



TIME FOR
CLIMATE JUSTICE

CLIMATE CHANGE CAMPAIGNS TOOLKIT

TIME FOR CLIMATE JUSTICE

INTRODUCTION

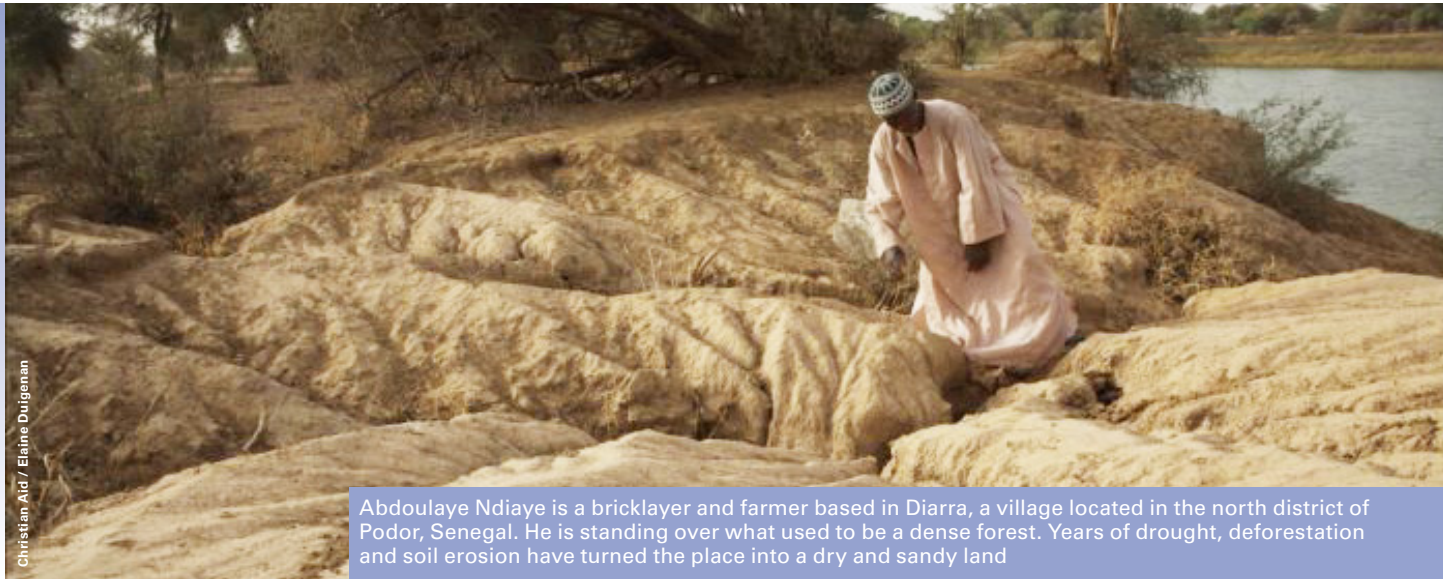


'THIS IS ONE PROBLEM WHICH IF WE DON'T RESOLVE, NO ONE IS GOING TO SURVIVE.'

Archbishop Desmond Tutu

Climate change is a global problem, but it affects different countries in different ways. However bad the consequences of climate change are for those living in relatively wealthy countries, they will be far more devastating for vulnerable people in poor countries. The consequences of climate change can be translated into a wide range of problems. Well-known examples are changes in rain patterns and an increase in droughts and floods, which have devastating impacts. If the temperature rises above 2°C, experts predict we are likely to see acute water shortages, sea levels increasing, and millions more people exposed to malaria in Africa and going hungry as agricultural yields diminish across the globe.

The worst impacts of climate change are felt in poor countries, and yet they have contributed least to causing the problem. This is an injustice. We must



Abdoulaye Ndiaye is a bricklayer and farmer based in Diarra, a village located in the north district of Podor, Senegal. He is standing over what used to be a dense forest. Years of drought, deforestation and soil erosion have turned the place into a dry and sandy land

ensure that the most vulnerable are protected from the impacts of climate change, but also that they have a right to develop and a route out of poverty. Developed countries must cut their own emissions and provide all the support necessary to ensure that poor countries can limit the growth of their emissions and develop in new, low-carbon ways.

You might be working to raise awareness of environmental issues and sustainable development; campaigning in your country to defend poor communities' right to access common goods, such as water, land, fisheries and forests; holding companies to account for a failure to respect basic environmental and labour standards; or involved in grassroots development work, including service delivery and livelihoods enhancement. In all these cases, climate change – and the associated policy responses – is

going to have a major effect on your work. **It's urgent we act now to tackle climate change because the world's poor are already suffering the effects – and they will be the most affected.**

Time for climate justice!

Climate change is a global crisis that will threaten the lives and livelihoods of hundreds of millions of poor people if it is not tackled. To address this problem we must pressure world leaders and demand climate justice. We need a fair and effective international agreement to combat climate change, and it must be agreed as soon as possible so it can enter into force when the current commitments under the Kyoto Protocol expire in 2012.

We need to push our governments to commit to action on climate change. Rich countries should commit to:



3,000 people from civil society in the Global South participate in a mass mobilisation in Bangkok during the UNFCCC intersessional talks on climate change in 2009.

- making deep and urgent cuts in their own carbon emissions (at home, not abroad) in line with keeping global warming within 2°C
- supporting and helping to pay for developing countries to reduce their emissions, develop cleanly and adapt to climate change.

We want to create a mass movement that calls on our leaders to help deliver a fair and effective climate deal at the global level. APRODEV agencies – the 17 development organisations working closely with the World Council of Churches – are working

together in Europe to generate pressure on northern governments, but it is critical that the voices from the developing countries are equally strong if we are to achieve meaningful international action.

Purpose and contents of this toolkit

The purpose of this toolkit is twofold. **Firstly, to inform the country staff of APRODEV agencies, partners and other NGOs based in the Global South of the main debates currently occurring on climate change, particularly those that have an impact on developing countries**, for example adaptation funding arrangements, the debate on the contribution

of so-called emerging economies to reduce global emissions, the legal obligations that developed countries have entered into since 1992 which have a bearing on the South, and carbon trading. The main forum for discussing and negotiating these issues is the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). **Secondly, the toolkit aims to encourage lobbying and campaign actions in the South by our partners and allied groups.** We would like southern non-governmental organisations to become much stronger voices in the international debate. They have a role to play in challenging their own governments on policy choices made at the national level – for instance around energy policy and overall development strategies – and in helping global civil society to achieve a just set of outcomes through the UN talks. We need your support.

The toolkit contains five main sections. Besides the introduction, these are:

- The science and the impacts
- The UN talks
- APRODEV's policy positions
- The Time for Climate Justice campaign
- Facilitating southern advocacy and campaigns

Hyperlinks are provided throughout the sections to make it easier for users to navigate their way around.

In addition to these sections, you will also find in the toolkit a short film for campaigners, a key sources section, a glossary, and an events calendar.

How to order copies of the toolkit

If you would like to order additional copies of this toolkit, please contact the Time for Climate Justice campaigns team at campaigns@christian-aid.org or visit www.climatejusticeonline.org

1. THE SCIENCE AND THE IMPACTS

Section contents

[What is climate change?](#)

[The scientific consensus, mitigation and adaptation](#)

[Why we need to keep warming below 2°C](#)

[The impacts on development](#)

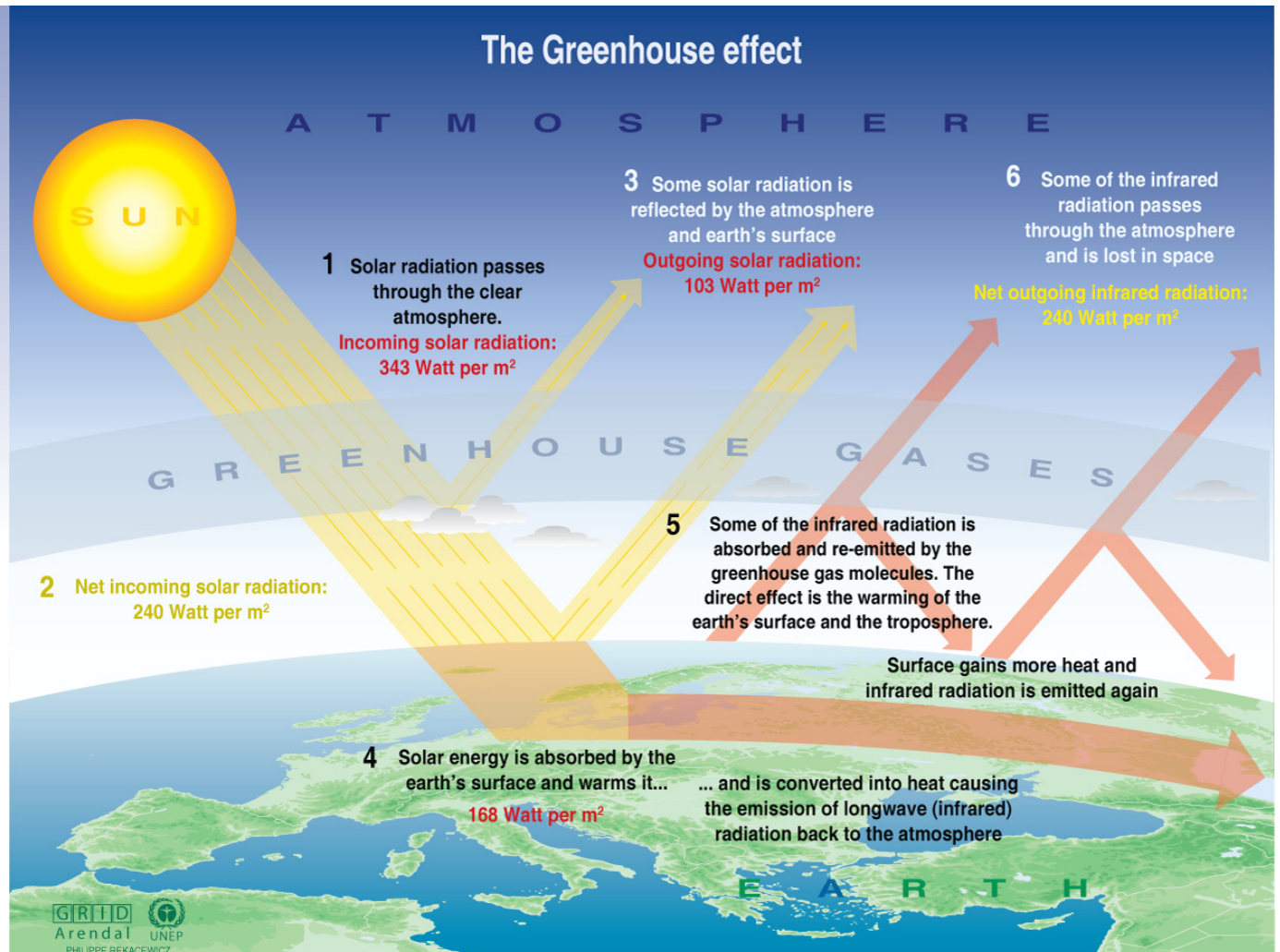


Figure 1: Global warming – a ‘thicker’ blanket of greenhouse gases traps more infrared radiation and raises temperatures¹

What is climate change?

Our climate – the average weather conditions pertaining to a particular place – is shaped by a variety of natural processes, including solar radiation, heat exchange between the oceans and the air, ocean currents, atmospheric circulation and the air's interaction with land surfaces. These processes, and the weather that they create, are dynamic. But they do follow observable patterns and cycles, which enable us to talk about 'typical' climatic conditions. ('Typical' embraces seasonal variations and even extreme weather events.)²

Anthropogenic (man-made) global warming disrupts the normal pattern of activity in our climate. To understand why this is, we first need to consider what is referred to as the 'greenhouse effect' (see figure 1). When solar radiation enters the atmosphere some of it gets reflected straight back into space, but a significant proportion reaches the surface of the Earth and heats it up. This heat is subsequently released as infrared radiation. Greenhouse gases – the major naturally occurring ones are water vapour, carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄) and ozone – trap this radiation and keep it in the atmosphere. The effect is a warming of the Earth's surface and the troposphere, known as the greenhouse effect. Without some greenhouse effect the world would be too cold to support life. But the more greenhouse gases (GHGs) in the atmosphere, the more radiation gets trapped, and the greater the warming effect.

Man-made emissions of GHGs since the beginning of the Industrial Revolution – mainly from the burning of fossil fuels for transport, industry and energy, and the clearance of forests – have pushed up dramatically the level of GHGs in the atmosphere and increased the greenhouse effect. **This has caused an unnatural warming of our atmosphere, land surfaces and oceans: between 1905 and 2005 there was a rise in the average global surface temperature of 0.74°C.** The rate of warming has accelerated in the last 50



Drought in north east Kenya in 2006: Saadiya Okash, 26, rests after walking two hours carrying water from a village that has a supply. The water is desperately needed to keep her small herd of goats alive

years and the ten hottest years on record have all occurred since 1995. **Temperatures are predicted to rise by a further 1.1-6.4°C this century, unless urgent action is taken to reduce emissions.**³

Climate change refers to the disruption of the global climate and weather system – beyond any naturally occurring cycle – due to man-made GHG emissions. Besides temperature increases, other indicators of climate change are varying rainfall patterns, more extreme weather events (for example storms, floods, droughts and heat waves), sea-level rise, rapidly changing seasons, ocean acidification and glacial melting. These changes are already having and will have important socio-economic effects – see 'The impacts on development' below.

These impacts will vary across the globe. For instance, land surfaces will heat up more quickly than the sea, and high latitudes, particularly the Arctic, will see larger temperature increases.⁴ It is very likely that rainfall will increase in high latitudes and a good chance that it will decrease in subtropical land regions (by as much as 20 per cent by 2100 in some scenarios).⁵ But there will also be variations *within* countries – **this can make it difficult to present a single national picture for the likely impacts of climate change.**

The scientific consensus, mitigation and adaptation

The UN assembles a panel of leading climate scientists – known as the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) – every six years to

Overheating the earth: man-made greenhouse gases

Industrial development has been largely founded on the energy unlocked by burning fossil fuels, which release large amounts of carbon dioxide (CO₂). Arguably CO₂ is the most politically significant of the greenhouse gases GHGs because it makes up a majority of human GHG emissions and is intrinsically tied up with our energy production and economies. While emissions of some other GHGs have to some extent slowed, CO₂ emissions seem to be increasing at an ever-faster rate.

