



# Climate Change Negotiations and the Place of Agriculture

## – Background Paper

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### **1. Objectives of the paper**

The overall objective of this paper is to set the scene for discussions on how agriculture should be treated in the **United Nations Framework Convention for Climate Change** (UNFCCC), from the perspective of developing country farmers. Specific objectives are to provide concise summaries on:

- Why is climate change an issue for developing country farmers? (Page 1)
- Institutional framework for climate change negotiations (Page 4)
- History of the negotiations, and the place of forestry and agriculture (Page 5)
- What is being negotiated now in relation to agriculture (Page 8)
- Pathways to impact (Page 14)

### **2. Why is climate change an issue for developing country farmers?**

Farmers need to take climate change seriously because (i) it is likely to have significant impacts on farming activities and outputs (even in the short term through bad extreme climatic events), (ii) the agricultural sector is expected by the global community to reduce its impact on global warming, and (iii) significant funding could flow to the sector to help it adjust to new climatic conditions (adaptation) and help it contribute to lower greenhouse gas (GHG) concentration in the atmosphere through reduction of its GHG emissions and Carbon sequestration<sup>2</sup> (mitigation).

#### **2.1. Climate change is likely to have major impacts on farming and rural livelihoods**

As a preamble, it has to be noted that projections of climate change are uncertain, due to natural variability in climate, the difficulty of modelling the atmosphere's response to global greenhouse gas emissions, and the poor data, especially from developing countries, to calibrate the models. For example, estimates of the

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<sup>2</sup> Carbon sequestration means the removal and storage of carbon from the atmosphere in carbon sinks (such as oceans, forests or soils) through physical or biological processes.

cropland extent in Africa range from about 1 to more than 6 million km<sup>2</sup>!! While there is quite a lot of agreement amongst models on how temperatures will change, there is little agreement for rainfall. Another problem with the models is that they are ideally suited to exploring impacts over a fifty to hundred year period for large land masses, whereas farmers and those in agricultural development need information for specific areas for the next season and the next few decades. On top of the uncertainty in future climates, we have to add the uncertainty related to the impacts of climate change on pests and diseases. Many pests and diseases of crops and animals are sensitive to climate, and we can expect these to change in currently unpredictable ways. Some will become prevalent in areas where they were previously unknown.

Nonetheless, while the specifics of the trends are uncertain, there is widespread consensus that agriculture is likely to be significantly impacted in the coming decades in developing countries. Even a 2 degree Celsius rise in global mean temperatures by 2100, which is an optimistic scenario, will radically change the face of farming. Climate change has the potential to transform the patterns and productivity of crops, livestock and fisheries, and to reconfigure trade, markets and access. For example, in a study of the 50 most globally important crops, results illustrate a general trend where, as the world warms, suitable growing areas will shift towards cooler temperatures at higher latitudes, where most developed countries are located. Therefore, while developed countries may gain substantial production potential, many developing countries—particularly those in food-insecure subtropical and tropical regions—will likely lose out.

Many now believe it will be extremely difficult to hold the increase in global temperature below 2 degrees. A 4 degree warmer world, not at all impossible, would be generally devastating to agriculture, particularly in Africa. By 2090, agriculture in Sub-Saharan Africa would be heavily impacted, with almost all parts of Africa registering a decline in growing season length.

It is not only the future and the gradual change in conditions we have to worry about. It is the extremes in the coming seasons that may already hit farmers. Many climate scientists suggest that extreme events will be more frequent and more severe. Many strange weather patterns have been experienced around the globe in the last few years. Thus adaptation and early action can happen immediately.

Climate change will impact all aspects of farming, e.g. reduced crop yields, loss in livestock productivity, increased pests and diseases, including those associated with post-harvest storage, changes in the availability of irrigation water, negatively impacted aquaculture. There will also be some new opportunities, but in general the negative impacts outweigh the positive ones.

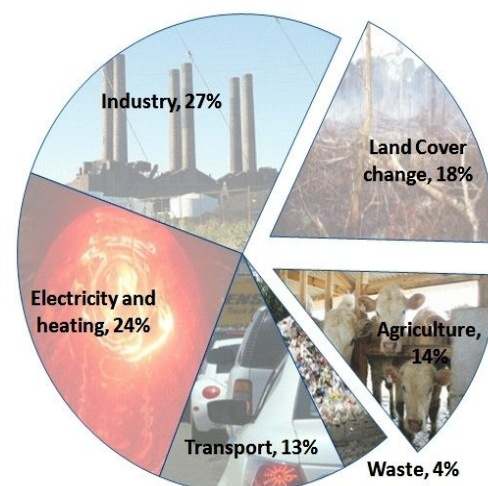
Agriculture contributes about a third to the GDP of developing countries and provides for employment of nearly two-thirds of developing countries' populations. Thus any impact of climate change on agriculture will have significant repercussions on food production, rural livelihoods and the whole economy of many developing countries. Smallholder farmers, and particularly women, will be the most affected segment of the farming community, as they are more vulnerable to shocks. In general, climate change will exacerbate existing inequalities and other development and environmental challenges that developing countries are already struggling with.

