework, parties with legally binding obligations can meet their obligations by:

- joint implementation (also called project-based trading) between nations with legally binding GHG limitations – where Annex 1 parties can undertake projects in other **Annex 1** countries that lower emissions in exchange for carbon credits. The buyer can maintain or increase their emissions and the seller must reduce theirs;
- the “Clean Development Mechanism” CDM, between industrialised and developing nations, where buyers in developed nations can buy certified emissions reductions created from sellers that have implemented mitigation projects in developing nations that have not yet adopted legally binding targets. Such projects have to prove that they reduce emissions beyond whatever emissions reductions that would have taken place without the provision of CDM funding; and
- agreements among groups of parties to fulfil their commitments jointly, also called collective targets, bubbles and umbrellas, allowing Annex 1 countries to combine their emissions targets with some countries reducing their emissions by more than their individual targets and others by less. Joint targets provide for consequences in the form of fines and other penalties for failure of a participating country to meet their targets.

Nations and their polluters can choose anywhere to conduct emissions trading. Buyers and speculators will naturally choose the cheapest option for trade with the hope that they will get a higher return for their investment.

## Market mechanisms and Africa

The most common market based mechanism for the reduction of emissions in Africa is the Clean Development Mechanism (CDM). CDM is the main source of mitigation financing to developing countries and the main source of income for the UNFCCC Adaptation Fund through a 2 percent levy on all sold CDM carbon credits.

CDM Projects mostly involve renewable energy, energy efficiency – including incineration of industrial chemical waste streams -- animal waste management, waste to energy projects, and reforestation and forest protection.

A number of CDM projects have been criticised for doing more harm than good in Africa – providing for-profit activities for multinationals based in Europe and the United States, which can continue to pollute while engaging in what critics term “dubious” activities that harm communities, workers and local environments<sup>7</sup>. An example is the recovery of gas, which would otherwise have been flared in Nigeria but from which surrounding communities that have suffered decades of environmental pollution from the flaring have benefitted little in terms of resources for environmental recovery. Another is reforestation or protection of forests under **REDD**, seen by some as little more than

masking commercial timber plantations for later harvest as ‘forests’, especially where exotic species are planted with little value to the biodiversity. In some instances, reforestation has resulted in locals being evicted from their land.

In response to these concerns, there has been a move under the UNFCCC to move to **REDD+**, which builds on REDD by including a role for conservation, sustainable management of forests and enhancement of forest carbon stocks<sup>8</sup>. There

have also been moves by organisations such as Gold Standard ([www.cdmgoldstandard.org](http://www.cdmgoldstandard.org)) and Credible Carbon ([www.crediblecarbon.com](http://www.crediblecarbon.com)) to identify credits originating from forest related projects that lead to both emissions reductions and support sustainable development.

## Pricing carbon under the clean development mechanism

The currency for the CDM is Certified Emissions Reductions (CERs). Like any currency or stock, CERs can be bought and sold by speculators as well as project developers and firms with legally-binding emissions caps and are affected by supply and demand. There are, however, concerns that oversupply of CERs is reducing their value and could result in the currency crashing. A part of the oversupply is blamed on inefficient approval of projects and certification by governments with numerous inappropriate projects receiving approval. The effect of a crash of CERs will be that investors will be left holding worth-

### ASK

- How is the country benefitting from the clean development mechanism (follow up - what CDM projects are in place, who are the parties involved, what is it worth, how will ordinary citizens benefit, i.e. jobs, more efficient infrastructure, energy, etc.)?
- What impact will this CDM project have on the country's economic development (follow up - has it been mainstreamed in the economic development plan, what impact will it have on future industrial growth, agriculture, infrastructure, rural development, etc.)?
- What are some of the impacts (negative and positive) of this CDM project on local communities?
- What are the expected financial returns from this project?
- How have you involved civil society?
- What are your (civil society) views on this CDM project (follow up – views on how it has been negotiated, implemented and participation of affected groups in this process)?