Human sources of GHGs include:

- burning of fossil fuels such as coal, oil and natural gas for electricity, heating and transport etc (mostly producing CO₂)
- land-use change, for example clearing forest and other vegetation unlocks its stored carbon, and there can be significant CO₂ and CH₄ stored in soils and peat
- other industrial processes, such as cement production, aluminium production, and the release of industrial coolant gases (producing various GHGs, depending on the process)
- other agricultural processes, such as farming of livestock, rice paddies, production and use of chemical fertilisers etc (producing CH₄ and nitrous oxide (N₂O), but also CO₂).

survey the latest papers and studies on climate change. This is often described as the global scientific consensus on climate change, not because it represents 'new' science but rather because it is an analysis of what the science to date is saying as agreed across a wide and respected group of scientists.

Warning signs

'The Arctic is often cited as the canary in the coalmine for global warming... and now... the canary has died.' Jay Zwally, NASA scientist⁸

One important measure of global warming is the rate of melting of polar ice. The minimum extent of sea ice in the Arctic during the summer has already fallen from around 9 million square kilometres in the 1960s to around 6 million now. This represents a drop by a third in as little as 40 years.⁹ This rapid melting is one sign that global warming could be happening at a faster rate than scientists previously predicted.

Unlike the melting of land ice in Greenland and Antarctica, the melting of seaborne ice does not in itself present an immediate danger to human well-being because it does not contribute to sea-level rise. However, it is an important sign of trends in the climate, and recent studies have led some scientists to conclude that summer ice loss may already have crossed or be close to crossing the point of no return.¹⁰

In its fourth assessment of climate science, published in 2007, **the IPCC reported unequivocally that the world was warming. It also said that human activity is 'very likely' – more than 90 per cent certain – to be the primary cause.** This report – as quoted below – confirmed that the vast majority of scientific investigations showed the link between GHG levels and global temperatures.

[Warming of the climate system is unequivocal, as is now evident from observations of increases in global average air and ocean temperatures, widespread melting of snow and ice, and rising global average sea level.](#)⁶

Levels of GHGs, such as CO₂, are considerably higher than at anytime in the last 650,000 years – the period for which reliable data exists.⁷ Recent observations

Positive feedbacks

One of the worries of climate science is that some impacts of global warming actually increase the warming effect. For example, global warming will increasingly cause:

- loss of major ice sheets, which means not as much solar radiation is reflected, leading to increased warming
- loss of forests (due to the disruption of forest ecosystems), which releases significant carbon stocks, increasing the greenhouse effect
- melting of permafrost, which releases methane, another greenhouse gas.

These positive feedbacks have the potential to increase dramatically the rate of global warming.

from the Mauna Loa Observatory in Hawaii indicate that in 2008 there were 387 parts per million (ppm) of CO₂ in the atmosphere, compared to 278ppm in pre-industrial times. As mentioned above, the rising levels of GHGs in the atmosphere have steadily pushed up global temperatures.

The only permanent solution to human-induced climate change is for the world's biggest economies to cut back on their GHG emissions by enough to halt a dangerous level of warming. This process is termed **mitigation**. It is about dealing with the cause of climate change. Examples of it are:

- reducing the burning of fossil fuels (oil, gas and coal) for heating, transport and electricity and switching instead to renewable energy sources, such as wind, solar and hydro

Worsening impacts

If GHG emissions go unchecked and global warming continues, the effects on the planet in 20, 40 or 90 years will be even more severe. For example, the IPCC predicts the following impacts for different sectors and regions.¹³

Food security

- In semi-arid and arid developing countries, even a relatively small temperature change (1-2°C) could reduce crop productivity and increase the risk of hunger.
- In parts of Africa, the area suitable for agriculture, the length of the growing season and crop yield would all be reduced.
- In Asia, a 30 per cent drop in crop yield would occur in central and south Asia by 2050.
- In Latin America, drier areas will experience a significant drop in crop and livestock yields.
- Fish stocks will be further diminished due to the warming and acidification of the seas.

Freshwater access

- Around 50 per cent of the world's surface could be vulnerable to drought by 2100.
- In Africa, 75 to 250 million people will be affected by water shortages by 2020.

- In Asia, freshwater in large river basins will decrease, affecting water supply of more than one billion people by 2050.

Health

- Malnutrition will rise.
- A greater number of deaths, diseases and injury will result from extreme weather events (heat waves, floods, storms, droughts, etc).
- The incidence of diarrhoea, primarily associated with contaminated water supplies during floods and droughts, will increase.
- Changes in spatial distribution of some infectious diseases, including malaria, could reduce deaths in some areas while increasing risk of infection in others.

Forests

- Increased frequency of forest fires and pests will impact on forestry.
- By 2050, tropical forest will be gradually replaced by savannah in the eastern Amazon area, with some predictions of much more severe degradation of the Amazon rainforest by 2100.

At the same time countries will need to follow strategies to protect their populations and infrastructure from the various effects of climate change. This process is termed **adaptation**. [Adaptation is needed urgently because the climate is already changing \(due to past emissions\)](#). The level and type of adaptation we will have to do in future will depend on the future level of warming, which

in turn will depend on how much – or how little – mitigation we do. If we fail to take steps to lower our GHG emissions, it is likely that for many populations adaptation will cease to be a viable option because temperature rises and the related weather effects would become too great for them to cope. See 'Adaptation in developing countries' in 'APRODEV's policy positions', for examples of adaptation.

Why we need to keep warming below 2°C

As mentioned above, the rise in global temperatures is directly linked to the increasing levels of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere. The concentration of CO₂ in the atmosphere in 2008 stood at 387ppm. A safe stabilisation level lies somewhere between 350 and 375ppm.¹¹ The IPCC reports that if we stabilise CO₂ in the atmosphere at 400ppm – a limit often referred to by governments – the risk of exceeding a 2°C rise in the average global temperature (compared to pre-industrial times) is still greater than 50 per cent and perhaps more than 70 per cent.¹²

An increase of 2°C is widely accepted as the most global temperatures could increase by before the effects start to take on a new level of concern. A paper co-written by Christian Aid highlighted the importance of this 2°C limit:

[Once temperature increase rises above 2°C, up to 4 billion people could be experiencing growing water shortages. Agriculture could cease to be viable in parts of the world, particularly in the tropics, and millions more people will be at risk of hunger. This rise in temperature could see 40-60 million more people exposed to malaria in Africa.](#)¹⁴

To avoid these catastrophic effects, Christian Aid argues that global warming should be stabilised at as low a level as possible – and certainly well below the 2°C target. Based on IPCC figures, and on work by the Potsdam Institute for Climate Impact Research and others, we believe the world should aim

Controversies in the science

While the case for climate change is one of the most investigated and mapped questions in modern science it has not been free of controversy – often instigated and magnified by the ‘climate sceptics’ or ‘climate deniers’.

One such controversy was sparked by the theft and selective publication in 2009 of private emails belonging to the climate research unit of the University of East Anglia in the UK. Although no serious questions about the basic climate science were raised by the incident, there was clear evidence in the emails of the reluctance of UEA scientists to share their data, (unsuccessful) attempts by them to block what they saw as poor science and a hostility towards climate deniers.

Months later, the admission by the IPCC that it had wrongly asserted in a subsection of its 4th Assessment Report that Himalayan glaciers could largely disappear by 2035 grabbed headlines around the world, despite the fact that the report also contained detailed and extremely well substantiated evidence of the dramatic retreat of the Himalayan glaciers.

These incidents highlight that climate scientists do sometimes make mistakes and these can detract from

the credibility of the story they have to tell. When there is a small group of climate deniers who are only too keen to discredit the science – using a mixture of dirty tricks, salesmanship and inaccurate representation of scientific views – it is all the more important to emphasise the detailed and conclusive nature of the evidence on climate change.

Some of the key attacks on the climate change science are:

- **‘The world isn’t warming’** – this has been particularly common message in response to a cold and snowy winter in parts of Europe and North America in 2009/10. However, it is a mistake to try and judge a decades-long effect on average climatic conditions on the basis of any particular year, or even a handful of years. The evidence of the warming trend is clear from temperature records, and can also be seen in analysis of how the natural environment has changed in response to temperatures. The warming of the last 50 years is unprecedented in at least the last 1,300 years, and probably for several millennia.
- **‘The warming has other causes’** – there have been regular attempts to suggest that temperature

changes might be due to natural cycles, volcanic eruptions, increasing urbanisation or sunspots and solar flare activity. These and other factors do affect the local and global temperatures in different ways – but this is included in the analysis of climate science, which still finds clear evidence for a warming trend for which the only clear explanation is the warming caused by man-made greenhouse gases.

- **‘People don’t put out enough greenhouse gases to have an effect’** – it is true both that there are a number of sources of greenhouse gases, natural and man-made, and that these gases are a relatively small portion of the atmosphere. But these gases exert a major influence on our climate – without them our planet would be some 30°C cooler – and man has made a significant impact on them – for instance, the concentration of CO₂ in the atmosphere has increased by more than a third due to human activity.

There is no shortage of websites covering climate change science and the debate that surrounds it. For some of the best, see our list of key web sources at the back of this toolkit.

for a maximum stabilisation level of 375ppm. This, according to the IPCC Fourth Assessment Report, carries a much lower risk – less than 20 per cent – of exceeding 2°C.¹⁵

To ensure warming does not exceed 2°C, **global emissions must peak no later than 2015, return to around 1990 levels by 2020 and be reduced to around 80 per cent of 1990 levels by 2050.**¹⁶ The bulk of modelling supports this level of action. This kind of global transformation means business-as-usual is no longer an option.

Much of the scientific analysis has focused on this two degree figure as a line in the sand to avoid the worst impacts of climate change, and this target has then been reflected in the stated objectives of major developed countries. However, many developing countries argue that this is too weak a target. For many of the poorest countries who are already experiencing significant climate related impacts, the consequences that come with a two degree average global increase in temperature will be catastrophic. This is why those countries are calling for tighter targets of keeping warming below 1.5°C or even 1°C.

It is certainly true that dangerous climate change is already here with current levels of warming and any increases will mean unnecessary deaths and damage in vulnerable countries.

The impacts on development

Climate change is a core development issue because we are all dependent on our climate for survival – for instance, it allows us to grow the food we need to eat to survive. Populations in developing countries are more sensitive to the effects of climate change because poverty is more widespread and there is



Christian Aid/Mohammadur Rahman

Already vulnerable due to poverty and a fragile environment, riverbank communities in Bangladesh are being placed at even greater risk as climate change takes its toll across the country. The rate of river erosion is reportedly increasing, partly as a result of the effects of climate change on river flow, water salinity, storms and rain patterns

not the money or the structures to cope. Even small changes in the climate will have big impacts on how many people go hungry, fall victim to disease or are short of water (to cite just a few examples). Climate change also has the potential to undermine existing development efforts. For example, a country may have built flood or sea defences only to find that they are rendered useless by worsening floods or rising sea-levels; or it may have built wells that can no longer function due to a fall in precipitation and the water table; or recent gains in the health and education sectors could be affected by increased food and water scarcity. **In this sense climate change is an 'umbrella' issue, showing its effects across many different sectors.**

It is also an issue of justice because poor countries

are suffering the effects of climate change, even though they have done little, if anything, to cause the problem. (The responsibility of wealthier, industrialised nations to tackle climate change and its effects is discussed in later sections.)

It is crucial to stress that many of the impacts of climate change are already visible around the world. For example, average global temperatures rose steadily in the second half of the twentieth century, rainfall patterns have changed, glaciers have retreated and the weather has become more extreme. While there is still some debate about whether all of these changes can be attributed to global warming, it is true to say that **climate change is already affecting poor people's lives in important ways.** Community-level research, carried out by Christian Aid partners

and staff, along with other sources, strongly suggests the impacts are occurring now.¹⁷

- In the Indian state of **West Bengal**, farmers report that there are now only three distinct seasons instead of six. Winters are getting shorter and warmer, spring has 'disappeared' and summers are hotter (above 35°C) and longer. It is raining on fewer days in the year, including during the monsoon months. When the monsoon comes, the rain is continuous, which means that farmers cannot work in their fields for a part of the day as they did previously.
- In **northeast Brazil**, droughts are becoming longer and more frequent, according to scientists and farmers. In the past 30 years temperatures have risen by 1°C. Rainfall has become more sporadic, making it harder for farmers to know when to plant their crops. It also comes in heavier downpours, which can damage crops and cause flooding.
- In **northern Kenya**, drought has increased four-fold in the past 25 years. Nomadic, pastoralist communities living in the arid and semi-arid regions have been hardest hit. The devastating drought in 2005 led to a massive loss of herds, reducing farmers' already-scarce assets.
- In coastal areas of **Bangladesh**, communities are facing more intense cyclones, loss of land to river erosion and sea-level rise, and saltwater contamination of freshwater sources due to climate change. (In this context, climate change has exacerbated existing climatic hazards, such as cyclones and river erosion.) Many thousands of people have already been uprooted from their homes and farmland because of erosion and inundation by the sea.
- In **Tajikistan**, at current rates of change, thousands of small glaciers will have disappeared completely



Christian Aid / Hannah Richards

Miguelina Colque is the executive secretary of the Domestic Workers Federation in Bolivia. Here she sits in front of Chacaltaya, a peak which used to be the highest ski slope in the world. By 2015 it will be snow-free, which will reduce supplies of water for farming and household use

by 2050, and in **Peru**, temperature increases have led to a 22 per cent reduction in the total area of its glaciers in the last 35 years. In both cases, there could be severe freshwater shortages after the ice has disappeared.

Another indicator of current impacts is the number of **hydro-meteorological disasters** (essentially floods and storms) occurring globally. These disasters have been growing annually at a rate of 8.4 per cent since 2000.¹⁸ It is highly probable that climate change is one of the causes.