*Farmers are some of the first to acknowledge climate change, given what they perceive as its impacts on their practices and livelihoods. They talk of higher temperatures, strange weather patterns and new pests and diseases. View the three photofilms 'Two Degrees Up' on <http://www.ccafs.cqiar.org/resources/video/two-degrees-climate-change-photofilms> where farmers from Colombia, Ghana and Kenya discuss the impacts of rising temperatures and what it means for them.*

## 2.2 Agriculture as a contributor to climate change

Agriculture contributes significantly to global warming by emitting greenhouse gases (GHGs – carbon dioxide CO<sub>2</sub>, nitrous oxide N<sub>2</sub>O, and methane CH<sub>4</sub>). Agriculture is estimated to directly contribute to about 14% of global GHG emissions through farming practices (such as application of inorganic nitrogenous fertilizers, cattle farming, flood rice production, biomass burning), or around 30% if the indirect impacts of agriculture on land cover change are included because agriculture is the leading cause of forest and woodland conversion (Fig. 1). Around 80% of agricultural emissions, including deforestation, occur in developing countries, mostly in emerging countries such as China, India and Brazil, as well as tropical forest countries such as Indonesia.

The targets that must be met to keep the globe within the “safe” 2 degrees rise in temperature are extremely difficult to meet, and thus it is envisaged that all sectors will need to contribute to meeting those targets. Hence many expect agriculture to play its part in reducing its GHG emissions and in preventing land cover change.



*Fig. 1. Greenhouse gas emissions across all sectors, showing the contribution of agriculture (the direct emissions) and land cover change (indirectly contributed by agriculture).*

## 2.3 Potential finance for agriculture

The two previous sub-sections have painted a rather negative picture for agriculture. Now some good news. Given the challenges of adapting to climate change (**adaptation**) and given the need to reduce atmospheric greenhouse gas levels (**mitigation**) it is now recognised that agriculture should receive support to adapt and mitigate. Apart from public sector funding (incl. public aid) for climate change adaptation and mitigation, there is also the possibility that carbon markets<sup>3</sup> could provide finance to farmers for GHG emissions reduced or carbon sequestered.

As of December 2010, within the framework of the UNFCCC Clean Development Mechanism (CDM), about 17% of projects were agricultural and land-use forestry projects (about one thousand projects). These projects are mainly located in Asia and South America, projects in Africa accounting for 0.02% only. The voluntary Carbon market is very small compared with the regulatory market but it is more accessible for agricultural projects, being less rigid in terms of accounting systems and open to smaller scale projects. In 2007, 18% of traded volume on the voluntary market was accounted for by forestry and agricultural soil projects. However, once again, only a handful of projects were located in Africa.. Some believe that the carbon market will greatly expand if it is formalised and mainstreamed as part of the global negotiations, while others remain sceptical that the carbon market will ever be important for farmers. There is controversy around the degree to which soil C sequestration through agriculture contributes to mitigation and the transaction costs to verify it (linked to the challenges related to C accounting in soil C sequestration). In addition, concerns over the validity of the

<sup>3</sup> The Carbon market is a virtual trading system, in which people can buy and sell carbon credits, which are units of GHG emissions. The term comes from the fact that CO<sub>2</sub> is the predominant GHG and other gases are measured in units called "CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents." The **regulatory Carbon markets** are based on a Cap-and-Trade principle and involve countries or entities that need to meet their national limits on emissions, either under the UNFCCC Kyoto Protocol (Clean Development Mechanism, Joint Implementation) or under other agreements, such as that among member states of the European Union. The **voluntary Carbon markets** do not have cap to emissions and are driven by social responsibility (corporate, personal or municipal).

offsets generated by agricultural C sequestration such as lack of additionality<sup>4</sup> or uncertainty about the permanence<sup>5</sup> of the storage, could undermine the market.

Evidence that climate change funding can be significant comes from the forestry sector, where forestry has gained acceptance in the international negotiations, through the mechanism entitled Reduced Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation (REDD). The details still have to be worked out at the UNFCCC but already there are significant flows of funds for “readiness” activities for REDD<sup>6</sup>. For example, Norway’s International Climate and Forest Initiative (NICFI)’s support to national REDD strategy development and other REDD readiness efforts in Tanzania was to the tune of about US\$ 83 million over a five-year period.

### 3. Institutional framework for climate change negotiations

#### 3.1. The UNFCCC and the COP

The climate negotiations are being held within the framework of the **United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change** (UNFCCC), which is an international environmental treaty that was produced at the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) (informally known as the Earth Summit) in Rio de Janeiro, in June 1992, and entered into force in March 1994. The treaty is aimed at stabilizing greenhouse gas (GHG) concentrations in the atmosphere at a level that would prevent dangerous modifications of the climate system – commonly believed to occur around 2°C above the pre-industrial global average temperature.

The treaty as originally framed sets no mandatory limits on GHG emissions for individual nations and contained no enforcement provisions; it is therefore considered legally non-binding. However, the treaty includes provisions for updates (called “protocols”) that would set mandatory emission limits. The Kyoto Protocol, which imposes on developed countries to reduce their GHG emissions (further described in section 4 below), is the principal update of the treaty and is due to expire in 2012 without any other protocol yet agreed upon to replace it.