<sup>7</sup> Bond, Patrick et al., The CDM in Africa Cannot Deliver the Money: Why carbon trading gamble and the clean development mechanism won't save the planet from climate change and how African civil society is resisting Durban: EJOLT 2012 <http://cdmcannotdeliver.files.wordpress.com/2012/04/ccs-dartmouth-ejolt-cdms-cannot-deliver-the-money-web1.pdf>

<sup>8</sup> <http://www.un-redd.org/AboutREDD/tabid/102614/Default.aspx>

less CERs and sellers, including developing country governments, will have a harder time selling their projects. Already, the price of CERs dropped from around 12 Euros per tonne in 2011 to 0.35 Euros per tonne in early 2013, the result being a declining interest in CDM investment.

Another concern relates to the cost benefits of CDM projects with criticisms that they have a negative impact on local communities and ecosystems. In particular, monoculture reforestation programmes, forestry protection and landfill methane to electricity projects.

## Voluntary emissions reductions

The voluntary carbon market caters for those companies that voluntarily decide to reduce their carbon footprint using carbon credits. An absence of regulations on GHG emissions or anticipation of legislation on GHG emissions also motivates some companies to enter the voluntary carbon market.

Although carbon credits under the voluntary carbon markets can be bought or sold by companies, individuals or organisations to offset their own carbon footprint or support local schemes, they fall outside of the Kyoto compliance mechanism.

According to the State of the Voluntary Carbon Markets 2013, forestry projects, cook stoves and water filtration devices are amongst the most popular mitigation activities in the voluntary carbon markets, with suppliers predicting that the market for voluntary emissions reductions could reach 1.6 – 2.3 billion dollars in 2020.

## What consequences for failing to meet targets?

Challenges with market mechanisms include transparency, accountability to ensure the participants are meeting their goals; consistency; and fungibility – the ease of complying with emissions trading. Another and probably more important challenge is the lack of consequences for those countries that fail to reduce their carbon footprint under the UNFCCC and the international political framework generally.

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### ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

- Credible Carbon [www.crediblecarbon.com](http://www.crediblecarbon.com)
- Climate Finance and Markets [www.climatemarkets.org](http://www.climatemarkets.org)
- Climate Funds Update [www.climatefundsupdate.org](http://www.climatefundsupdate.org)
- Ecosystems Marketplace [www.ecosystemmarketplace.com](http://www.ecosystemmarketplace.com)

A photograph of a man with short dark hair, wearing a light blue and white checkered button-down shirt. He is smiling and looking slightly to his right. A black microphone is visible in the lower right foreground, partially obscuring his shirt. The background is out of focus, showing green foliage and a reddish-brown wall with white trim.

SECTION

6

## **DEVELOPING YOUR STORY - BEST PRACTICES**



**Festus Kaleli of Radio Mang'elele interviews a young farmer in Makueni County in Kenya.  
Credit: Isaiah Esipisu/IPS**

## DEVELOPING YOUR STORY - BEST PRACTICES

This section outlines some of the best practices in reporting on climate governance using some sample features as examples. It also provides some ideas on how to bring in a climate governance perspective into stories that would otherwise be considered as unrelated. Finally, it provides a quick guide for pitching and developing your story.

### Best practices for climate governance reporters



#### SAMPLE FEATURE



#### TIPS

This story effectively covers the range of climate change governance issues with a focus on market mechanisms for climate change through REDD.

- It takes up the issue from the perspective of the benefits to be earned, both financially and environmentally;
- Explains, without using jargon, the market mechanism for the project;
- Explains challenges of climate change policy mainstreaming and their impact on the implementation of the project;
- Gives voice to the communities that effect and are affected by the project as well as officials, experts and civil society
- Provides a cost benefit analysis right down to the dollars and cents from reliable local sources;
- Tracks the planning, resource flows and implementation from top to bottom, identifying who was and was not involved;
- Looks beyond the present to explore potential future impacts of the project on local communities' livelihoods; and
- Explores the challenges to implementing and sustaining the project, its transparency and accountability.

## Carbon Finance May Not Benefit Forest Communities

By Rosebell Kagumire

**K**AMPALA, Nov 30 2010 (IPS) -- Uganda has lost more than two million hectares of forest since 1990, mostly converted to farmland by a growing popu-

lation of smallholders. Carbon finance through the REDD programme is often presented as one way to arrest this destruction, but only if the benefits clearly

translate to the grassroots.