Developing countries are particularly at risk because of their lower financial and institutional capacity to adapt, the high dependence of their economies on the

agriculture and fishing sectors, and the fact that poor people in these countries are more exposed to natural disasters by virtue of where and how they live.¹⁹

Endnotes

- 1 <http://maps.grida.no> Sources: Department of Geography, Okanagan University College in Canada; School of Geography, University of Oxford; United States Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), Washington; 'The science of climate change', Working Group 1 Report in *Climate Change 1995*, IPCC Second Assessment Report, IPCC, 1996.
- 2 www.metoffice.gov.uk/climatechange/guide/keyfacts/understanding.html
- 3 Temperature figures from 'The physical science basis', Working Group I Report, in *Climate Change 2007*, IPCC Fourth Assessment Report, IPCC, 2007.
- 4 UK Met Office, www.metoffice.gov.uk/climatechange/guide/effects/high-end.html
- 5 'The physical science basis', Working Group I Report, in *Climate Change 2007*, IPCC Fourth Assessment Report, IPCC, 2007, pp.15-16.
- 6 'The physical science basis', Working Group I Report, in *Climate Change 2007*, IPCC Fourth Assessment Report, IPCC, 2007.
- 7 A Neftel, E Moor, H Oeschger and B Stauffer, 'Evidence from polar ice cores for the increase in atmospheric CO₂ in the past two centuries', *Nature*, 315 (45-47), 2 May 1985, www.nature.com/nature/journal/v315/n6014/abs/315045a0.html
- 8 D Sprat and P Sutton, *Climate Code Red: the Case for Emergency Action*, 2008.
- 9 See analysis of UK Met office data by *The Guardian*, available here: <http://www.guardian.co.uk/news/datablog/2010/mar/05/arctic-sea-ice-climate-change-visualisation>
- 10 Timothy M Lenton, Hermann Held, Elmar Kriegler et al, 'Tipping elements in the earth's climate system', *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 12 February 2008, 105 (6), pp1786-1793. This paper's authors study literature on several indicators of warming and, with regard to Arctic sea ice, conclude that '... a summer ice-loss threshold [tipping point], if not already passed, may be very close and transition could occur well within this century'.
- 11 Hansen, J., Mki. Sato, P. Kharecha, D. Beerling, R. Berner, V. Masson-Delmotte, M. Pagani, M. Raymo, D.L. Royer, and J.C. Zachos, 2008, 'Target atmospheric CO₂: Where should humanity aim?', *Open Atmospheric Science Journal*, 2, pp217-231.
- 12 'Mitigation of Climate Change', Working Group III Report, in *Climate Change 2007*, IPCC Fourth Assessment Report, IPCC, 2007. IPCC in fact consider values for CO₂ and its equivalents. The value as expressed in the Fourth Assessment Report is 450ppm CO₂e, rather than 400ppm CO₂.
- 13 'Impacts, Adaptation and Vulnerability', Working Group II Report, in *Climate Change 2007*, IPCC Fourth Assessment Report, IPCC, 2007.
- 14 *Two Degrees, One Chance: The Urgent Need to Curb Global Warming*, Tearfund, Christian Aid, Practical Action and Oxfam briefing paper, 2007, p1.
- 15 Ibid, and M Meinshausen, 'What does a 2°C target mean for greenhouse gas concentrations? A brief analysis based on multi-gas emission pathways and several climate sensitivity uncertainty estimates,' in J S Schellnhuber, W Cramer, N Nakicenovic et al, *Avoiding Dangerous Climate Change*, Cambridge University Press, 2006. More recently, see, Martin Parry, Jean Palutikof, Clair Hanson et al, 'Squaring up to reality', 'Nature reports climate change', www.nature.com/climate/2008/0806/full/climate.2008.50.html
- 16 For information on how this emissions 'trajectory' was calculated, see *Truly Inconvenient: Tackling Poverty and Climate Change at Once*, Christian Aid policy paper, 2007.
- 17 See *The human face of climate change*, Christian Aid report, 2007
- 18 www.emdat.be/Documents/Publications/Annual%20Disaster%20Statistical%20Review%202007.pdf
- 19 For example, low-quality housing may offer less protection during a storm or flood, or the land on which a poor person lives may be more exposed to natural disasters.

2. THE UN TALKS



Members of the Pan Africa Climate Justice Alliance join Countdown to Copenhagen campaigners inside the UN talks during the COP15, warning rich countries that killing the Kyoto Protocol threatens the lives of millions of poor people in Africa

Climate change is a global problem and as such it requires a global response. The major polluting countries will need to put aside short-term, economic self-interest if the response is to be effective. And all countries will have to agree on a method for sharing out the costs of reducing GHG emissions and adapting to global warming because not all countries have equal responsibility for the problem.

The United Nations (UN) talks on climate change are not the only possibility for action, but they are the most credible, legitimate and established route for achieving a global solution.

Understanding the UNFCCC and Kyoto

In June 1992, states came together at the UN Rio Earth Summit to sign the United Nations Framework

Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). The UNFCCC sets out a legal framework for tackling climate change caused by man-made emissions of greenhouse gases. It has a clear overarching goal of preventing dangerous climate change in such a way as to 'to allow ecosystems to adapt naturally to climate change, to ensure that food production is not threatened and to enable economic development to proceed in a sustainable manner'.

The convention deals both with mitigation and adaptation issues and has been signed by 192 countries.¹ Annual conferences of the parties (COPs) are held to discuss the implementation of the UNFCCC and new measures to combat climate change. The COP meeting in Copenhagen (COP 15) at the end of 2009 failed to deliver a fair and ambitious global deal for climate change as many campaigners

Section contents

[Understanding the UNFCCC and Kyoto](#)

[Carbon trading](#)

[The adaptation funds and NAPAs](#)

[Assessing progress since 1992](#)

[From Bali to Copenhagen](#)

[Looking beyond Copenhagen](#)

demanded. After Copenhagen it is more important than ever to campaign for climate justice and redouble pressure for action on all governments, but especially those in industrialised countries.

This section discusses what is at stake in the UN talks and is usefully read together with the section on 'APRODEV's policy positions', which identifies what the talks could deliver that is in line with ideas of climate justice. Details of confirmed upcoming meetings can be found at: http://unfccc.int/meetings/unfccc_calendar/items/2655.php

Some of the key points in the UNFCCC are:²

- the overall objective is to cut greenhouse gas emissions with the objective of preserving ecosystems, protecting food production and safeguarding sustainable development (article 2)
- all parties have a duty to pursue the goal of sustainable development (article 3.4)
- **all parties have a responsibility to address climate change, but developed countries have a *greater* responsibility due to their higher emissions historically and greater wealth: actions should be 'in accordance with their common but differentiated responsibilities and respective capabilities' (article 3.1)**
- developed countries, referred to as Annex 1 (see box '[Key negotiating blocs and country groupings in the UNFCCC negotiations](#)' below), should take the lead in reducing emissions (articles 4.2a and 3.1); and they must regularly report back on their progress (article 4.2b)
- Annex 2 developed countries (Annex 2 is a sub-set of Annex 1; see '[Key negotiating blocs and country groupings in the UNFCCC negotiations](#)' box below) must give financial support to developing countries so that the latter

can prepare 'national communications'³ on climate change and undertake mitigation efforts (articles 4.3 and 12.1, but also see article 4.1 for a description of the mitigation efforts)⁴

- Annex 2 developed countries must 'facilitate and finance... the transfer of, or access to, environmentally sound technologies and know-how to other parties, particularly developing-country parties, to enable them to implement the provisions of the convention' (article 4.5)
- Annex 2 developed countries 'shall also assist the developing-country parties that are particularly vulnerable to the adverse effects of climate change in meeting costs of adaptation...' (article 4.4; see also article 3.1)
- efforts by developing countries are contingent on the above commitments being delivered by developed countries. Moreover 'economic and social development and poverty eradication are the first and overriding priorities of the developing-country parties' (article 4.7).

The Kyoto Protocol – agreed at COP3 in 1997 but only coming into force in 2005 – is an addition to the UNFCCC. It sets legally binding targets for emissions reductions by Annex 1 states (non-Annex 1 countries can also sign. The United States is the only Annex 1 country still to ratify the Kyoto Protocol). These targets amount to an average reduction of five per cent against 1990 levels over the five-year period 2008-2012: the first 'commitment period'. The UNFCCC secretariat based in Bonn, Germany, states: 'The major distinction between the protocol and the convention is that while the convention encouraged industrialised countries to stabilise GHG emissions, the protocol commits them to do so.'⁵ The annual COP meetings also serve as the Meeting of the Parties to the Kyoto Protocol (where the implementation of the Kyoto Protocol is discussed).

Carbon trading

Under the protocol, countries must meet their targets primarily through national measures. However, a system of international carbon trading was also established by the protocol. Each Annex 1 country can emit GHGs equivalent to a defined number of emissions units. If a country's emissions exceed the permitted units for the 2008-12 period, it can purchase them from a country that is below its target (and hence has spare units to sell). This type of trading goes on between Annex 1 countries. It is not specified in the protocol how much of a country's target can be met in this way; it simply states that reductions must be made primarily at home.

Another trading mechanism, the Clean Development Mechanism (CDM), was also set up under the protocol. CDM enables Annex 1 countries to meet some of their reduction targets by funding projects in developing countries (usually in industry and the energy sector) that reduce GHG emissions. According to the secretariat, in 2006 the global carbon market was worth US\$30 billion.⁶

The CDM suffers from a number of major problems. The main one is that it gives polluters in Europe and elsewhere a loophole for avoiding cutting *their* emissions. In the short-term it is easier for companies and countries to finance overseas clean-energy projects than to make the costly adjustments to how they operate at home. But the latter is what is needed if we are to make a real dent on emissions. Among the other flaws in the mechanism at present are concerns about how many projects result in emissions reductions that are actually 'additional' (ie some projects would still have taken place even without CDM finance), the limited scale of these projects (for example, they rarely fund wind- and solar-power projects), the broader environmental and social impacts of projects, and a lack of transparency in the CDM credit market.

Key negotiating blocs and country groupings in the UNFCCC negotiations

Annex 1 countries – so called as they are listed in Annex 1 of the UNFCCC. Annex 1 is a list of the 40 industrialised countries (developed countries and transition economies) that have to take on binding mitigation commitments.

Annex 2 countries – mentioned less often than Annex 1 countries, this is a sub-set of Annex 1, listing 23 developed countries, which on top of their Annex 1 mitigation commitments also have to take on finance commitments.

Umbrella group – a loose coalition of non-EU developed countries, including the US, Australia, Canada and Japan. Often play a blocking role in the negotiations.

EU – the 27 countries of the European Union, represented by a rotating presidency. Often the loudest voice amongst developed countries for strong mitigation commitments, but currently reluctant to engage on finance issues.

Non-Annex 1 countries – any countries not listed in Annex 1, essentially developing countries although also includes some countries with relatively high gross domestic product per capita such as Singapore, South Korea and many of the Gulf states.

G77 and China – the largest single bloc, including 130 mostly developing countries. A very powerful voice in the talks. Particularly concerned with strong finance and technology provision, as well as overall equity.

AOSIS – Association of Small Island States. A strong voice for strong mitigation action as the very existence of some states is threatened by rising sea levels caused by climate change.

LDCs – the 48 least-developed countries, as per UN definition. Represented in the negotiations by Bangladesh. Generally particularly concerned with adaptation finance.

African group – the African states negotiate jointly.

OPEC – the cartel of oil-producing nations. Concerned about potentially shrinking oil revenues due to action on climate change.

The Environmental Integrity Group – a grouping of countries from both Annex 1 and non-Annex 1, including Switzerland, South Korea and Mexico. Keen to push for a successful and effective deal.

Note: Some countries are members of more than one grouping.

fund currently is the Adaptation Fund. This fund became operational in 2009, although it is not yet disbursing money. It receives finance from a levy on the proceeds of the CDM. (This tax will be two per cent of the monetary value of the emissions-reduction units issued for a CDM project.) In 2007, an Adaptation Fund Board was created to manage the Adaptation Fund, directly answerable to the COP. The fund and the board have different institutional arrangements to the other UNFCCC adaptation funds, which should give developing

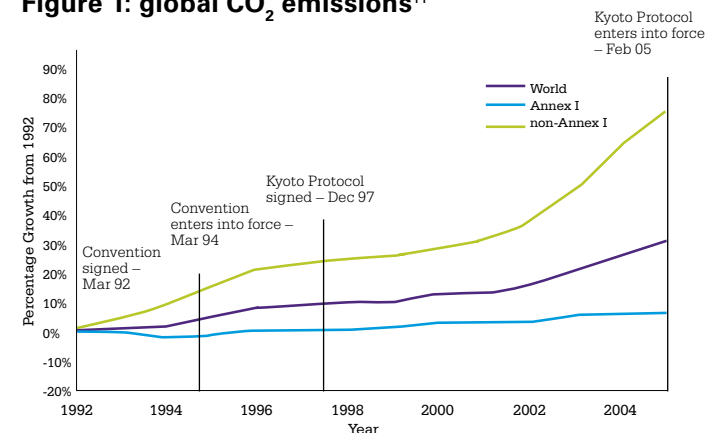
countries a greater say in how money from the fund is spent.⁷

COP 7 also set out guidelines for National Adaptation Programmes of Action (NAPAs). These documents are an opportunity for least-developed countries (LDCs) to identify the most urgent priorities for adaptation. So far 44 LDCs have submitted NAPAs to the UN.⁸

Assessing progress since 1992

It is 17 years since Rio, yet countries have still not taken decisive action to prevent global warming. As figure 1 (below) shows, global CO₂ emissions grew by approximately one-third between 1992 and 2005.⁹

Figure 1: global CO₂ emissions¹¹



The Kyoto Protocol has at least provided a legal framework under which states are required to reduce emissions. However, **its targets are too weak to make a significant impact on global warming and it looks like they will be missed by a number of high-emitters**, including Japan, Canada and Australia. Moreover, the US – the world’s second-largest emitter of CO₂ – has still not ratified the treaty, and the penalties for countries who do not meet their targets still remain to be spelt out.

The adaptation funds and NAPAs

At COP 7 in Marrakesh in 2001 a decision was taken to create three separate funds to assist developing countries with adaptation: the Adaptation Fund, the Special Climate Change Fund and the Least-Developed Country Fund.