Within the framework of the UNFCCC, Parties<sup>7</sup> to the Convention must periodically submit national reports on implementation of the Convention, also called ‘National Communications’ (NCs), which must contain information on emissions and removals of GHGs and details of the activities a Party has undertaken to implement the Convention. Thus the UNFCCC is able to monitor the evolution of Parties’ response to climate change.

The 192 signatories, or parties, to the UNFCCC are associated within the **Conference of the Parties (COP)**, the supreme body of the Convention (i.e. its highest decision-making authority) which meets once per year.

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<sup>4</sup> **Additionality** occurs in cases in which a policy or market intervention actually causes an activity to take place. In the case of agricultural projects aspiring to be financed on the C offset market, it must be demonstrated that the crop management activities and the resulting offset reductions are a response to the incentives created by the C offset market or ‘additional’ to routine agricultural management in the absence of C offset market.

<sup>5</sup> **Permanence** refers to the evaluation of the longevity and fate of the C stored in a particular C pool (e.g. soil or tree). Such stored C carries the risk of being released back into the atmosphere through land clearing or bush fire for example.

<sup>6</sup> **REDD-Readiness** consists essentially in preparing a country for being in a position to access a REDD payment mechanism once established, and includes activities such as : preparing national strategies to reduce emissions; institutional, technical, human capacity building; designing/implementing Monitoring, Reporting, and Verification (MRV) systems, and national forest carbon accounting systems; setting baselines and reference Emissions Levels; clarifying national land, forest and carbon tenure rights.

<sup>7</sup> A **party** is a state (or regional economic integration organisation such as the European Union) that agrees to be bound by a treaty and for which the treaty has entered into force.

### 3.2 Subsidiary bodies and ad-hoc working groups

There are several bodies working in parallel and feeding their results into the overall COP meetings. There is the “**Subsidiary Board of Scientific and Technological Advice**” (SBSTA), which serves as a link between scientific and technological information and assessments provided by experts and the COP, which focuses on the overall negotiation. The “**Subsidiary Body for Implementation**” (SBI) gives advice to the COP on all matters concerning the implementation of the Convention in order to assess its overall effectiveness. This includes examination of the information in the national communications and emission inventories submitted by Parties, as well as the review of the financial assistance provided to non-Annex 1 Parties<sup>8</sup>. Both of these bodies are open to participation by any Party and governments often send representatives who are experts in the fields of the respective bodies. The SBSTA and the SBI have traditionally met in parallel, at least twice a year - usually mid-year in Bonn, at the seat of the UNFCCC secretariat, and in conjunction with the COP meeting.

In 2005, the COP established the “**Ad Hoc Working Group on Further Commitments for Annex 1 parties under the Kyoto Protocol**” (AWG-KP) which focuses on the new commitments for industrialised countries under the **Kyoto Protocol** (i.e. for a second commitment period). Established in 2007, the “**Ad Hoc Working Group on Long-term Cooperative Action under the Convention**” (AWG-LCA) focuses on developing a plan of long-term cooperation between developing and industrialised countries, focusing on the following issues: mitigation, adaptation, technology transfer and financial provision. For these two major bodies – AWG-LCA and AWG-KP, the UNFCCC convenes meetings during the first and last half of the year. These bodies advance the negotiations so that the negotiation text is at a more final stage by the time the COP convenes.

### 3.3. The IPCC

The **Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change** (IPCC) is one of the sources of expertise that feeds into the SBSTA. IPCC is a scientific intergovernmental body under the World Meteorological Organisation and the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) that reviews and assesses the most recent scientific, technical and socio-economic information produced worldwide. It has a completely different schedule from that of the UNFCCC and since 1990, it has released four assessment reports<sup>9</sup>, which are used as the basis for decisions made under the UNFCCC.

### 3.4. Parties and Observer organisations

The **signatories** to the UNFCCC (or parties) participate in the actual negotiations of COP, SBSTA, AWG-LCA and AWG-KP, but there are also many **observers** present. Observers include representatives of UN agencies, other intergovernmental organisations such as the OECD or the World Bank, as well as civil society organisations. Thus Farmers’ Organisations are eligible to register for being an observer organisation. Parties and Observers can host official side events at COP and SBSTA – these are used to focus attention on specific issues of interest. Events can also be held outside of the formal sessions. For example, the “Forest Day”<sup>10</sup>, and the “Agriculture and Rural Development Day”<sup>11</sup>, are held in locations near to the COP venue each year.

## 4. History of the negotiations, and the place of forestry and agriculture

Many would say that the international negotiations on climate change have been tortuous with little progress made. There are vastly different country positions on a multitude of issues, but especially on: how mitigation

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<sup>8</sup> **Annex 1 parties** are the industrialised countries which committed under the UNFCCC to return their greenhouse-gas emissions to 1990 levels and also accepted emissions targets for the period 2008-12 under the Kyoto Protocol. **Non - Annex 1 parties** are developing countries which do not have any emission restrictions.

<sup>9</sup> The last IPCC report was issued in 2007, and the next one is expected for 2013/2014,

<sup>10</sup> Organised by the Collaborative Partnership on Forests which includes CIFOR, ICRAF, FAO and GEF,

<sup>11</sup> Co-organised by CGIAR, FAO, World Bank and SACAU among others.

targets will be set for different countries; whether there will be international verification of target reductions; and who will pay for developing country actions on climate change.