Almost a fifth of greenhouse gas emissions worldwide come from the destruction of forests – second only to the energy sector. The idea behind REDD – reduced emissions from deforestation and forest degradation – is to give carbon stored in forests a financial value; financing the protection of forests in developing countries like Uganda with money raised from selling carbon stored in those trees to polluters in the developed world.

Finalising details is expected to be one of the major tasks of the U.N. Climate Conference taking place in Cancun, Mexico beginning on Nov. 29. One of the many challenges in actually implementing REDD – now REDD+, which extends the concept to conservation and sustainable management of forests – is the meaningful involvement of forest-dependent people.

### Privately held forest

More than two-thirds of Uganda's forests are on private land, controlled by individual small-scale farmers or held under communal title. Xavier Mugumya, a team leader with the National Forestry Authority's (NFA) Carbon Portfolio Development Programme told IPS the preservation of these privately-held forests must be a top priority.

"We have to face the reality that most forests are owned by individuals and communities and for REDD to succeed there must be well spelt-out mechanisms to bring in more incentives to these people to conserve the forests," said Mugumya.

These wooded lands are supposed to be overseen by District Forest Services but the DFS's powers are largely limited to issuing permits for commercial activities.

"The current land use policy leaves most decisions to individuals," Mugumya explained. "The government can only manage [things] through the issue of permits in

cases of conversion of trees into products like timber, but the conversion of forest into agricultural land is up to the individual and this has been responsible for the most loss of the forest cover."

David Kureeba, a member of the National Association of Professional Environmentalists (NAPE) agrees.

"The land use policy makes any intervention for private forests difficult," he said, adding that existing parks and forest reserves have failed to make conservation attractive.

### Policy reform proceeding slowly

Mugumya is also Uganda's REDD negotiator, and he is involved with developing what's called a Readiness Preparation Proposal. The R-PP is part of a process – supported by \$200,000 from the World Bank – that sets out how the main drivers of deforestation will be countered in a REDD scheme; setting out budgets, regulations, monitoring systems, and guidelines for community involvement.

The first draft fell short of the mark.

"[Uganda] came up with a proposal that was found unsatisfactory by the World Bank and we have gone back to bring out the concerns and needs of forest-dependent people whom this mechanism will either benefit or not depending on the implementation," said Kureeba.

Communities who will be directly affected by REDD were not adequately involved in drafting the proposal. Uganda has received a further \$185,000 from the Norwegian government to complete the consultations.

"The first consultations were done by NFA, but now with the Norwegian funds, they have made it a must to include civil society organisations in the consultation process. In fact NAPE is one of the consultants brought on board to capture concerns of people living around forests in the

central region,” said Kureeba.

### Limited monetary benefits

As it reworks the country’s policy, Uganda has possible models for monitoring, governance and local benefit sharing in the form of the International Small Group Tree Planting Program (TIST) and the Nile Basin Reforestation Project. In both of these cases, small groups of subsistence farmers engage in activities like tree planting and sustainable agriculture for sale of greenhouse gas credits.

David Mwayafu and Leo Peskett from the Uganda Coalition for Sustainable Development carried out an evaluation.

Under the first programme, farmers get paid 35 Uganda shillings – about 20 cents – per tree per year.

“Assuming a farmer plants 400 trees on one hectare under TIST and that the TIST farmer re-negotiates [extends] their contract,” said Mwayafu, “the farmer under TIST will earn 400 trees x 30 payments x 35 shillings = 420,000 shillings per hectare.”

Expectations – and needs – of participants are often high, but that works out to \$6 per hectare per year – less than \$200 over 30 years.

In the Nile Basin Reforestation Project, community organisations are paid for trees grown on National Forest Reserve land; in this scheme, the World Bank purchases the carbon credits, and the NFA will pass on 15 percent of the total income raised. Mwayafu and Peskett note that “there is little understanding about the scale of benefits among [members of] the community association, which could result in risks for them and the NFA as the project progresses.”

But Mugumya says interventions like REDD will revitalise the country’s forestry sector.

“We have policies that could save forests but the implementation costs money and when you draw up a budget no one wants to look at it,” he said. “The major hurdle is strengthening the policies and putting in place an incentives strategy that will make trees worth more when they are still standing than when they are down.”