These funds have failed so far to deliver adequate funding to developing countries (see also ‘Financing action in developing countries’ in ‘APRODEV’s policy positions’ section). The most politically important



Campaigning at the Copenhagen summit in December 2009: Mohamed Adow and Nelson Muffuh from Christian Aid meet with Hon Awudu Mbaya, president of the Pan African Parliamentarians network on climate change, to try to influence African strategy in the climate talks

Many European Union (EU) countries are on track to meet their Kyoto targets, and in fact some have already achieved them. However other EU countries are still a long way off, and the EU as a whole is likely to meet the eight per cent reduction it has to deliver only through some buying in of credits from emissions trading, the CDM, and through planting forests to act as carbon sinks.¹⁰

What is clear is that much deeper cuts will be needed – going far beyond the existing Kyoto targets – if dangerous global warming is to be halted. Tougher mandatory targets (and their delivery) for Annex I countries would also instil confidence among developing country governments of the North’s intention to move beyond ‘business as usual’. Despite the commitments entered into in the UNFCCC, very little financial assistance has been provided to the developing world for mitigation and adaptation, and progress on technology transfer has been slow. There is also considerable concern

that carbon trading is merely delaying the costly, but nonetheless urgently needed, emissions cuts in developed world economies. **A credibility gap has therefore emerged between the rhetoric of governments – anxious to convince their publics that firm action is being taken on climate change – and the reality.**

From Bali to Copenhagen

The failure of developed countries to meet their legal obligation to lead efforts against climate change has left the world in a perilous state. The latest science implies global emissions must peak in the next six years if we are to have a chance to manage our way out of avoiding catastrophic climate change. The world is already warming, with negative impacts visible in poor communities.

As the alarm bells sounded over global warming, countries came back to the table in Bali, Indonesia, at the end of 2007, to agree the launch of a new set

Bali Action Plan

In Bali, in 2007, it was agreed that two negotiating tracks would be followed in order to arrive at a post-2012 agreement:

- Negotiations on what long-term global action must be taken (including by countries not bound by the Kyoto Protocol, for example the US and major emerging economies), what finances would be available for developing countries and what mechanisms should be used to deliver the resources. This track was termed “Long-term Co-operative Action” (LCA).
- Negotiations on a new commitment period under the Kyoto Protocol with new post-2012 emissions reduction targets.

This formula allowed negotiations to continue on new commitments under Kyoto, whilst also including actions from the US who would not sign up to Kyoto and dealing with other areas of lack of action like finance for developing countries.

But throughout 2009 there was disagreement on whether two separate agreements should be signed – on LCA and an extension to Kyoto (the preference of most developing countries) – or whether a single agreement was needed (the preference of the US, and supported by most developed countries).

In the end, of course, no deal was done at COP15 but this issue of the future relationship of a new deal to the existing UN treaties remains.

of negotiations. These negotiations came under the remit of the Bali Action Plan, which called on Parties ‘to urgently enhance implementation of the Convention’ (see box). This was a major

The Copenhagen Accord

The key components of the Copenhagen Accord include:

- A reference to the importance of staying below 2°C warming, and potentially reviewing and strengthening this target according to the science.
- Specific pledges of emissions cuts towards this goal are to be submitted by individual countries – both developed and developing.
- Importance of ‘measuring, reporting and verifying’ mitigation steps by all countries and financing efforts by developed countries. This includes a significant compromise by developing countries on international scrutiny of their domestic actions.
- Importance of reducing emissions from deforestation emphasised.
- Call for enhanced international co-operation on adaptation.
- Importance of adequate, predictable and reliable

funding from developed countries to developing countries for adaptation. Assistance particularly for least developed countries, small island states and Africa.

- Developed countries will provide to developing countries funds for adaptation and mitigation ‘approaching \$30 billion for the period 2010 to 2012’. There is also a goal of mobilising \$100 billion a year by 2020.
- The establishment of the Copenhagen Green Climate Fund, through which a portion of these funds will be channelled.
- Setting up of a High Level Panel to explore potential sources of revenue.

It is unclear how many of these goals will be reached as the accord has little, if any, international legal status to set up new institutions and systems.

For information on different countries’ responses to the Copenhagen Accord, go to: <http://unfccc.int/home/items/5262.php>

win for developing country negotiators as many industrialised countries wanted to completely renegotiate the convention and the Kyoto Protocol.

The Bali Action Plan talks were scheduled to finish in Copenhagen in December 2009 to give developed countries time to adopt new targets under the Kyoto Protocol in 2012, when the first round of targets will finish. However, the two years of negotiations from Bali to Copenhagen were fraught and ill-tempered. Whilst the US re-entered negotiations after years of refusing to accept the case for international action on climate change, it is still unwilling to take on actions

appropriate to its size and wealth. Similarly, most developed countries have been reluctant to take on adequate emissions reduction targets and have argued that countries like India and China should also take on legally-binding commitments, shifting the burden of action on to developing countries.

Such a deal would not adequately take into account the different levels of development and historic responsibility for climate change between developed and developing countries. Unsurprisingly, developing countries strongly resisted the demands of rich countries and instead pressed for rich countries

to agree to new and tougher Kyoto targets in a second commitment period and to provide adequate finance to support developing countries’ actions. In the end, Copenhagen failed to achieve agreement and the main outcome of note was a weak political declaration known as ‘The Copenhagen Accord’ drawn up in backroom negotiations between a small group of heads of state and government.

The intention was that this accord would be adopted or endorsed through a decision of the COP. However, the exclusive nature and questionable mandate of these backroom negotiations meant that the accord did not have the support of all parties and a few developing countries took a stand against it when formal negotiations resumed. The result was that the conference only ‘noted’ and did not officially endorse the Copenhagen Accord. Parties to the UNFCCC are allowed to ‘associate themselves’ with the accord, and many have since done so, but many have not.

Since it was not adopted by the COP, the precise legal status of the accord is unclear, and developing countries argue that negotiations should go forward on the basis of the Bali Action Plan and not the accord. Most, if not all, developing countries were deeply unhappy with the accord, but some saw it as the only way forward and have supported it on that basis alone.

Looking beyond Copenhagen

With the failure of Copenhagen there is more urgency than ever to find a fair and effective solution to climate change. The world has changed since Kyoto was agreed in 1997, and rich countries cannot hope to dictate terms to developing countries in ways they might have done previously.

Part of the new reality is that negotiators will have to find a way to resolve a seemingly intractable dilemma: **developing countries need leeway to increase their emissions in the coming decades**

as part of their development strategy, but the science tells us that emissions in the South will also have to be cut in future if dangerous warming is to be averted. Emissions in India, China, Brazil, South Africa and other emerging economies have increased substantially in recent years – for example, in 2006 China overtook the US as the largest emitter of CO₂ (although of course it also has the world's largest population).¹³

A framework therefore needs to be agreed, via the international talks, that enables the global burden of emissions cuts to be shared fairly, according to the convention's principle of 'common but differentiated responsibility'. Such a framework – Greenhouse Development Rights – is presented in the next section on APRODEV's policy positions.

Endnotes

- 1 http://unfccc.int/essential_background/convention/items/2627.php
- 2 <http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/convkp/conveng.pdf>
- 3 National communications are reports by the governments containing information on national GHG emissions (including sectoral breakdowns) and national measures to combat climate change.
- 4 How much of the cost of mitigation measures they should meet is not clear from the convention text: it simply states that developed countries should meet the 'agreed full incremental costs of implementing measures that are covered by paragraph 1 of this article'.
- 5 http://unfccc.int/kyoto_protocol/items/2830.php
- 6 http://unfccc.int/kyoto_protocol/mechanisms/items/1673.php
- 7 The fund will be managed by the Adaptation Fund Board and not the Global Environment Facility (GEF), as is the case with the other funds. It is also hoped that contributions by developed countries will be binding according to the formula of 'responsibility and capability' and therefore not voluntary.
- 8 http://unfccc.int/adaptation/least_developed_countries_portal/submitted_napas/items/4585.php



Members of the Pan Africa Climate Justice Alliance join Countdown to Copenhagen campaigners inside the UN talks to demand that rich countries commit more climate finance to help poor countries adapt to climate change

- 9 The largest growth was in fact in non-Annex 1 states. This reflects the recent, rapid economic growth in emerging economies in Asia and Africa. However, developed world emissions did not fall either in this period, despite their disproportionate share of global emissions (relative to their population size).
- 10 <http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/sci/tech/4112743.stm>
www.davidsuzuki.org/files/climate/cop/Meeting_Kyoto_Targets.pdf
www.eea.europa.eu/pressroom/newsreleases/eu-15-on-target-for-kyoto-despite-mixed-performances

- 11 Climate Analysis Indicators Tool (CAIT), World Resources Institute.
- 12 http://unfccc.int/files/meetings/cop_13/application/pdf/cp_bali_act_p.pdf
- 13 Environment Information Administration, US Department of Energy.

3. APRODEV'S TIME FOR CLIMATE JUSTICE POLICY POSITIONS



Emissions in industrialised countries have been responsible for changing the global climate

Section contents

[A vision for an equitable and ambitious outcome from the UN talks](#)

[Greenhouse Development Rights](#)

[Sequencing: the China and India question](#)

[Financing action in developing countries](#)

[Adaptation: assessing the scale of the challenge](#)

This toolkit has been written by Christian Aid on behalf of APRODEV's Time for Climate Justice campaign for a fair and ambitious global agreement to tackle climate change. APRODEV stands together on a platform of strongly shared values.

[A vision for an equitable and ambitious outcome from the UN talks](#)

Urgent action to stop climate change

1. All countries must recognise the urgent need to act to keep global warming as far below 2°C as possible, and that this should be done in ways that respect poor communities' right to development.
2. Any fair international agreement must recognise that adaptation to climate impacts in poor

countries is just as important as preventing further climate change and must also ensure that support from rich countries for adaptation is significantly scaled up.

3. Industrialised countries must commit to cuts in their carbon emissions of at least 40 per cent below 1990 levels by 2020 and at least 80 per cent by 2050, with reductions to be achieved within those countries, not offset through carbon trading.
4. Rich and industrialised countries must provide substantial finance and technology transfer to support and incentivise low carbon development in developing countries. In turn, developing countries must use any such resources provided effectively and accountably and commit to sustainable development.

Financing climate change action in developing countries

5. Wealthy nations must provide at least \$150 billion a year to repay their climate debt and support low carbon development and adaptation to climate impacts in developing countries.
6. Finance for developing countries must come from sources that are substantial, reliable, predictable and sustainable, and are additional to official development assistance (ODA) and carbon market offsets.
7. Such finance should be well governed and accountable, and under the authority of the UNFCCC as a whole. For these reasons and others, the World Bank is not a suitable channel for such funding.

Putting poor people first

8. Technology (and the capacity to develop it) that may help low carbon development and adaptation must be shared with poorer nations.
9. Adaptation measures must be provided to enable communities to take charge of their future, and reduce their vulnerability to disasters.
10. Efforts to reduce deforestation in developing countries must respect the rights and practices of indigenous and local communities and be in line with sustainable development objectives.
11. The CDM is heavily flawed and requires a complete overhaul if it is to have any meaningful role to play in tackling climate change. Any such carbon market system needs to ensure that credit-generating activities are additional to actions in developed countries and that resulting flows of finance support rather than damage sustainable development efforts.

Greenhouse Development Rights

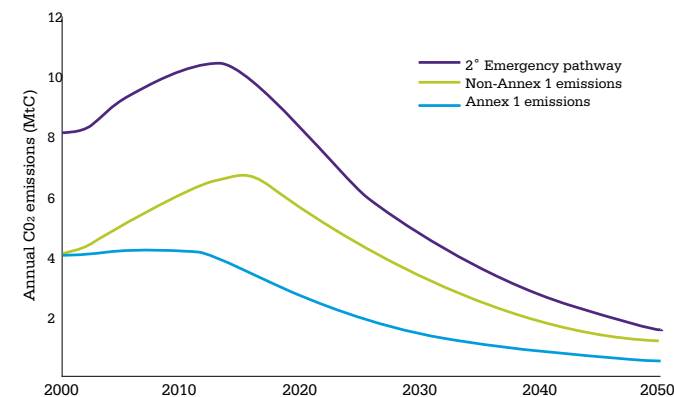
In 'The science and the impacts' section, we discussed why it was so essential to stop global warming from passing the 2°C threshold. We explained that this would require a global peak in emissions no later than 2015, a return to around 1990 levels by 2020, and a global reduction of around 80 per cent of 1990 levels by 2050. One of the biggest dilemmas in the climate change debate is that emerging economies in the South will need to first stabilise and then reduce their emissions in the coming decades, if these global targets are to be met, but these countries still have significant populations of poor people, and no country has yet lifted its people from poverty without increasing emissions.

This problem is illustrated clearly in figure 1 below. The purple line shows a 2°C emergency stabilisation pathway as described above. The blue line shows the tightest-possible emissions reductions that can be imposed on industrialised countries (Annex 1 countries in climate convention jargon) – an immediate decline leading to a 90 per cent reduction. However, by subtraction this means that other countries – including developing countries – are subject to the strictures of the green line.

APRODEV, with its research partners, has supported the development of a framework called Greenhouse Development Rights (GDRs)² which shows a way to share out the cuts fairly. GDRs uses the UNFCCC's core principles of common but differentiated responsibility and capability to work out how much each country should contribute towards the global effort.

It is APRODEV's firm belief that very poor countries – such as those falling into the UN's 'least-developed' category – should focus their attention and resources on meeting the developmental needs of their people, especially as climate change impacts increase. In the GDRs proposal, they would not be asked to pay significantly for tackling climate change.