The world's governments adopted the UNFCCC in 1992, and held the first session of the Conference of the Parties (COP) in 1995.

In 1997 at COP3 the Parties adopted the significant **Kyoto Protocol (KP)**. This included legally-binding constraints on greenhouse gas emissions for **Annex 1 countries** – these being developed countries and eastern European countries with economies in transition. Significantly, the USA did not ratify the KP. The Parties to the KP committed to reduce their emission levels of greenhouse gasses to targets that are mainly set below their 1990 levels. This commitment runs to 2012 by which time a new agreement has to be in place. Even the KP included initial thoughts about forestry and agriculture: “promotion of sustainable forest management practices, afforestation and reforestation”; “promotion of sustainable forms of agriculture”. But after this there was some confusion remaining as regards the role of “**Land Use, Land Use Change and Forestry**” (LULUCF) in meeting emission reduction targets, and there was lack of information and technology to guide “**measurement, reporting and verification**” (MRV)<sup>12</sup> for land-use activities. Nonetheless some Annex 1 countries have since included land use activities as part of their strategies to meet their mitigation targets<sup>13</sup>.

In COP5 in 1999 **capacity building** was added as a separate agenda item in the UNFCCC negotiations.

At COP7 in 2001 the Marrakesh Accord was signed which included reference to the need to provide finance to developing countries for their **National Adaptation Plans of Actions (NAPAs)**. The principles and funding for capacity building were elaborated.

At COP9 in 2003 the Parties agreed to use the **Adaptation Fund** established at COP7 primarily in supporting developing countries better adapt to climate change. The fund would also be used for capacity-building through **technology transfer**. Both these decisions have significance for agriculture as potentially the agriculture sector could be included under their activities (See further description in section 5.2 below).

From 2005 the Meeting of the Parties (**MOP**) to the Kyoto Protocol took place at the same time as COP. It was at this 2005 COP (COP11), which took place in Montreal, Canada, that the idea of **forest conservation as a mitigation strategy** was first advanced through a submission by Parties grouped under the Coalition for Rainforest Nations, and it was agreed to take it up in the SBSTA. This the SBSTA did in May 2006. Given that it is only recently that the forest mechanism has been adopted indicates the length of time needed to mature an idea.

COP 12/MOP 2 took place in Nairobi in 2006 where the Parties adopted the “**Nairobi Work Program**”. This five-year plan included focus on supporting climate change adaptation by developing countries and improving the projects for the “**Clean Development Mechanism**” (CDM). The CDM was already defined in the KP and

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<sup>12</sup> Agreeing to actions that are measurable, reportable and verifiable – known as MRV mitigation actions – is a key component in the Bali Action Plan adopted at Cop13 in 2007 and central to the negotiations about the future of the climate regime.

<sup>13</sup> See UNFCCC website:

[http://unfccc.int/national\\_reports/annex\\_i\\_ghg\\_inventories/national\\_inventories\\_submissions/items/5888.php](http://unfccc.int/national_reports/annex_i_ghg_inventories/national_inventories_submissions/items/5888.php). Denmark is a good example. Its national inventory includes: (a) Afforestation and Reforestation; (b) Deforestation; (c) Forest Management (d) Cropland Management (this includes soil carbon management; main method to reduce GHGs was improved utilisation of nitrogen in manure); (e) Grazing Land Management; (f) revegetation. If Denmark had been paid for its efforts in GHG reduction through cropland management, it would have received US\$18 million between 1990 and 2009 (at a low carbon price of \$10/ton); nearly a million dollars per year; a sizeable amount for a small country. While this would not give a lot of money to individual farmers the money could be well spent by the farmer's organisations on behalf of the farmers.

included an objective to assist non-Annex 1 parties in achieving sustainable development and in contributing to mitigation actions. CDM funds are derived from Annex 1 countries that offset some of their emissions by funding mitigation actions in developing countries. One weakness of the CDM, amongst many, was that its overly complex approach resulted in very few projects in forestry and agriculture.

In the 2007 COP 13/MOP 3 in Bali the **Bali Road Map** was adopted. This was a two-year process to finalizing a binding agreement in 2009 in Copenhagen (which failed to materialise). A really significant outcome was achieved in Bali in that “**Reduced Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation**” (**REDD**) was now firmly on the agenda, following the discussions in the SBSTA mentioned above. REDD was adopted as part of the Bali Action Plan. The Bali COP also established the AWG-LCA as a new subsidiary body to conduct the negotiations aimed at urgently enhancing the implementation of the Convention up to and beyond 2012 (2012 being the end of the KP commitments). Also in Bali the idea of **Nationally Appropriate Mitigation Actions (NAMAs)** was introduced to get nationally-driven commitments to emission reductions in developing countries. Parallel to the negotiations, the first ‘**Forest Day**’ side event organised by observer organisations took place in Bali, and has been held every year since then.

At COP 14/MOP 4 in 2008 REDD was further elaborated, and a mechanism was approved to incorporate forest protection into the efforts to combat climate change.