### Focus on conservation

Yet this may be a dangerously optimistic view. While considerable time and resources are invested in working out a deal on REDD, it may prove important to simultaneously promote the intrinsic benefits of protecting and restoring forests and tree cover, as TIST does with its projects in Tanzania, Kenya, India and Uganda.

Trees on and around farms can provide fruit and nuts that can be sold; they provide shade for crops, protect against erosion and in some cases maintain nutrients in soil. Rural communities also make extensive use of densely wooded areas where there is no farming, and reforming the management of such forests in the name of carbon sequestration must be carefully considered.

NAPE’s Kureeba: “We have to go on the ground and find out whether people are buying the idea of REDD. Much as we bring money, people need to know and propose what will happen to forest management, to look at issues of access to the forest for food, herbs, poles for building and other issues like culture.”

Kureeba is worried that these details – vital to the ultimate beneficiaries of REDD – are of little interest to policy makers. “The problem is that government is after getting money. There’s less interest in the processes that will make a REDD initiative work for the people that depend on forests.”

“The issue of equity is important. Is the

money going to go down to the intended beneficiaries given the corruption levels here or will it be like the money embezzled from Global Fund?” Kureeba questioned.

In 2005, the Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria suspended a \$367 million dollar grant to Uganda after auditors found government officials were embezzling large amounts of the money, intended to strengthen health services.

While the health minister and two depu-

ties were sacked, concerns remain that funds raised for forest communities on global carbon markets will also be vulnerable to corruption, misdirected to administrative costs or out rightly stolen.

*\*This IPS story is part of a series supported by the Climate and Development Knowledge Network – <http://www.cdkn.org>.*



## SAMPLE FEATURE



## TIPS

This is a good example of a migration story that initially appears unrelated to climate change. The story idea grew from the journalist's curiosity about the growing number of “Kayaye” or market porters in Ghana's capital, Accra, coming from the country's northern region. The story:

- Explores the changing gender dynamics as a result of climate change impacts;
- Presents women's agency in constantly adapting to climate change while also exposing their risk and vulnerability due to the same adaptation measures;
- Provides statistics from a reliable source;
- Quotes a variety of sources, including a young female porter who is the face of the story, NGOs, an expert and a policy maker;
- Seeks official comment on solutions for the challenges faced by the affected climate migrants.

Other subject areas for exploration from a climate change perspective include but are not limited to:

- Conflict (land, water and other resource, human/animal, etc.)
- Disease patterns/health (for example malaria, cholera)
- Indigenous knowledge systems
- Innovation
- Trade patterns

Keep your eyes and mind open, ask the right questions and you will be surprised at the story ideas you will find that are related to climate change and climate change governance

# Climate Makes Refugees Out Of Young Ghanaians

By Albert Oppong-Ansah

**A**CCRA, Dec 13 2013 (IPS) - It was 20-year-old Fizer Boa who first migrated south to Ghana's capital, Accra, to work in the local Abobloshie market as a porter or "Kayaye".

"I agreed with my mother when she advised me to go join my friend who was working as a Kayaye in Accra. I did not object to the idea because ... we hardly had three square meals a day," she told IPS. Reduced rainfall in the Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo district in Ghana's Northern Region, where Boa comes from, has resulted in low yields for the past two years, leaving her family barely able to survive.

In the city, Boa's job involves carrying loads of goods on her head or back from one place to another for fees as low as 50 cents or as high as six dollars.

Soon after she came here, her two sisters dropped out of school and left their home to follow her and also work as Kayayes.

"My other siblings dropped out of school to join me in Accra because my mother could no longer pay for additional school levies, such as Parent Teachers Association fees, and school materials," Boa said. Schooling is usually free in this West African nation, though each school charges its own additional costs and administration fees.

Combined, the sisters earn up to 30 dollars on a good day.

Kayaye is a trade often taken up by children and adults from the Northern Region who migrate to southern Ghana in search of a living. And according to Dr. Wilson Dogbe, a research scientist at the Savannah Agriculture Research Institute of the Council for Scientific and Industrial Research, one of the major causes of this mi-

gration is the changing environment in the north.

The Northern Region is a predominantly rural-based community, and farmers there have become vulnerable to the impact of climate change.