Figure 1: 2°C emergency stabilisation pathway for Annex 1 and non-Annex 1 countries¹

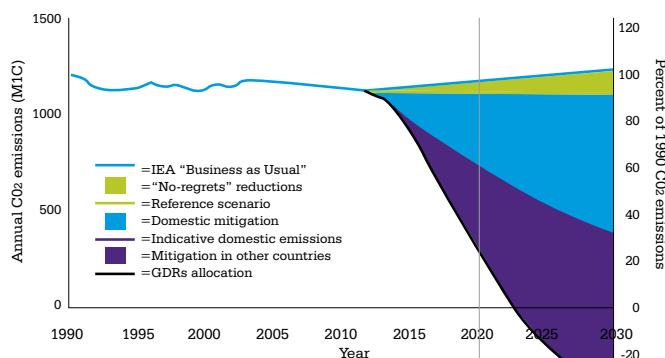


Of course the GDRs approach takes something of a snapshot based on the data for a particular moment in time. This can be projected forward to show how a country's position on the RCI might change following predictions of growth and emissions. For selected countries and regions, table 1 shows the calculation of the 'capacity' and 'responsibility' rating for each country, which are combined to give the responsibility capacity index or RCI for 2010. The RCI has then been projected forward to predict the RCI for 2020 and 2030, to show the changing nature of the index over time.

In 2010 it shows the RCI for action on global climate change is 33.1 per cent for the US and 25.7 for the EU. Overall, 77.4 per cent of the capacity and responsibility to act lies with wealthy nations and 22.4 per cent with middle-income countries. Low-income countries have almost no responsibility for climate change.

For industrialised countries, their high rating in the index sends a very clear message about what they must do. Not only must they cut domestic emissions dramatically, but they must also contribute to what is required globally, taking on a share of the effort that those lower down the index can ill afford. This is

Figure 2: GDR responsibility of the EU



The EU business-as-usual trajectory, reference trajectory, mitigation obligation, and emissions allocation. Beyond its no-regrets reductions (green wedge), EU mitigation obligation includes domestic reductions (blue wedge, showing reductions reaching a six per cent annual rate of decline) and international reductions (purple wedge), which together fulfil the EU mitigation obligation

also the case when it comes to paying for the costs of adapting to climate change.

Figure 2 shows the GDR responsibility of the European Union (EU) for domestic action and for funding emissions cuts overseas. Note that 'no-regrets' emissions cuts are mitigation actions which have no net cost or an overall economic benefit, such as energy efficiency. This figure shows that by 2020 the EU should have cut its emissions by 40 per cent from 1990 levels, and provided funds for the equivalent level of cuts in developing countries. The path shown in the graph puts the EU on course for a cut in domestic emissions of more than 80 per cent by 2050.

Sequencing: the China and India question

Part of the difficulty of achieving a global agreement has been the question of the scale of action which newly emerging economies such as China, India and South Africa should take. Much of the deadlock in UNFCCC negotiations has been over demand

Greenhouse Development Rights explained

GDRs is a means of sharing out the global 'effort' needed to meet the demands of the emergency pathway in figure 1, according to the principles of equity in the UNFCCC.

Countries are indexed to decide what percentage share of the global effort they should take on. Each country's place in the index is determined according to clearly explained measures of responsibility and capability.

One factor taken into account would be a country's poverty levels. Those with greater proportions of their populations with incomes below US\$7,500 per annum will face a smaller percentage share of the global effort to be made.

Responsibility is calculated by taking each country's total 'cumulative' emissions since 1990, when the UNFCCC was first drawn up and the first IPCC assessment report was published. For each country a share of its emissions – identified as 'basic survival emissions' below the development threshold – are taken away from the total burden of responsibility. 'Basic survival emissions' refer to emissions from activities such as cooking and heating, which provide a basic minimum standard of living.

from some industrialised countries for large, newly industrialising developing countries to take on responsibility for emissions cuts alongside Annex 1 countries. Conversely, the large developing countries have been very reluctant to discuss any mitigation of their own increasing emissions levels while industrialised countries, notably the US, have failed to make any significant cuts in their own emissions or deliver sufficient levels of finance or technology transfer to support mitigation in the developing countries as laid out in the UNFCCC commitments. This is known as the sequencing problem – that is, who should act first, and by how much?

Capacity is arguably the more important factor in determining the amount of effort a country must take on. In GDRs, it is calculated using per capita national income data, adjusted to reflect differences in purchasing power and inequality from one country to another. It reflects the ability of a country to pay for climate mitigation and adaptation. This data is used to give a total capacity but, again, only above the development threshold.

Larger developing countries, such as India, where there are still large numbers of poor people and yet increasing pockets of wealth, would have to pay for some of their own measures both to reduce emissions and to adapt to climate change. It is for this reason that the calculation of capability includes an adjustment for inequality within countries; largely, the more unequal a country is, the more it has to pay in recognition of its available wealth.

By combining the calculation of responsibility and capacity it is possible to develop the responsibility and capacity index (RCI), as detailed in table 1.

There remains a high level of political mistrust between the large industrialised countries and the newly emerging economies within the negotiations. It will be necessary to manage a process of trust-building to bring the two sides together, with each required to take steps to instil confidence in the other that they are committed to the success of the negotiations.

GDRs provide a simple, equity-based framework within which the level of effort sharing between wealthy, middle-income and poor countries can be compared. This shows that larger developing

Table 1: GDR results for representative countries and groups

GDR results for representative countries and groups					2010	2020	2030
	Population	GDP	Capacity	Responsibility	RCI	RCI	RCI
United States	4.5	20.9	29.7	36.4	33.1	29.1	25.4
EU (27)	7.3	22.4	28.8	22.6	25.7	22.8	19.6
Germany	1.2	4.2	5.6	5.3	5.5	4.7	4.0
China	19.7	11.7	5.8	5.2	5.5	10.4	15.3
India	17.2	4.9	0.7	0.3	0.5	1.2	2.3
South Africa	0.7	0.7	0.6	1.3	1.0	1.1	1.2
LDCs	11.7	1.5	0.11	0.04	0.07	0.1	0.12
Annex 1	18.7	58.3	75.8	78	76.9	69.0	60.9
Non-annex 1	81.3	41.7	24.2	22	23.1	31.0	39.1
High income	15.5	56.9	76.9	77.9	77.4	69.3	61.1
Middle income	63.3	39.7	22.9	21.9	22.4	30.4	38.5
Low income	21.2	3.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.5
Global total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Percentage shares of total global population, gross domestic product (GDP), capacity, responsibility, and RCI for selected countries and groups of countries, based on projected emissions and income for 2010, 2020, and 2030 (LDCs: least-developed countries)

countries should take on some responsibility for climate change action. For example, table 1 clearly shows that between 2010 and 2030, under the GDR analysis, China will become responsible for an increasing portion of emissions cuts, moving from an RCI of 5.5 per cent in 2010 to an RCI of 15.3 per cent by 2030. By the GDR calculations, China will, over time, have to take on increasing obligations for mitigation. This would make a significant change in how the UNFCCC has managed non-Annex 1 countries, including China, which currently have no binding targets.

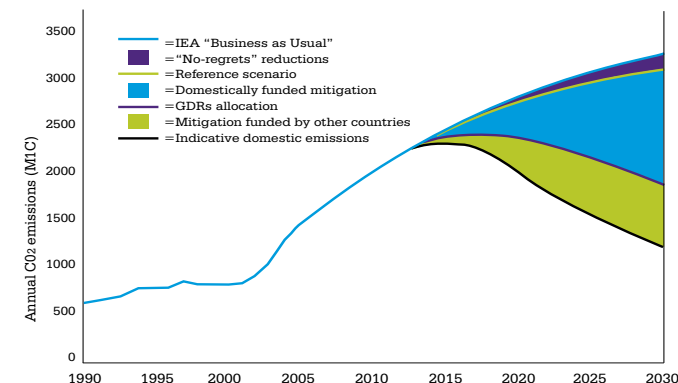
However, the GDRs analysis shows that, in the near

term, industrialised countries have the greatest historic responsibility, and capacity, to respond to climate change. They must put forward truly ambitious mitigation targets and measures as well as significant financial and technology cooperation proposals to enable clean development and decarbonisation in developing countries.

Financing action in developing countries

As discussed above, it is now unavoidable that to tackle climate change significant cuts in emissions will have to take place in the larger and more industrialised developing countries. In addition, the cost of adaptation to the impacts of climate change

Figure 3: China’s emissions including mitigation funded by other countries



The green wedge represents mitigation in excess of China’s obligations that are required to reduce China’s emissions in a manner consistent with the global 2°C emergency pathway

must be borne by wealthier, polluting countries. This transfer of funds and technology must not be seen as part of overseas development aid, but as the cost for industrialised countries of meeting their responsibilities for global climate change.

It is essential that new funds for climate change action are not taken from extra money allocated to ODA for pursuing the millennium development goals (MDGs) and poverty-reduction measures, but is additional to existing commitments for aid, such as the target to spend 0.7 per cent of GNI.

Funding that operates outside the UNFCCC’s authority, through other sources, such as the recently created Climate Investment Funds at the World Bank, should not be considered as part of a nation’s contribution.

Indeed, APRODEV believes that the World Bank should not play a role in managing climate finance at all due to its poor record on the environment, its lack of accountability to developing countries, its reliance on loans rather than grants and its history of imposing economic conditions.



Women help to shore up the bank of a canal at Kandi in central India, which is being widened and deepened to prevent flooding

Estimates of how much it is going to cost to counter climate change effectively, both in terms of adapting to new climate patterns and reducing reliance on carbon energy, vary but are uniformly large. The UNFCCC has calculated that just to return global emissions to 2007 levels in 2030 would cost US\$380 billion annually. In 2007 the respected economist Sir Nicholas Stern said that it would cost about one per cent of world domestic product to respond to climate change. In 2008 he revised this figure upwards, based on new scientific evidence, to two per cent – in the region of US\$1,200 billion every year. However, the logic of the Stern review puts these enormous sums into context, for Stern estimated the cost of not dealing with climate change would be between five and 20 per cent of

global GDP or more. Dealing with climate change will be expensive, but it will be affordable and will cost only a fraction of not tackling the problem.

Estimated adaptation costs in developing countries alone (from the UN, Oxfam, Stern and other sources) are in the region of US\$50-100 billion dollars each year. Total committed funding from multilateral and bilateral donors for adaptation by 2007 was in the region of US\$450 million, less than one per cent of what is required. The United Nations Development Programme also reported in its 2007/08 Human Development Report that, as of mid-2007, just US\$26 million of multilateral funding had been delivered under the three operational UNFCCC funds for

adaptation (the Least Developed Country Fund, the Special Climate Change Fund and the Strategic Priority on Adaptation).

A variety of innovative revenue-raising measures – such as a tax on international air travel or global financial transactions, or the auctioning of emissions trading permits in rich countries - could be used to meet some of these costs.

Adaptation: assessing the scale of the challenge

Adaptation to climate change will require substantial investments in both human capacities and infrastructure. Impacts will be felt by people in both rural and urban areas of the developing world. Some examples of adaptive measures are:

- improvements to riverbank and sea defences
- new water-harvesting and (sustainable) irrigation projects
- better water-management policies
- the scaling-up of extension services to assist farmers with soil, seed and water management techniques adapted to new weather patterns
- the planting of flood-, drought- and saline-resistant crops
- improved meteorological and data-collection services
- enhanced disaster preparedness strategies
- protection of public infrastructure and housing
- actions to safeguard public health
- afforestation schemes.

APRODEV agencies believe that a global mechanism – under the authority of the UN – is needed which can disburse large-scale funds to developing countries for adaptation, according to need. There will also have to be provision at the country level to coordinate international climate finance, as it is likely to come from many different sources: for example, UNFCCC funds, developed countries' aid budgets, multilateral development banks and international NGOs.

One key mechanism that already exists is the UNFCCC Adaptation Fund. Most of the money in this fund is expected to be transferred direct to governments to implement adaptation work. It is essential that adaptation grants must be fairly disbursed to poor communities through nationally owned plans using a flexible and accessible financing mechanism.

New approaches needed

To manage the impacts of climate change and the funds that should flow to help deal with it government systems in developing countries will also have to change. Adaptation and disaster risk reduction efforts will need to be mainstreamed into more areas of government policy, out of the 'boxes' which they currently occupy in environment and disaster management ministries. Some of the key sectors

affected will be agriculture, fisheries, housing, water, transport and communications, weather services and public health.

Civil society will have an important role to play in monitoring and influencing all such policies, so adaptation efforts are as accountable as possible to the most vulnerable populations. One immediate example will be strengthening the role of civil society in the development and implementation of NAPAs and similar national plans.

To ensure that climate change adaptation is rooted in the livelihood priorities and needs of those most vulnerable to its impact will require an explicit understanding of the local knowledge of the changing climate, its impact on livelihoods, and appropriate sustainable responses. For example, in the

agricultural sector, the scientific community will need to work with small farmers to help them develop new adaptation techniques (see also 'Evidence-gathering' in the 'Facilitating southern advocacy and campaigns on climate change' section).

Endnotes

- 1 Paul Baer, Tom Athanasiou, Sivan Kartha and Erik Kemp-Benedict, *The Right to Development in a Climate Constrained World: The Greenhouse Development Rights Framework*, EcoEquity and Stockholm Environment Institute, Second Edition, September 2008.
- 2 A full description of GDRs is found in *The Right to Development in a Climate Constrained World: The Greenhouse Development Rights Framework*. See reference above.
- 3 High-, middle- and low-income country categories are based on World Bank definitions. Projections based on *World Energy Outlook*, International Energy Agency, 2007.

4. TIME FOR CLIMATE JUSTICE CAMPAIGN

Section contents

[International campaign for climate justice](#)

[The Countdown to Copenhagen campaign](#)

[Time for Climate Justice!](#)

[The campaign demands explained](#)

International campaign for climate justice

Members of the APRODEV alliance have been campaigning on climate change since 2007 at a national level in their own countries and internationally at the EU and UN level. We started by raising awareness among politicians, businesses and citizens of the serious challenge that climate change poses to all efforts to reduce poverty, and highlighting the fact that the climate crisis is much more than a simple environmental issue.



Christian Aid / Rachel Stevens

At least 50,000 people came to London on 5 December 2009 to demonstrate their support for a fair and ambitious agreement at the United Nations Climate Change conference in Copenhagen

Our experience of working with poor communities across the world has shown that climate change is also a development, human rights and justice issue. From the beginning, our campaigning has made the link between climate change and poverty, telling stories from our partner organisations about how the changing climate is affecting the livelihoods of poor communities across the globe and standing in the way of our purpose – eradicating poverty.