COP 15 took place in Copenhagen in 2009. COP 15 had the ambitious goal of establishing a global climate agreement for the period from 2012, but the COP was very disappointing and did not achieve a binding agreement for long-term action. COP15 was significant for agriculture in that the **AWG-LCA draft negotiating text** had significant reference to **agriculture**, including a **chapter** (a single page of text) on agriculture— where a work program on agriculture was proposed<sup>14</sup>. This development meant that agriculture was now considered in the larger UNFCCC process as one of the “sectoral approaches” where “sector-specific actions” can be taken to mitigate emissions. The LCA text chapter on agriculture was largely agreed in Copenhagen but the intense deadlock on all other fundamental aspects of the negotiating process prevented the entire negotiated text, including the chapter on agriculture, from being considered for approval. **REDD** was considered by many to be one of the few successes from COP15. In particular, **methodological guidance** was agreed under the SBSTA and parties began consideration of draft decision text for REDD+<sup>15</sup> that included core implementation elements. In parallel to the negotiations, the first ‘**Agriculture and Rural Development Day**’ side event took place in Copenhagen, and was repeated at COP 16. It was regarded as a major success in rallying agricultural stakeholders.

While many difficult decisions remain ahead for a post-2012 climate deal, at least some significant progress was made in the agreement that came out of COP16 in Cancún in 2010<sup>16</sup> (and so some hope was restored in the UNFCCC process after the Copenhagen COP15 debacle). In particular, a **formal REDD mechanism** for developing countries to contribute to mitigation actions was established in the **Cancún Agreements**, which adopted an overall goal for REDD+ activities and set forth a three phased approach that countries will use to achieve these objectives<sup>17</sup>. The UNFCCC SBSTA will now develop a REDD+ work program, which will amongst other topics, look at **agriculture as a driver of deforestation**.

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<sup>14</sup> This text is officially called in the negotiation process: Chapter IX: “Cooperative sectoral approaches and sector-specific actions in agriculture”.

<sup>15</sup> Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation (**REDD**) is an effort to create a financial value for the carbon stored in forests, offering incentives for developing countries to reduce emissions from forested lands and invest in low-carbon paths to sustainable development. “**REDD+**” goes beyond deforestation and forest degradation, and includes the role of conservation, sustainable management of forests and enhancement of forest carbon stocks.

<sup>16</sup> See Annex 3 for the key resolutions of the Cancún agreements.

<sup>17</sup> The first phase is ‘readiness’, which includes developing national strategies and action plans, the second phase is implementation, and the third phase is results-based-payment-for-performance.

While progress was made, the Cancún negotiations led to a **poor outcome for agriculture**. COP 16 was considered the COP when agriculture would get on the agenda, in that the chapter on agriculture, including a proposal for establishing a work program on agriculture, would be approved. However, in the last hours of negotiation the text was removed from what was eventually approved as the Cancún Agreements (see next section for reasons).

#### Main UNFCCC events relevant to Agriculture

Main Events	General outcomes
Kyoto Protocol (1997)	“promotion of sustainable forms of agriculture” mentioned
COP 9 (2003)	Adaptation Fund established, that could potentially be used to support adaptation of agriculture
COP 15 (2009)	Specific text on agriculture advanced, but overall COP agreement failed to materialise, so no text, let alone the agricultural text, was adopted
COP 16 (2010)	Text on agriculture dropped in the closing hours because of its linkage to bunker fuels and because of the controversy around trade (see section below, and boxes Contentious areas #2 and #3).

## 5. What is being negotiated now in relation to agriculture

### 5.1 The Major Aim: To get a Work Program on Agriculture

For REDD to move forwards in the negotiations it needed a concerted period of work on the options and mechanisms for providing a specific treatment to the forestry sector. This was done from the moment the SBSTA was tasked to consider REDD in 2006. Many negotiators familiar with agriculture and many countries where agriculture is a strong sector are keen to see a similar process to be initiated for agriculture. While there are lots of complexities in agriculture, one cannot expect instant agreement in the main UNFCCC process on the details. Hence the need for a work program on agriculture.

To get a work programme would mean the UNFCCC now recognises agriculture as an important issue. It will imply that the SBSTA is tasked to set up a process over a two or three year period to hammer out the details of how agriculture should be treated within the Convention. Issues to be looked at in details by the SBSTA could be for example: how to deal with trade- can foods with high carbon footprints get import tariffs, or should we just agree that all trade issues are dealt with at WTO; should agriculture be exempt from mitigation targets? (as some argue); the measurement of GHG emissions from agriculture - on a land basis or a life cycle basis (see below). The details worked by the SBSTA will then be sent as recommendations back to the main negotiating forum, where the final agreement will have to be reached.

But there are arguments against having an agricultural work program. One argument is that sector-specific approaches are not needed at the global level. Only the forestry sector has received its own specific sectoral treatment in the negotiations to date. Countries where agriculture is not important are not giving attention to pushing for an agricultural work program, and in some cases agriculture may be held to ransom by countries seeking advances in the negotiations in other non-agricultural areas.