"The problem is that the Northern Region currently is experiencing low rainfall, soil infertility, and increased temperatures as high as 47 degrees Celsius. It is evident from research conducted over the past few years that land scarcity and soil infertility are one of the main elements pushing people off the land to seek a safe-haven in the south," he said.

The Northern Sector Action on Awareness Centre (NORSAAC), an NGO based in the Northern Region's capital Tamale, estimates the number of Kayaye in Accra and Kumasi, a city in southern Ghana, is over 80,000.

Some of these climate refugees, who are mostly young girls between the ages of 18 and 30 sent by their families to earn an income, fetch water for people, work in chop-bars (local restaurants), and as hawkers and shop attendants.

But their existence is a precarious one. Mohammed Awal, NORSAAC's director, told IPS that the young girls were the most vulnerable of these climate refugees as they had no place to live and mostly slept in open-air truck stops at the mercy of the weather and other threats.

"A lot of these migrants, especially girls, return home to their families with sexually transmitted diseases," he said, adding that many of the young women who fell pregnant were unable to trace the fathers, or experienced problems with illegal abortions.

Boa said she sometimes faced “life-threatening situations like sexual harassment from men” and said she too was forced to sleep in open-air truck stops.

Dogbe said the Savannah Accelerated Development Authority (SADA), established in 2010 by the government to alleviate poverty in Ghana’s north and address the north-south youth migration, had not done much to reduce migration.

“It was supposed to provide opportunities for poor peasants, especially women, to own assets ... sustain their food crop production and protect the fragile ecosystem of the Northern Savannah Ecological Zone. But much has not been done,” he said.

He said that 80 percent of the roads in Northern Region remained impassable and farmers still did not have the necessary machines like tractors and harvesters to make their jobs easier. He added that farmers also needed soft loans to be able to purchase the right inputs and seeds.

However, Ghana’s deputy minister of

food and agriculture Ahmed Yakubu Alhassan told IPS that SADA and the Ghana Commercial Agriculture Project would ensure the region once again became Ghana’s breadbasket.

The World Bank and the U.S Agency for International Development have funded the agricultural project to the tune of 145 million dollars to develop infrastructure, such as roads and irrigation schemes, in order to improve agriculture productivity in the Accra Plains and the Northern Savannah Ecological Zone.

But until this happens Boa and her sisters will keep trying to find ways to earn a living far from home.

“Hopefully, we will work hard to save money and send some to our parents,” she said. But she and her sisters dream of having a better life and being more than just porters. They hope to be able to enroll in vocational training “such as fashion design, hair dressing to be able to earn a decent as well as sustainable income.”

## A quick guide to pitching and developing your story

### Pitching your story idea

Before you pitch your story idea:

- Do some research to support your story idea. Don’t assume your story has not been covered before;
- Talk to a few sources to get a better idea of what the story is about;
- Consider what you want to find out that will make the story.
- Ask yourself some questions
  - What is new/fresh about this story?
  - Who is your audience and why would they be interested in this story?
  - What are some of the questions you would ask sources?
  - Who are the potential sources for this story?
  - Is there a way you can complement the story, for example with graphics or fast facts as a sidebar?
  - How long will it take to develop the story?

## Pitching

- Keep it short and simple;
- Write “Pitch” plus your headline in the subject line of your email;
- Don’t send your pitch as an attachment – place it in the body of the email;
- Imagine what you would say in a 140 character tweet to tempt the reader. Consider using this as the first line (teaser) of your pitch;
- Your pitch can be one to four (short) paragraphs but never more;
- Use words that suggest something new or a problem but don’t exaggerate the truth;
- Provide a summary of your proposed sources;
- Polish your pitch – check facts, spelling, grammar and layout;
- If your pitch is timebound say so.
- Include your phone number in the email in case the editor wants to get in touch with you quickly.

## Developing the story

### Language and style

- Use simple direct language. Stories should be written in a clear concise style with simple sentence structure and short sentences;
- One idea per paragraph;
- Paragraphs should ideally be no longer than five lines;
- Think about your audience and what they would want to know;
- Decide who the face of your story will be;
- Substantiate – quote an expert in the know or a research document;
- Include descriptive scenes
- Quote a minimum of three sources. These could be:
  - the person affected by the issue;
  - the person effecting the issue;
  - an expert or independent source to shed light on the issue.