In the UK, the campaign successfully pressured the government to increase its 2050 emissions reduction target from 60 to 80 per cent of 1990 levels and to consider the need for mandatory reporting of emissions by companies. These campaign victories were made possible by the large number of campaigners who raised public awareness of the issue, sending postcards to the prime minister and members

of parliament, attending rallies and events or joining the 1,000-mile Cut the Carbon march.

In the Netherlands, the campaign engaged over 400 churches and the public in the fight for a fair and just international deal, and secured government support for a global fund of at least €100 billion each year for long-term finance, in addition to existing overseas development aid. The campaign also encouraged the public to reduce energy consumption and switch to green gas and electricity.

On the road to achieving climate justice

In December 2007 the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) agreed the Bali Action Plan, which established a new negotiating process to tackle climate change. This was meant to be completed at the COP15 in Copenhagen – one of

APRODEV explained

APRODEV was founded in 1990 in order to strengthen cooperation between the European development NGOs who are associated with the World Council of Churches (WCC).

At present, 17 development and humanitarian aid organisations cooperate through APRODEV. These organisations have institutional and funding links with the Protestant and Orthodox churches in Europe, and get support from both members of the public who go to church and those who do not. Together, the APRODEV members have an annual income of around €720 million.

The key member agencies working on climate change are found in the UK (Christian Aid), Germany (EED and Brot für die Welt), the Netherlands (ICCO), Denmark (DanChurchAid), Norway (Norwegian Church Aid) and Sweden (the Church of Sweden and Diakonia). APRODEV's secretariat is based in Brussels.

the key political moments in the run-up to the end of the first phase of the Kyoto Protocol in 2012.

Unfortunately, Copenhagen did not deliver the deal we needed to protect the world's poorest people from the impacts of climate change. But it did have one positive result: a growing movement for climate justice whose voice will not be silenced.

The Countdown to Copenhagen campaign

The Countdown to Copenhagen campaign engaged more than half a million people from 24 countries, and taught us some valuable lessons. But how did the campaign come about?

Eighteen months ahead of the Copenhagen meeting, APRODEV agencies joined forces to launch the Countdown to Copenhagen campaign with the aim

of encouraging national governments and the EU to press for a fair and effective global climate deal at the UN COP15 talks in December 2009. The campaign called on rich countries to make at least 40 per cent cuts in carbon emissions by 2020 at home and to assist developing countries – financially and otherwise – to reduce their emissions, use clean technology for development and adapt to climate change.

Across Europe we asked campaigners to pledge to campaign for a fair and just deal and to send the above demands to their governments. Members of the public signed thousands of postcards and sent them to heads of state in the UK, Netherlands, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Finland, Germany, Switzerland and Spain. The campaign swiftly spread to the US, where supporters presented similar demands to Barack Obama.

Throughout 2009, a number of NGOs in developing countries also embraced the campaign and started running the petition in their own countries. In Ethiopia, the postcard was adapted and translated into Amharic. Almost 30,000 people signed the petition, which was delivered to the prime minister and the Ethiopian government delegation. From El Salvador to Cameroon, from Bangladesh to Kyrgyzstan, campaigners came together to build a movement for climate justice.

Initially launched in English, the campaign materials were translated into many languages in 24 countries on five continents, uniting hundreds of thousands of people in the fight for climate justice. Campaign activities were organised around key moments or events – such as international days of action, or milestone days in the run-up to the conference. APRODEV staff and partners also participated in UNFCCC meetings that took place in Poland, Bangkok and Bonn.

By the time world leaders met in Copenhagen, the campaign had collected more than half a million

Bangladesh: 112,000 signatures in three months

The Countdown to Copenhagen Bangladesh Campaign united 54 NGOs behind a single platform that connected more than 100,000 climate-vulnerable people. CDP – a key APRODEV ally in Bangladesh – worked with other NGOs, campaigning in 57 upazilas (subdistricts) in 35 districts across the country.

In rural areas, the campaign was supported by women and men who cannot read and write – volunteers would read out the campaign demands and helped people express their solidarity through a fingerprint signature.

On 21 November 2009, the campaign organised simultaneous press conferences in the 35 districts. When the courier service failed to deliver campaign materials to the more remote areas, our partners made their own banners and organised their local press conferences anyway.

signatures. On 13 December, almost 5,000 people crammed into and around Copenhagen's city square to watch Archbishop Desmond Tutu hand over the signatures and pledges to the UN's climate chief, Yvo de Boer, on behalf of the global Countdown to Copenhagen movement. The event reminded people why climate justice is urgently needed, and that campaigning really can bring people together to beat climate change. The archbishop was on typically vibrant form, addressing the crowd with humour and warmth before spelling out our key message to world leaders: 'This is one problem where, if we don't resolve it, no one is going to survive.'

Time for climate justice!

Despite a lot of public pressure, negotiators failed to agree on an effective climate deal in Copenhagen and to address the threat of climate change to the lives and

livelihoods of millions of people in poor countries. But Copenhagen was a success in another way: it brought together a wide variety of civil society movements campaigning for climate justice. We must not let this momentum go.

The Countdown to Copenhagen may be over, but the campaign continues under the banner of Time for Climate Justice. Our aim remains to get a fair, ambitious, binding and effective deal for the world's poorest people, and we will continue to push world leaders in 2010 and beyond to urgently reconvene the talks and build an effective deal. **Join us in this fight!**

For more details of our Time for Climate Justice campaign, please visit www.climatejusticeonline.org

The campaign demands explained

Call 1: make at least 40 per cent cuts in carbon emissions by 2020 – at home, not abroad

The 40 per cent target is important because it is the scale of cuts that is required if warming this century is to be kept to below 2°C. There are a number of wider campaign themes that can be grouped under this first call:

- **The greater responsibility of the North for greenhouse gas emissions.** This is already reflected in the make-up of Annex I (which includes developed countries, as well as transition economies in eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union), but also in the fact that nearly all Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) governments accept that their cuts will have to be more significant than those made by developing countries. They have yet to fully deliver on this promise.
- **The integrity of the process and trust-building between North and South.** For a truly global deal to emerge, greater trust must be built among negotiators. This can only happen if states take



Countdown to Copenhagen campaigners from Ethiopia join the four-mile march to the UN conference centre on the global day of climate action. Ethiopia launched its Countdown to Copenhagen campaign with support from APRODEV agencies in December 2009. They collected 30,000 pledges which were included in the handover of over half a million signatures by Archbishop Desmond Tutu to the UN climate chief Yvo de Boer at a special event in Copenhagen's City Square

concrete measures. OECD states need to set an example to other countries by making significant structural changes to their economies that reduce dependence on fossil fuels. If this happens, say in the next five years, then the chance of emerging economies agreeing to future limits on their emissions increases.

- **At home, not abroad.** This gives considerable scope for critiquing the existing practice by OECD countries of seeking to meet their targets through the purchase of carbon credits abroad. As explained in 'The UN talks' section, the two main

Kyoto Protocol mechanisms used for this are emissions trading (among Annex I states) and the Clean Development Mechanism (North-South).

See 'The UN talks' section for a discussion of the limitations of the CDM.

Call 2: assist and help pay for developing countries to reduce their emissions, develop cleanly and adapt to climate change

If the first call is about the responsibilities in the North, the second is about joint actions that need to be taken by both the North and South. One of the core



A member of the Countdown to Copenhagen advocacy delegation, Seng Sothira from Cambodia, takes a day out of lobbying inside the UN climate talks to join partners and campaigners from Europe, the US and across Africa, Asia and Latin America on the global day of climate action in Copenhagen

This toolkit is an initiative of the APRODEV's Time for Climate Justice campaign. APRODEV is the association of the 17 major development and humanitarian aid organisations in Europe which work closely together with the World Council of Churches. Among its members are Church of Sweden, Diakonia, Norwegian Church Aid, DanChurch Aid, Finn Church Aid, ICCO, EED, Brot für die Welt, Bread for All, and Christian Aid.

principles of Greenhouse Development Rights (GDRs – see 'APRODEV's policy positions' section) is that OECD states should help pay for developing countries to reduce emissions over time and develop cleanly, as well as to adapt to climate change. This action should be in addition to domestic cuts by rich countries. This approach offers a potential solution to the conundrum of how to tackle rising global emissions without jeopardising the right to develop of emerging economies. In essence, GDRs argues for financial compensation for those developing countries who agree not to take the 'dirty' path to development.

The model is neutral on the question of which policies are needed for achieving low-carbon, sustainable development in the South. It merely provides an equation for a fair sharing of the costs of global mitigation and adaptation.

A number of other themes can be elucidated under the second call.

- **The issue of 'compensation' for developing countries.** Developing countries are suffering some of the severest impacts of climate change without (in most cases) having contributed to the problem. Therefore developed countries have a moral duty to assist them in their adaptation to climate change. This is a key North-South justice point in the climate change debate and is often referred to as 'climate debt'.
- **Non-compliance with UNFCCC.** Under article 4 of the UNFCCC, developed nations are required to give financial support to developing countries for mitigation and adaptation, as well as lead in efforts to cut national emissions. Despite 17 years having passed since its signing, we are still waiting for Annex 1 countries to fulfil these

commitments. This is clearly unacceptable.

- **'Assist... developing countries to reduce emissions.'** This is a reference in particular to technology transfer. There are some heated debates going on between the Group of 77 and China, and OECD countries on this point. For instance, the G77 and China have argued for a reform to the intellectual property rights regime to make it easier for them to manufacture key renewable and energy-saving technologies patented by western firms. This move has been resisted so far by Annex 1 countries.
- Again, the convention is on the side of the G77 and China. Article 4 calls on developed countries to 'take all practicable steps to promote, facilitate and finance... the transfer of, or access to, environmentally sound technologies and know-how to other parties, particularly developing country parties'. Although OECD countries might argue over the definition of 'practicable', the onus is clearly on them to do more to enable such a transfer.
- **Universal goal of sustainable development.** The convention also states that all states should work to promote sustainable development. So, in fact, no country, not even a developing one, has an automatic right to pollute or degrade the natural environment.

As stated above, we are looking to build links with movements around the world who share our desire to see governments act quickly on this issue. To find out some of the ways that country staff and partners can start to mobilise efforts in their own countries on climate change, see the 'Facilitating southern advocacy and campaigns on climate change' section.

5. FACILITATING SOUTHERN ADVOCACY AND CAMPAIGNS ON CLIMATE CHANGE

APRODEV staff and partners ensure the Countdown to Copenhagen message is seen and heard in a mass mobilisation in Bangkok during the UNFCCC intersessional talks on climate change ahead of Copenhagen.



Christian Avel / Amanda Ferrant

Section contents

[International allies](#)

[Long-term capacity building for climate change advocacy and campaigning](#)

- [1. Initiating the debate](#)
- [2. Identifying the groups that will be most affected](#)
- [3. Analysing government policy](#)
- [4. Understanding the international dimension](#)

- [5. Formulating your demands and developing the strategy](#)
- [6. Deciding on the appropriate action](#)
- [7. Building alliances with other NGOs and civil society actors](#)
- [8. Evidence gathering](#)
- [9. Utilising the media and internet](#)
- [10. Measuring impact](#)

We may only have one decade left in which global emissions must peak if we are to avoid a catastrophic level of warming. Governments need to agree on a programme to slash global greenhouse gases emissions after the current commitment phase of the Kyoto Protocol ends in 2012. The meetings under the UNFCCC are key fora to agree such a global plan of action. Campaigning increased the political pressure on world leaders in the run up to Copenhagen in December 2009, but world leaders were not able to agree the political action that is so needed.

While politicians delay, poor people in developing countries who have contributed the least to climate change are already suffering the consequences of changing weather patterns and will be the worst hit by its increasing impacts. This is an injustice and it

List of suggested objectives to reach a fair and effective international climate deal

Policy objectives

- Ensuring that any new climate deal safeguards the interests of developing countries and the world's poor and marginalised groups, while also offering a chance to keep global warming to below 2°C. Spelling out what type of deal would enable this (as well as tackling Annex 1 country emissions, the solution will also have to address emissions in the South, which now account for more than half of the global total).
- Lobbying developed nations to take immediate steps to reduce their own emissions, and to provide adequate finance for adaptation and mitigation in developing countries (the starting point being the existing commitments under the convention and Kyoto Protocol).
- Calling on developed nations to reduce barriers to North-South clean-technology transfer, and for a wider sharing of knowledge on locally appropriate and locally developed low-carbon technologies.

Process objectives

- Promoting civil society engagement in COPs.
- Building civil society alliances nationally and globally to influence outcomes of international climate negotiations.

only increases our determination to campaign and lobby decision makers to achieve climate justice globally.

In many countries, activists have only recently begun to consider the problem of climate change: how

it is affecting people's development prospects and how linkages can be made between the effects of climate change at the local and national levels and international lobbying. This work must now be developed further and strengthened in the aftermath of Copenhagen.

This section is divided into two parts. The first looks at the international networks and alliances that are already in existence and which southern-based NGOs can become part of. The second is a practical step-by-step guide to starting a climate change campaign in your own country.

International allies

1. Global networks

There are a number of groups, networks and coalitions already campaigning on UNFCCC processes and following the COP meetings. These will of course differ from country to country and continent to continent, but some of the main global ones are:

- **Climate Action Network (CAN):** CAN is a global network of environmental and development non-governmental organisations (NGOs) that 'works to promote government and individual action to limit human-induced climate change to ecologically sustainable levels'. It has eight regional branches in the developing world: three in Asia (South, South-east and former Soviet Union), four in Africa (North, South, East and West), and one in Latin America. The regional branches offer a good introduction to CAN for partners in the South. CAN operates a number of international email groups, where members post climate change news and discuss strategy on specific topics (eg post-2012 issues, finance and technology, adaptation, etc). CAN holds events and lobbies policy-makers at the annual climate change talks. The network currently has 430 members.
- **Climate Justice Now! (CJN!):** this network was established at the COP meeting held in Bali,

Indonesia in 2007. It is an umbrella for social movements and development NGOs concerned about the impacts of climate change on the world's poor. Climate Justice Now! is sceptical of the market-based and purely technological solutions to climate change being proposed by many northern governments and companies. It calls for real cuts in consumption levels in the North and among southern elites, a reduction in dependence on fossil fuels, democratic control of natural resources, substantial resource transfers from North to South in order to repay the climate 'debt', and a global expansion of renewable power. The network currently has 160 members, operates email updates, and now has a presence at the annual COPs.