The fact that forestry has got traction in the negotiations through the REDD+ mechanism indicates that sectoral approaches can be successful in getting on the agenda. However, agriculture differs from forestry in that mitigation in

#### **Contentious area #1:**

***Should agriculture gets its own work program? Many outside the agricultural sector don't see the need, and because views inside the agricultural sector differ in areas such as trade progress towards a work program may be slow.***

agricultural settings appears to be more complex than in forests. Firstly, the mitigation potential is lower than that for forestry (on an area basis). Secondly, it is difficult to estimate and monitor net changes in GHG emissions in agriculture because of high variability across landscapes, time scales, land ownership and management practices. Thirdly, there is a varied set of actors (e.g. agribusiness, producers, consumers) and issues (e.g. food security, national development goals, trade policy) making agricultural mitigation more controversial.

The two substantive reasons for agriculture not making the agreed text in the closing hours when the Cancún Agreement was hammered out were:

- The two sectoral negotiations – agriculture and bunker fuels – were to be placed together in the sectoral chapter – but because of controversies about bunker fuels, an overarching text for these sectors could not be agreed on. This does not seem to be a major problem and it is likely that the two sectors can be decoupled.
- Trade was a stumbling block. There are concerns about trade and subsidies to agriculture and how the current country practices drive inequity. There are countries that are willing to see agriculture excluded until the trade issue is clarified. This may also go away as a problem as negotiators seem to be willing to have some overarching text on trade that gives precedent to the international trade talks as the venue for where trade is to be negotiated.

The text required to get an agricultural work program is probably very close to what was in the draft negotiating text prior to Cancún. This text is presented in Annex 1.

***Contentious area #2: (may go away quickly)***

***Because agriculture is a sector, do we need common text to cover all the sectoral approaches? This was a problem in Cancún where agriculture got lumped with bunker fuels. Forestry has not suffered the same fate, so agriculture should not need to be lumped.***

***Contentious area #3: Trade perspectives differ widely and this has hampered progress in getting the agricultural text agreed. It seems the solution is to have some trade-related text that is sufficiently general to avert fears and to recognise that the trade issues have to be negotiated at the international trade talks.***

**The arguments for agriculture having its own work program, i.e. getting sectoral treatment, are as follows:** Unlike most other sectors:

1. **Mitigation and adaptation are both important in agriculture.** To get the synergies and to counter the trade-offs agriculture needs to be dealt with as a single sector. For example restoring soil carbon could have positive impacts for mitigation and adaptation – these have to be considered together to get the adaptation and mitigation benefits. There are also trade-offs. For example, adaptation strategies for potato growers in mountainous areas could involve moving to new areas where carbon emissions would be accelerated. If mitigation and adaptation targets are to be met, they have to be tackled together.
2. **Agriculture is crucial for local and global food security and mitigation actions should not compromise food security or, more broadly, the poverty alleviation agenda.** Agricultural development could well increase GHG emissions. To ensure complementarity amongst adaptation and mitigation, as well as achieving food security, agriculture needs to be considered in a single forum.

## 5.2 Other venues for negotiating issues related to agriculture

If agriculture does not get its own work program, then it needs to be considered under a number of different negotiating streams, and importantly the links between agriculture's various roles needs to be maintained. Even if agriculture gets its own work program, it will still be necessary to follow the negotiations under the various streams, as whatever happens in these streams could impact how agriculture is dealt with. The four main areas of negotiation that could impact developing country farmers are related to: adaptation, mitigation, REDD+ and financing. Less important, but needing a watching brief are: technology transfer, capacity building and the Kyoto Protocol.

### Adaptation

**National Adaptation Programmes of Action (NAPAs)** provide a process for **Least Developed Countries (LDCs)** to identify priority activities that respond to their urgent and immediate needs to adapt to climate change. The process of NAPA preparation is usually a bottom-up approach where stakeholders from different sectors (e.g. agriculture, health, energy, etc.) discuss and prioritise the different projects that require implementation to reduce the adverse effects of climate change. Hence NAPAs can include actions in the agricultural sector and FOs can participate in the formulation process. Upon completion, the NAPA is submitted to the UNFCCC secretariat and the LDC Party becomes eligible to apply for funding for implementation of the NAPA under the **LDC Fund**<sup>18</sup>. However the subsequent funding required for implementing the NAPAs has proven to be challenging, with only a handful of the identified projects submitted for funding, and even fewer accepted for implementation. The amount of funding currently available in the LDC Fund is clearly inadequate, while it is estimated that Annex 1 countries need to allocate up to US\$2 billion over the next five years to cover the implementation of NAPAs in the 48 LDCs.

Additionally, provisions of the UNFCCC treaty calls for **developing countries to propose adaptation projects for financing**, including specific technologies, materials, equipment, techniques, or practices that would be needed to implement such projects. These propositions are to be contained in National Communications, which are submitted to UNFCCC by developing country parties as a demonstration of their efforts to reduce the negative effects of climate change<sup>19</sup>.

Under the Kyoto Protocol (KP), the **Adaptation Fund** was established to finance concrete adaptation projects/programmes in developing countries that are Parties to the KP and to allow direct access by those Parties on the basis of their needs, views and priorities in terms of adaptation to climate change. Though launched in 2001 at COP7, the Adaptation Fund started operations in 2009 only. The Fund is primarily financed with 2% of the proceeds (i.e. issued Certified Emission Reduction-CERs) from CDM projects, complemented by voluntary pledges of donor governments. It is to be noted that its board comprises of a majority of developing countries<sup>20</sup>. Eligible Parties seeking financial resources from the Adaptation Fund can submit proposals either directly through their accredited National Implementing Entity (NIE) or using the services of accredited Multilateral Implementing Entities (MIEs), such as the World Bank, the UNDP, IFAD, WFP or UNEP. As of 31 January 2011, about US\$ 224 million have been made available to the Fund and twelve projects are currently being funded, including two in Africa. Most of these projects have a main agriculture component.