### The Lead

- The traditional lead reflects the story's most relevant aspect and should grab the readers attention.
- It should be short and the meaning must come across clearly in one reading.
- The lead can also be a way of enticing the reader to go beyond the first line -- for example, by providing only limited information.
- Avoid overly general, abstract or summary type information that sounds like a boring thesis statement.

## The Body

The lead and body must follow a logical train of thought. The body should tell the story.

## The Conclusion

- The ending should reinforce the story's essence;
- Some advice for ending the story:
  - echo and strengthen the opening;
  - save a vital fact for last;
  - provide an unexpected turn of events.

## GLOSSARY

**Adaptation:** Actions taken to help communities and ecosystems cope with changing climate conditions, such as the construction of flood walls to protect property from stronger storms and heavier precipitation, or the planting of crops and trees better suited to changing temperatures, water or soil conditions.

**Annex I countries:** Annex I is an Annex in the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change. The Annex I countries are those which committed themselves as a group to reducing their emissions of the six greenhouses gases by at least 5% below 1990 levels over a period between 2008 and 2012. Specific targets vary from country to country.

**Biomass:** In the context of energy production refers to biological (usually plant but sometimes animal-based) material processed for the express purpose of creating energy.

**Biogas:** generally refers to any gas created as a result of the breakdown of organic material without the presence of oxygen. It is an infinite (in addition to being environmentally friendly) source of energy, like wind or solar energy, and can be produced from raw materials, e.g. recycled waste.

**Common But Differentiated Responsibility (CBDR):** Emerged from principle seven of the 1992 Rio Declaration and it has two tenets. It first acknowledges the shared responsibility of humans due to our shared heritage and common struggles to divide the load of environmental protection for common resources. The second, differentiated responsibility, speaks to the different societal, material and financial settings across countries; the unequal historical contributions to current worldwide environmental concerns; and the different economic, technological and structural capacity to address these problems.

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**Comparability of Efforts:** In the area of climate change governance this roughly refers to a comparability of national domestic efforts to mitigate worldwide climate change. The idea is for countries to agree on extensive, parallel emission mitigation actions so as to avoid the “free-riding that can trigger the unraveling of global agreements” (Aldy and Pizer, 2014).

**Conditionality:** In climate finance (and within the framework of the Copenhagen Accord) involves the disbursement of funds through bilateral or multilateral institutions for particular national adaptation or mitigation activities being made on condition that the receiving country fulfill some stringent requirement or another. For instance, countries applying for funds from the Global Climate Fund (GCF) are expected to have accredited National Implementation Entities (NIEs) – among other requirements - before applications can even be considered.

**COP (UNFCCC):** The Conference of Parties (COP) is the annual meeting of the Parties to the UNFCCC. Its purpose is to assess progress towards achieving the goals of the Convention. There are 195 Parties (194 States and one regional economic integration organisation), and three observer states. Of the 195 Parties, 166 are signatories to the Convention.

**Development:** The material AND social redistribution of resources and power.

**Economies in Transition (EIT):** Economies undergoing a shift from a centrally (government or another national institution) planned financial system to a free market. This usually involves a move towards economic liberalization - where market forces dictate prices as opposed to a central authority - and an elimination of barriers to trade.

**Gender Disparity (or difference):** Occurs when women and men, girls and boys, have different access to resources, services or rights because of their gender. For example, in a number of countries women lack an independent right to own land or property, or conduct/own a business. Also, women often have less access to resources such as legal information and financial resources. While women and girls bear the most direct burden of these inequalities, inevitably the costs harm everyone in society. Among the poor, these disparities contribute to significant risk and vulnerability in the face of family or personal crisis, and during economic hardships, including those arising from climate change.

**Gender equality:** Gender equality refers to equality between women and men with respect to their treatment, opportunities, and economic and social achievements. Being equal does not mean being the same. Equality between women and men is seen both as a human rights issue and as a precondition for and indicator of sustainable development.