- **The Global Climate Campaign:** this is the name given to 'all the organisations, groups and individuals around the world who come together for the Global Day of Action on climate... to demand urgent action on climate, and climate justice, from the governments of the world'. The action has occurred every year since 2005 and is usually held on the middle Saturday of the annual COP. During COP 16 in Mexico it will be on 4 December 2010. Demonstrations, marches, speeches and other public events are organised in more than 70 countries on or around the chosen date.

2. APRODEV

In the run-up to COP15, APRODEV agencies across Europe, in cooperation with Church World Service and the National Council of Churches in the USA and numerous partners of APRODEV agencies in the global South organised the Countdown to Copenhagen campaign pledge and postcard campaign which collected over half a million signatures. (See the Time for Climate Justice campaign section for more details). Petitions and similar actions are an effective tool to raise public awareness and engage new constituencies.

The Time for Climate Justice campaign aims to continue mobilising people around a fair and effective climate deal. Partners may wish to organise a similar campaign action in their own country. This could be aimed at the national government (for example, to the prime minister or president) or even the United Nations, highlighting civil society concerns about climate change and the need for concerted, global action to tackle it.

If the action is targeted at national governments, it is likely that it will contain some messages regarding the need for actions by the industrialised countries (see 'List of suggested long-term objectives' box below).

However, to be relevant, it should also address domestic issues relating to climate change where the national government has prime responsibility. These messages will vary of course from country to country. For example, in least-developed countries (LDCs), such as Bangladesh and Burkina Faso, the focus of lobbying efforts is unlikely to be national energy policy (because of the minimal contribution of LDCs to global emissions), but for the government to adequately defend the interests of poor countries and

communities affected by climate change, and obtain justice for them, at the UN talks.

On the other hand, in emerging economies, such as India, South Africa or Brazil, civil society groups might choose to focus on national energy policy and possibly the need to limit the future growth in emissions. **In any case, it will be for partners in each country to decide which particular set of demands to adopt.**

The actions taken in each country will of course depend on the current relationship between civil society organisations and the state. It will be more difficult to influence government policy on climate change in some countries than in others, and advocacy strategies will reflect those different local contexts and political realities.

Partners interested in getting support for campaign actions can get in contact with APRODEV staff working in their country or campaigns team staff based in the head offices. You can also email campaigns@christian-aid.org for assistance.

Long-term capacity building for climate change advocacy and campaigning

Ten steps to facilitating advocacy or a public campaign on climate change

This list is not exhaustive, but it is based on experience of what has worked in the past for NGOs planning an advocacy initiative or campaign.

1. Initiating the debate

As a first step, APRODEV country staff and partners can initiate a debate on the need for advocacy and campaigning on climate change within the local or national context. This could be internally within the organisation, with members of the public, or together with like-minded NGOs and civil society organisations (or a combination of all three). It is possible to start local conversations on climate change in several ways: it may be useful to focus on disaster risk reduction work that partners are doing, or to analyse changing temperature/rainfall patterns locally and their effect on local agriculture, or to concentrate on the number of natural disasters. These starting points are important because the advocacy and campaigning must respond to a specific need or

List of suggested long-term objectives

Policy objectives

- Monitoring of developed nations' ongoing actions to reduce emissions and campaigning globally on this question.
- Lobbying developed nations to provide adequate finance for adaptation and mitigation in developing countries.
- Calling on developed nations to reduce barriers to North-South low-carbon technology transfer, and for a wider sharing of knowledge on locally appropriate and locally developed low-carbon technologies.

- Conducting and disseminating research on sustainable development models that have the potential to be scaled up. Holding own government to account for unsustainable development (either within particular sectors, eg energy, transport, waste, agriculture, industry, or across sectors).
- Developing and promoting community-driven approaches to adaptation; ensuring that adaptation funding reaches those most affected by and vulnerable to climate change.

Process objectives

- Enhancing the capacity of partners for local- and national-level advocacy.
- Promoting civil society engagement in the United Nations negotiations beyond 2010.
- Building alliances nationally and globally to influence outcomes at the United Nations negotiations beyond 2010.
- Inspiring public interest in climate change in developing countries, so that the capacity for mass action grows beyond 2009.

Understanding Southern perspectives on climate change

Perspectives on climate change in developing countries can differ considerably from those held in Europe. Climate justice is often interpreted by southern NGOs as an issue of economic governance: the need for equitable ownership of natural resources, such as land, water, forests and fisheries, and improved strategies for their use.

In India in 2009, Christian Aid supported the formation of a new NGO coalition (the People's Coalition on Climate Change) with the objective of bringing the experiences of marginalised, rural communities to bear in the debate on climate change. The coalition undertook a dialogue with fisherfolk, indigenous peoples, forest dwellers, pastoralists, and dryland and mountain farmers in nine states of India regarding existing threats to their livelihoods and the growing problem of climate change. The outcome was the Community Charter on the Climate Crisis, a manifesto targeting the government of India and the international community.

The Charter calls for a reversal of policies that have led to the systematic degradation of the natural resources upon which these communities depend for their livelihoods (forests, fisheries, agricultural land, etc.) The groups the coalition talked to saw a direct link between this process and climate change.

The manifesto also demands the restoration of their right of stewardship over these resources, greater respect for community knowledge and proper maintenance of the ecosystem. According to the groups involved, this is the best way to combat climate change.

The Charter was launched in India in October 2009. The coalition also sent a delegation of NGO and community leaders to lobby the COP15 meeting in December 2009.

problem, otherwise it may seem disconnected from events in wider society (see 'Understanding Southern perspectives on climate change' box above).

It may be useful to brainstorm ways in which climate change is currently affecting development efforts – think of its impacts for livelihoods, agricultural production, health, education, disaster management, and the national economy. To what extent are its effects already visible?

2. Identifying the groups that will be most affected

Most often climate-related disasters hit the poorest communities hardest. People who already live in precarious conditions and are deprived of a secure livelihood have the least capacity to cope with or withstand severe climatic conditions and natural disasters, such as floods, earthquakes, and droughts. Age, gender, religion, caste, ethnicity and other

social identities should be taken into account when assessing the effects of climate change within the population.

An example of the varying impacts that climate change can have for different socio-economic groups comes from Cavite City in the Philippines. The city, which lies on Manila Bay, is being affected by more extreme weather events, such as typhoons, flooding, and drought, as well as by sea-level rise and salinisation of groundwater (such a pattern is consistent with climate change). But not all inhabitants are affected in the same way by these changes. A recent study showed that low-income groups, notably small/municipal fishers, shellfish growers, vendors and traders, and the self-employed were worse hit by these events than those living above the poverty line (fixed-monthly income earners and micro-entrepreneurs with more capital assets).

Key questions

- Who are the affected groups/communities?
- How do factors such as income, gender, employment, age, ethnicity, caste, and class affect how people are affected by climate change?
- What are the most immediate climatic challenges that they face?
- What are the long-term climatic challenges?
- What do affected communities/groups need in terms of support and allocation of resources to overcome these challenges and reduce their vulnerability?
- Have they received any support from local/national government?
- Who is responsible for providing the support for overcoming the challenges that they are experiencing?
- Are these potential lobby targets? How can community voices be heard?

The former groups suffered more disruption to their livelihoods, problems accessing potable water, and a greater loss of household and livelihood assets. The higher-income groups lived in houses made of durable materials and could rely on savings and spare capital to get by, so were not as badly affected.¹

3. Analysing government policy

The next related step is to analyse existing government policy in this area. In some countries, governments may already have well-developed public positions on climate change. This will make your task easier. In others – probably the majority – it may be

Key questions

- Is there recognition at national and local government level of the impact that climate change is having on people in your country?
- What is the government doing, not doing or planning to do about it?
- Is there a dedicated ministry/unit in government dealing with climate change issues?
- What are the national strategies/plans/policies?
- How are communities affected by these (collect evidence)? Can they be described as 'pro-poor'?
- For least-developed countries: has the government drawn up a National Adaptation Plan of Action (NAPA)? Are community needs (identified in step two) reflected adequately in the NAPA?
- Does climate change feature in national sectoral policies, such as water, agriculture, fisheries, disaster risk reduction, and forest management?
- What trade-offs exist between national energy and development policies on the one hand, and climate change and sustainable development goals on the other? If the government is privileging the former, how can a better balance be struck?

necessary to contact the relevant government ministry (usually the environment ministry) to assess what the official state position is.

Though many countries have not yet put in place national policies and programmes to address the urgent challenge of climate change, there has certainly been an increase in actions and good intentions. For instance, in Kenya, climate change policy is being coordinated by the National Environment Management Authority (NEMA), which serves as the UNFCCC focal point for the country and the designated national authority for the Clean Development Mechanism (CDM). The Ministry of Environment (NEMA's parent ministry) hosts the National Climate Change Activities Coordinating Committee (NCCACC). NCCACC is an inter-departmental and multi-sectoral committee that advises the Kenyan government on climate-related policies.

All stakeholders, including government departments, private sector and the civil society, are represented on the committee. Increasing appreciation of climate change as a challenge to national, sustainable development strategies, particularly the ambitious blueprint called Vision 2030, has prompted more focus on climate change. The government, through the Ministry of Environment, has proposed the establishment of a fully fledged climate change department with its own staff and programmes.

4. Understanding the international dimension

Climate change is a global problem that requires a global solution, which is why securing a deal in the UN talks is so important. You should explore the linkages between the local and national issues (covered in steps two and three), and the international negotiations.

Bolivia provides a very useful model of constructive state-NGO cooperation on climate change. Both government and social movements are speaking with one voice, and the government position relies heavily on the traditional knowledge and experiences of the majority indigenous population. The Bolivian government has called for:

Key questions

- What is the position of your government on the UN climate change talks?
- What is the relevance of the UN talks for the problems of climate change in your community/country?
- Who is mainly responsible for the problem of climate change in your community/country?
- Has your government's negotiating stance been developed with a view to protecting the rights of communities to health, water, livelihoods, etc?
- If not, how can the government position be influenced to reflect people's needs?
- What opportunities can you identify for linking up with civil society groups overseas so that your concerns about climate change can be heard in other countries and at the UN? For example, have you linked up your national activities with key international dates and processes? See also the 'Events calendar' section.
- environmental justice and for shared responsibilities, taking into consideration that some countries are more responsible for climate change than others
- a critique of the current development paradigm, which it and most Bolivian NGOs find unsustainable and promoting inequity
- important sums of money to be transferred for 'clean' technology to promote the right for sustainable and real development

- northern governments to recognise the importance and the cost of adaptation that Bolivians are already facing
- social movements to lead a radical progressive agenda to Copenhagen that is rooted in their realities, such as melting glaciers, drought and deforestation.

To this end, both the Bolivian government and NGOs presented a 16-point proposal for Copenhagen, which was launched at COP 14 in Poznan in 2008. Unfortunately, political realities in other countries do not allow easy replication of this approach.

5. Formulating your demands and developing the strategy

Here are some key recommendations to help you formulate your demands and develop an advocacy or campaigns strategy:

- decide your targets: the people or institutions with the power to change things
- identify your allies as well as the main obstacles
- aim for maximum grassroots participation in the development and roll-out of the advocacy and/or campaigns strategy
- make your demands or objectives as SMART as possible (specific, measurable, achievable, realistic and timebound)²
- try to formulate a 'positive agenda' – not only criticising or condemning government policy, but also making alternative proposals or demands that can bring about lasting change
- agree on a set of actions/activities to achieve your demands (see step six).

Global campaign to stop a 'dirty' energy World Bank loan to South Africa

In February 2010, South African and African climate justice activists from more than 50 civil society organisations and community groups started a global campaign to stop the approval of a \$3.75 billion World Bank loan for the construction of a new coal-fired energy plant by the South African Electricity Supply Commission (Eskom).

The campaigners, who have built alliances with climate activists across the EU and the US, believe the loan highlights why the World Bank cannot be trusted to manage existing or future climate funds.

By funding a coal fired-plant in the largest ever single loan to an African country, the bank is showing that it

is not serious about sustainable development, the campaigners say.

They argue that not only does the funding contravene the original stated purpose of the loan, which was to set South Africa on a 'low-carbon' trajectory, it would also double Eskom's fossil fuel emissions by 2025 and lock South Africa into a high-emissions coal-fired energy path.

The campaigners want to see clean alternatives to coal power stations in South Africa, which could be financed by climate funds managed by the United Nations.

Here is one example of how a set of demands has been formulated. This position statement was developed by Filipino civil society organisations as an input to COP14 in 2008.³ Note: this is not the same as an advocacy or campaigns strategy document, which would normally include a set of goals for your engagement, as well as an analysis of the policy and campaigns environment:

a) Message to developed countries

'It is the moral and ethical responsibility of developed countries, on account of their historical culpability for rapid global warming, to take the lead in ensuring that the level of increase in global temperature is maintained below 2°C over pre-industrial levels. We appeal to these developed countries to willingly commit themselves to deep, drastic and legally binding cuts in their greenhouse gas emissions as part of their accountability in paying for the damages they wrought on the environment.

'Developed countries must contribute at least one per cent of their annual gross domestic product to the Adaptation Fund under the convention.'

b) Message to developing countries (including the Philippines)

'The right to pursue development is not a licence for deforestation or mining, or for the unabated use of dirty fuel, energy and technologies that exacerbate climate change and pose grave hazards to the environment and human health.

'Adaptation must be integrated into national development plans and given appropriate budgetary allocations.'

c) Steps which all countries should take

The position paper outlined measures that governments should take in different sectors to reduce emissions. It called for, among other things: an expansion of renewable energy and a phasing out of coal-fired and nuclear power stations; energy efficiency; and a shift to sustainable agriculture and forestry: 'There must be a shift to sustainable production and consumption patterns, particularly in developed countries, where unsustainable practices are the root cause of the climate crisis.'

Climate justice tribunal

In 2009, civil society organisations got together in Bolivia to put together an international 'climate justice tribunal'.

For two days, the tribunal listened to climate-related problems that were seen to threaten indigenous and other human rights. As a result, a non binding declaration was passed at the closure of the tribunal requesting that its moral legitimacy as a court be recognized and demanding that the tribunal be formalised as a space to legally address environmental crimes.