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<sup>18</sup> To date, seven of the SADC LDC members (e.g. DRC, Madagascar, Malawi, Mozambique, Zambia, Lesotho, and Tanzania) went through the rigorous NAPA process and have submitted their NAPAs to the UNFCCC.

<sup>19</sup> To date, seven of the SADC developing country members have submitted their first national communications to UNFCCC (e.g. Botswana, Mauritius, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, and Zimbabwe).

<sup>20</sup> The World Bank serves as trustee for the Adaptation Fund, and the UN Global Environment Facility (GEF) provides secretariat services.

The **overall shortage of funds for adaptation** in the future remains a central concern. UNFCCC reckons that by 2030 poor countries would need \$28-59 billion a year to adapt; the World Bank \$20-100 billion; the European Union Commission \$10-24 billion a year by 2020; and the African Group of climate change negotiators more than \$67 billion a year by 2020. While money has been available in the short term for planning strategies and initialising projects, there could be bottlenecks as more countries get their national implementing entities approved and submit project proposals. The credibility of any adaptation funding mechanism/concept will depend on its efficiency to deliver activities on the ground and the effective commitment of donor countries to provide adequate level of financing.

Recognising adaptation must be addressed with the same level of priority as mitigation, parties adopted the **Cancún Adaptation Framework (CAF)** as part of the Cancún Agreements in 2010. The objective of the CAF is to enhance action on adaptation, including through international cooperation and coherent consideration of matters relating to adaptation under the Convention. Ultimately enhanced action on adaptation seeks to reduce vulnerability and build resilience in developing country Parties, taking into account the urgent and immediate needs of those developing countries that are particularly vulnerable. Agriculture must be given adequate consideration in this framework.

**Reporting on** the implementation and benefits derived from **adaptation actions** is however a challenging issue. It is supposed to be done under the National Communications to the UNFCCC, though how this reporting will be done is unclear – the MRV systems being relatively advanced for mitigation, but not for adaptation.

## Mitigation

Current negotiations are heading in the direction whereby developing countries also agree to meet certain mitigation targets. The mechanisms to achieve these are spelt out in “Nationally Appropriate Mitigation Action Plans” (NAMAs). NAMAs represent voluntary GHG emission reduction goals by developing countries that are to be realised through technology transfer and financial support from developed countries. In essence, a NAMA is a set of policies and actions countries plan to undertake, the term NAMA recognising that different countries may take different nationally appropriate actions on the basis of equity and in accordance with common but differentiated responsibilities and respective capabilities. The results of the mitigation actions are reported back to the UNFCCC in “National Communications” (this is essentially “monitoring, reporting and verification” (MRV) but MRV may often not be used as the term because of countries nervousness about rigorous MRV systems and international scrutiny). In the NAMAs that have been produced to date, some 20 countries include agricultural activities (methane capture from livestock, grassland restoration, better fertilizer management), including 14 in Africa.

There are a number of issues in here for farmers. Firstly, some will try to argue that agriculture is very important for food security (e.g. India) or for national trade (e.g. a number of the big agricultural exporting countries), and therefore that agriculture should be exempt from having to meet mitigation targets in their countries. Similar arguments could be made for diverse sectors (e.g. related national security, business efficiency, key transport sectors, development imperatives) and given the tough emission cuts that are needed to prevent dangerous climate change, such arguments seem difficult to make.

### **Contentious area #4:**

***Should agriculture be excluded from emission targets given its crucial role in food security? Note that some arguments about food security tend to be a front for protecting major agricultural export economies, though other arguments do give primacy to food security concerns (e.g. India).***

Secondly, the unit of measurement for emissions and reduction targets is of importance to agriculture. While, in general the UNFCCC always does mitigation accounting based on land area (i.e. GHG emissions per unit of area – “**area-based accounting**”) many from the agricultural sector argue that a better measure would be to combine output and emissions (e.g. GHG emissions per unit of food output) (“**efficiency-based accounting**”). This could be done at the farm level or take a “**life cycle approach**” for the whole food chain from farm to consumer. There seems to be some validity in these alternate approaches, though how to combine them with the standard UNFCCC land-based accounting remains to be resolved. This is another major piece of work for the SBSTA work program on agriculture.

**Contentious area #5:**

***How should emissions be measured in agriculture, through area-based accounting or efficiency accounting? If the former, it would hit countries that already have high emissions but which are very efficient in terms of food produced per unit of input (e.g. New Zealand). If the latter, the important food security role of agriculture could be undermined.***

## **REDD+**

REDD+ is a mechanism to reward countries that reduce emissions from deforestation and forest degradation. In the Cancún COP 16 considerable progress was made, but many of the details need still to be hammered out. The Cancun REDD+ text calls for national plans, a national reference emission level (to be able to record how emissions are reduced by REDD activities), a robust and transparent national forest monitoring system, and a system for providing information for how safeguards – such as respecting indigenous peoples’ rights – are being addressed. In the June 2011 SBSTA a new work program on REDD+ was initiated with one of its mandates being to examine “agriculture as a driver of deforestation”. Agriculture accounts for some 90% of deforestation in Africa, with subsistence agriculture being the main culprit, followed by intensive production, and ranching being a minor driver.