**Gender equity:** Fair and impartial treatment of women and men according to their respective needs. This may include equal treatment or treatment that is different but which is considered equivalent in terms of rights, benefits, obligations and opportunities. In the development context, a gender equity goal often requires built-in measures to compensate for the historical and social disadvantages of women.

**Gender-blind:** Refers to the assumption that a policy or action will have the same effect on women and men.

**Greenhouse Gas:** A gas in the atmosphere that absorbs and emits radiation; causing the greenhouse gas effect by absorbing infrared radiation produced by the Sun's heating up of the Earth's surface.

**Kyoto Protocol:** The Kyoto Protocol to the UNFCCC is an international agreement that sets mandatory commitments on industrialised countries to reduce their greenhouse gas emissions (GHGs). There are 192 parties to the agreement, including all member-states of the United Nations (except the United States, Andorra, South Sudan and Canada) and the European Union. The Protocol was adopted by UNFCCC Parties in 1997 and entered into effect in 2005.

The first commitment period of the Kyoto Protocol ended in 2012 but a milestone was reached at COP 17 in 2011 in Durban, South Africa when negotiating governments agreed to a second commitment beginning in January 2013. Governments are legally bound by the protocol to continue to limit and reduce their emissions, with this new commitment period ending in 2020.

**Least Developed Countries:** The 49 Parties classified as least developed countries (LDCs) by the United Nations are given special consideration under the Convention on account of their limited capacity to respond to climate change and adapt to its adverse effects. Parties are urged to take full account of the special situation of LDCs when considering funding and technology-transfer activities.

**Loss and Damage:** Essentially involves claims for reparations laid by developing countries on industrialised ones for "losses and irreversible damage, including non-economic losses" (obtained from G77 and China's submission to COP 19 on loss and damage) as a consequence of climate change.

**Mitigation:** Actions to emit less harmful greenhouse gases. Examples include using fossil fuels more efficiently for industrial processes or electricity generation, switching to solar energy or wind power, improving the insulation of buildings, and expanding forests and other sinks to remove greater amounts of carbon dioxide from the atmosphere.

**National Adaptation Programme of Action (NAPA):** NAPAs emerged from the UNFCCC and are

proposed activities outlined by Least Developed Countries (LDCs) to describe what they perceive are their most pressing needs for climate change adaptation. NAPAs contain summaries of priority projects that are meant to address whichever needs have been acknowledged.

**Nationally Appropriate Mitigation Action (NAMA):** refers to a collection of efforts and policies that nations embark on as part of their obligation to reduce greenhouse gas emissions. NAMA acknowledges the principle of Common But Differentiated Responsibility (CBDR) and stresses the need for financial and technical support from developed to developing countries to aid emissions reduction.

**REDD:** Stands for Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and forest Degradation.

**REDD and REDD+:** are programmes by the United Nations aimed at providing economic incentives to decrease greenhouse gas emissions resulting from deforestation and land degradation in developing countries. The basic premise is that governments, firms or forest owners (individuals, communities, companies, governments) in less developed countries should be remunerated for not cutting down forests. REDD+ is an extension of REDD and it includes the "conservation of forest carbon stocks, sustainable management of forests, and an enhancement of forest carbon stocks"

Forest carbon stocks are quantities of carbon absorbed and stored in dense forest areas. Forests absorb vast amounts of carbon dioxide emitted as a result of the burning of fossil fuels; and when there are thick forests in a geographic location, the forest can act as a carbon sink – collecting and storing the carbon instead of leaving it to circulate in the atmosphere.

REDD was initially solely geared towards reducing emissions from deforestation and land degradation but at the 2010 Cancun agreements, negotiators agreed to expand the text to include biodiversity and forest conservation, also introducing sustainable forest use and the enhancement of carbon stocks.

The 2010 Cancun agreement emphasised that REDD+ is not simply about reducing emissions but also curbing and overturning the loss of forests. It was in the Bali Action Plan that the role of conservation first emerged. The rights and knowledge of indigenous people are also supposed to be protected under REDD+ but many critics have lamented its inadequacy in achieving this.

**Sustainable development:** Defined by the Brundtland Commission as "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs."

**United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC):** An international environmental agreement negotiated at the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, in 1992. Its aim is to "stabilize greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere at a level that will prevent dangerous anthropogenic (man-made) interference with the atmosphere".

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