The tribunal received widespread national and international press coverage and its work was praised by Nobel Peace Prize winner Adolfo Pérez Esquivel and the Human Rights Commission of the UN.

A similar tribunal was also organised in Bangkok during the UNFCCC intersessional meeting in October, supported by a coalition of Asian-based NGOs. Climate change 'witnesses' from Bangladesh, the Philippines, Micronesia, Nepal, Thailand and Indonesia gave evidence in front of a panel of judges and a verdict was delivered.⁷

6. Deciding on the appropriate action

Actions and events are more effective when they have a clear message, involve a range of groups, have mass participation, a high profile, and are aiming for specific changes.

When planning activities you may want to consider:

- who should we target?
- what sort of events/actions would be most effective for meeting our broader objective(s)?
- how can we get other groups involved?
- how can we educate and mobilise large numbers of people?

- how can we attract media coverage?
- how do we lobby decision-makers?

Here are some suggestions:

- petition or pledge: printed or online email action
- campaign march or demo
- hanging banners in public places
- telling the stories – through media, public tribunals, people's testimonies – of the effects of climate change
- church service or group prayer (for African and Latin American ecumenical partners)
- organising events to coincide with internationally recognised days⁴ or global action days on climate change
- utilising prominent figures and celebrities in calls for action.

7. Building alliances with other NGOs and civil society actors

Taking action with others is more effective than taking actions alone. National and local governments, as well as elected representatives, such as parliamentarians, are more likely to listen when voices are numerous.

It is therefore important to try, where possible, to build strong links or form alliances with other groups that may be campaigning on climate change. A balance will need to be found between the diversity and size of the coalition and the strength of the central messages.

Here are some groups who you could contact:

- environmental groups
- religious groups
- social/rights movements
- indigenous groups
- youth/student organisations
- women's groups
- trade unions
- business groups.

Tips for media releases

- Make it short and punchy (one sheet of paper if possible).
- Get your message across in the first two paragraphs (answering: who, when, what, where and why).
- Use key facts and figures (especially local ones if you have them).
- Put in a hard-hitting quote from someone in your community (with strong words and clear points).
- Use quotes to urge people or politicians to do something and to draw attention to the issue.
- Always type your press release (and check spelling).
- Add a 'note to editor' section (with contact details for your spokesperson and for further information).

The experience of the recent Countdown to Copenhagen campaign shows that advocacy in international alliances increases our chances of influencing national and international policy, especially on issues of global concern.

Another avenue worth exploring would be national and continental climate change networks. Examples include the Philippines CSO Working Group on Climate Change and Development, the Pan-African Climate Justice Alliance, the Climate Change Development Forum Bangladesh, and Plataforma Boliviana Sobre Cambio Climático (Bolivian Climate Change Platform).

Ecumenical partners could look for existing work by churches and church networks on climate change. For instance, both the Pacific Conference of Churches and

the All-Africa Conference of Churches are now active on this issue. Or partners could consider an alliance with APRODEV – see above.

One growing international alliance is the Pan African Climate Justice Alliance. This is an umbrella of African civil society organisations that promotes and advocates for climate-related, equity-based and sustainable development. Currently drawing its membership from non-governmental organisations, community-based organisations, national coalitions and regional networks, the alliance aims to unify fragmented civil society efforts on climate change advocacy and coordination in Africa, so as to ensure that pro-poor and people-centred response measures are considered as governments seek to mainstream climate change into national development strategies.

Part of its mandate includes developing strategic alliances with international partners, national governments, regional governmental bodies, and individuals sharing its aspirations, to ensure that the African voice is amplified in international negotiations.

The alliance's membership stands at 102 organisations spread across 37 countries in Africa.

8: Evidence gathering

A particularly important tool for communicating the effects of climate change is evidence gathering. It is useful to include stories of real people affected by climate change in any advocacy, media or other communications that you are planning. However, it is not always easy to prove that climate change alone is responsible for a community's increased vulnerability or environmental degradation. Linking scientific analysis with personal testimonies can provide powerful evidence of the impact of climate change on poor communities and their ability to develop.⁵

It can be difficult to capture visual evidence of the impact of climate change. Imagine trying to capture in a photograph the displacement of a coastal



Representatives of Bolivia's Platform for Climate Justice lead the march through Copenhagen on the global day of climate justice. An estimated 100,000 campaigners took part in the march

community due to sea-level rise over a period of many decades! In addition, climate change is often not the only cause behind disaster, degradation or increased human vulnerability, and therefore it is sometimes difficult to claim that the parched earth of a drought is indeed the result of climate change alone. However, we can use video and photography to illustrate vulnerability in the face of climate change. **Whatever stories you use, make sure you can back them up with scientific evidence of the impact of temperature rise or other evidence of climate change,**

and that the perspectives of the individual cover changes perceived over a period of at least two to three decades.

9. Utilising the media and internet⁶

Whatever activities you decide to organise, they will almost always have much greater impact if they are reported in the media (newspaper, radio, television and websites). Just one prominent story can make politicians listen. Why not present your activity as a news story? (See 'Tips for media releases' on page 30.)



Bar Jesang Handhu, a pastoralist from Gujarat in India, joined Countdown to Copenhagen supporters marching through Copenhagen to demand a fair, ambitious and legally binding outcome from the climate talks

10. Measuring impact

The tenth and final step is to conduct regular reviews of on-going activities – essential for measuring the impact of your advocacy. This will also help ensure your campaign demands remain relevant. Your strategy will inevitably evolve as new information comes to light and your experience on the issue grows.

Possible indicators for measuring success include:

- change in government position or position of UNFCCC negotiators
- people's/communities' ownership of the process
- scale of grassroots mobilisation
- accumulated evidence
- response from media
- response from policy-makers
- response from international and national allies.

Good luck!

Endnotes

- 1 Ramon Faustino M Sales Jr, *Mainstreaming Community-based Adaptation to Climate Variability and Sea-level Rise into Integrated Coastal Management: The Case of Cavite City, Philippines*, see <http://www.bcas.net/2nd-cba/Documents/tc-3a/ramon.pdf>
- 2 **Specific** – objectives should specify what they want to achieve; **Measurable** – you should be able to measure whether you are meeting the objectives or not; **Achievable** – are the objectives you set achievable and attainable?; **Realistic** – can you realistically achieve the objectives with the resources you have? **Timebound** – when do you want to achieve the set objectives? See www.learnmarketing.net/smart.htm
- 3 *The Philippines Civil Society Organisations' (CSO) Positions on Climate Change and Development: Inputs to the Philippines Position in Climate Change Negotiations at COP14*, Third World Network, 2008.
- 4 For example, World Water Day (22 March), World Environment Day (5 June), or World Food Day (16 October). See the full list of official UN days at www.un.org/en/news_events/un_days/international_days.asp
- 5 Examples of local community based perspectives can be found in *Human Face of Climate Change*, Christian Aid, 2007.
- 6 Adapted from *Action Guide: Global Week of Action on Trade, 10-16 April 2005*, Ecumenical Advocacy Alliance, 2004.
- 7 The text of the verdict can be found here: <http://tcktcktck-asia.org/wp-content/uploads/2009/10/Climate-Tribunal-verdict-061009.pdf>

GLOSSARY



Sidlak Youth Theatre, based in the Phillipines, established by FORGE. Youths who have dropped out of school are taught dances that deal with issues that face them in their everyday lives such as drugs, pollution and the environment, crime, abuse, and unjust trade rules

- **Adaptation:** the process of protecting the populations and infrastructure of a country or a region from the adverse impacts/effects/of climate change.
- **Adaptation Fund:** UN fund to finance adaptation efforts in developing countries. Although the decision to create it was made as long ago as COP 7 in 2001, the fund is still not fully operational. This is expected to happen in 2009. The fund will initially be financed by a 2 per cent levy on the monetary value of emissions-reduction units issued for CDM projects. However, it may eventually incorporate other funding sources.
- **Annex 1 countries:** a list of 40 industrialised countries (developed countries and transition economies) appearing in Annex 1 of the UNFCCC that have taken on binding mitigation commitments and other obligations under the convention and the protocol.
- **APRODEV:** the association of development and humanitarian aid organisations in Europe which work closely with the World Council of Churches.
- **Carbon trading:** the buying and selling of carbon credits or permits by companies and countries in order to meet particular sectoral or national emissions- reduction targets. A number of UN-sanctioned trading schemes, including CDM and Emissions Trading, were set up under the Kyoto Protocol.
- **Clean Development Mechanism (CDM):** set up under the Kyoto Protocol. CDM enables Annex 1 countries to meet some of their reduction targets by funding projects in developing countries (usually in industry and the energy sector) that reduce GHG emissions.
- **CH₄:** methane – a greenhouse gas.

- **Clean technology transfer:** the transfer of new low-carbon technologies – either the hardware (eg wind turbines, solar panels) or giving access to the manufacturing know-how. Usually refers to North-South transfers but transfers could also be South-South.
- **Climate:** the typical weather conditions pertaining to a particular place.
- **Climate change:** the disruption of the global climate and weather system – beyond any naturally occurring cycle – due to man-made greenhouse gas emissions.
- **Climate change impacts:** the direct hydrological/ meteorological or socio-economic effects of climate change, eg temperature rises, stronger and more frequent storms, sea-level rise, drought, floods, glacial melting etc (hydro-meteorological); and declining crop yields, diminished fish stocks, disease, hunger, migration etc (socio-economic).
- **CO₂:** carbon dioxide – a greenhouse gas.
- **COPs:** annual conference of the parties.
- **Cancun 2010:** parties to the UNFCCC will meet in December 2010 in Cancun to agree on new commitments and actions under the convention and the Kyoto Protocol; these will come into force after 2012.
- **Countdown to Copenhagen:** climate change campaign led by Christian Aid and sister APRODEV agencies targeted at the 2009 Copenhagen meeting of UNFCCC by calling upon rich countries to drastically cut their CO₂ emissions and to finance the adaptation and clean development of less wealthy nations.
- **Global warming:** increases in the average temperature of the planet caused by increased man-made emissions of greenhouse gases trapping infra-red radiation.
- **Greenhouse Development Rights (GDRs):** a methodology supported by Christian Aid for sharing out fairly the global burden of climate change calculated according to the UNFCCC principle of shared but differentiated responsibility and capability.
- **Greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions:** the release of gases (carbon dioxide, methane, nitrous oxide and fluorinated gases) into the atmosphere from energy production, industry, transport, agriculture, waste, the cutting down of forests and other human activities.
- **IPCC:** the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. This is a panel of leading climate scientists, assembled by the UN, who meet every six years to survey and analyse the latest studies on climate change in order to agree upon a global scientific consensus on climate change.
- **Kyoto Protocol:** is an addition to the UNFCCC and was signed in 1997, but only came into force in 2005. It set out legally binding targets for emission reductions by Annex 1 countries.
- **Mitigation:** the process of dealing with the cause of climate change by reducing man-made greenhouse gas emissions.
- **N₂O:** nitrous oxide – a greenhouse gas.
- **Non-annex 1 countries:** any country party to the UNFCCC but not listed in its Annex 1.
- **Rio Declaration:** a declaration adopted at the 1992 Rio Earth summit where countries came together to sign the UNFCCC.
- **Time for Climate Justice:** climate change campaign led by APRODEV agencies targeted at the UNFCCC by calling upon rich countries to drastically cut their CO₂ emissions and to finance clean development and adaptation of less wealthy nations.
- **UNFCCC:** the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change is the key global vehicle for debating an international response to climate change.

EVENTS CALENDAR 2010

Date	Event	Place
9-8 April	World Economic Forum LAC	Cartagena, Colombia
9-11 April	UNFCCC meeting	Bonn, Germany
19-22 April	Peoples' World Conference on Climate Change and Mother Earth's Rights	Cochabamba, Bolivia
22 April	Earth Day 2010 –40th Anniversary	
10-11 May	Mercosul – India meeting	Montevideo, Uruguay
31 May – 11 June	UNFCCC intersessional	Bonn, Germany
5 June	World Environment Day	
25-26 June	G8 Summit	Muskoka, Canada
26-27 June	G20 Summit	Toronto, Canada
20-22 September	Millennium +10 Summit	New York, USA
16 October	World Food Day	
17 October	World Poverty Day	
29 November – 10 December	UNFCCC COP16	Cancun, Mexico
4 December	Global Day of Action	

LIST OF KEY WEB SOURCES

Time for Climate Justice
www.climatejusticeonline.org

Bread for All
www.bfa-ppp.ch/eng/

Brot für die Welt
www.brot-fuer-die-welt.de/english

Christian Aid
www.christianaid.org.uk

Church of Sweden
www.svenskakyrkan.se

DanChurchAid, Denmark
www.danchurchaid.org

Diakonia
www.diakonia.se/english

EED
www.eed.de/en

Finn Church Aid
www.kua.fi/en

ICCO, Netherlands (Interchurch Organisation for Development Co-operation):
www.icco.nl

Inspiration
www.inspiration.org

Norwegian Church Aid
www.nca.no

Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change:
www.ipcc.ch

UNFCCC secretariat (includes useful information on the current negotiations and texts of the treaties):
www.unfccc.int

Climate Action Network (also see 'About CAN' in 'Facilitating southern advocacy and campaigns on climate change' for links to the regional CAN websites):
www.climatenetwork.org

Climate Justice Now!:
www.climate-justice-now.org

Global Climate Campaign/Global Day of Action (12 December 2009):
www.globalclimatecampaign.org

Pan Africa Climate Justice Alliance:
www.pacja.org

World Resources Institute (good source for climate change data and policy)
www.wri.org/climate

Climate progress: for information on climate science, solutions and politics
www.climateprogress.org/2010/02/17/an-illustrated-guide-to-the-latest-climate-science/

UK Met Office
www.metoffice.gov.uk/climatechange

THE APRODEV ALLIANCE



This toolkit is an initiative of the APRODEV's Time for Climate Justice campaign. APRODEV is the association of the 17 major development and humanitarian aid organisations in Europe which work closely together with the World Council of Churches. Among its members are Church of Sweden, Diakonia, Norwegian Church Aid, DanChurch Aid, Finn Church Aid, ICCO, EED, Brot für die Welt, Bread for All, and Christian Aid.