**Contentious area #6:**

***How will agriculture be incorporated in REDD+? Sectoral concerns (e.g. between agriculture and forestry ministries) may prevent a true integration of agriculture into REDD+ even though agriculture is the predominant driver of deforestation. In addition, there are fears by those countries and agencies receiving REDD+ funds that the funds may be considerably reduced if agriculture is included.***

Many believe that in order for REDD+ carbon emission mitigation targets to be reached, the primary driver of forest clearing globally—agriculture—must be fundamentally addressed by governments implementing REDD+ programmes. In addition, if a purely forest protection approach is taken, this could have significant negative impacts on rural livelihoods.

Twenty current country REDD+ readiness proposals<sup>21</sup>, out of the twenty six prepared so far, have been analysed and it is apparent there is a long way to go in fully incorporating agriculture into REDD+.

## **Financing**

A crucial part of the negotiations relates to financing adaptation and mitigation actions in developing countries. In general, developing countries are dissatisfied with the progress made to date, with funding pledges and actual payments believed to be well below what is necessary and fair, given that developing countries did not cause the climate change problem (though that is now changing with some developing countries having very significant emissions, though not on a per capita basis). A recent study estimates the annual costs of adapting to climate change in the agricultural sector to be over US\$ 7 billion annually through 2050. The UNFCCC estimates US\$14 billion annually. Though this sounds like a lot of money, it is a drop in the ocean compared to what is being put on the table to solve Greece financial crisis.

<sup>21</sup> Including 9 in Africa : DRC, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Liberia, Madagascar, Republic of Congo, Tanzania, Uganda.

The Cancún Agreements include a commitment by developed countries to provide US\$30 billion in new finance for developing countries between 2010-2012, balanced between adaptation and mitigation. To date some US\$26 billion was pledged but only US\$10 billion has been deposited. Over the longer term, to 2020, some US\$100 billion is committed. To scale up financial resources, the available resources can be used to leverage additional resources (via multilateral banks and the private sector). It will also be necessary for recipient governments to be strategic and efficient in the utilisation of the financial support.

Up to now, the Global Environment Facility (GEF) has been servicing the financial mechanism of the UNFCCC. The GEF Trust Fund supports climate change mitigation and adaptation activities, including those related to agriculture. The GEF has two special funds: (a) Special Climate Change Fund (SCCF) with a focus on adaptation; and (b) Least Developed Countries Fund (LDCF) which helps LDCs with their National Adaptation Programmes of Action (NAPAs). Both funds include agriculturally-related projects. The GEF also serves as the secretariat for the Adaptation Fund which supports adaptation activities in developing countries under the KP (see the 'Adaptation' sub-section above).

In Cancún a new fund, the Green Climate Fund (GCF), was created. It is likely to manage a large proportion of the above-mentioned US\$100 billion committed in Cancún, catering for both adaptation and mitigation activities. The allocation of funding amongst sectors has not been spelt out, so it is unclear the degree to which agriculture will benefit. Energy and industry are high on the radar for funding, as is REDD+, so agriculture needs to demonstrate how it can utilise the resources for actions that achieve emission reductions and/or for actions that significantly reduce vulnerability to climate change. The first step is to ensure that agriculture is appropriately taken into account in NAMAs and NAPAs. Concurrently, we need to ensure that we have the demonstrable agricultural activities that mitigate and/or adapt (see later sub-section 'Demonstrating and promoting early action').

**Contentious area #7:**

***Will there ever be sufficient resources for climate change mitigation and adaptation in developing countries? And will agriculture get a slice of these? And will these truly be additional funds rather than rebranding old funds?***

### **Technology Transfer**

A Technology Mechanism was established at COP16 in Cancún. This is expected to facilitate enhanced action on technology development and transfer to support action on mitigation and adaptation. The degree to which the agricultural sector can benefit from this mechanism is unclear, with no sectors mentioned in the current text. A Technology Executive Committee (TEC) and a Climate Technology Centre and Network (CTCN) will be established. Based on identified needs Parties can work with the TEC and the CTCN to ensure that agriculture is given appropriate consideration.

It is unclear how important the Technology Transfer will ever be for agriculture, because most of the focus is on, for example, energy generation and efficiency. Agriculture is also special in that many adaptation and mitigation actions are going to be the result of changes in practices, not based on entirely new technologies. In general, such practices can be made widely available through extension and information services, so in many cases agriculture needs better knowledge and extension systems rather than new technologies. Technology development is relevant for new crop and livestock varieties, but here there are also complexities, because much of the ability to generate varieties is held by large multi-nationals. Agriculture for developing country situations does not seem to need a *de nova* technology transfer mechanism; it needs more support to agricultural research and extension and enhanced public-private partnerships.

### **Capacity building**

In the Cancún Agreements the importance of capacity building was confirmed, including strengthening capacities from sub-national to regional levels, enhancing stakeholder participation, and improved communication, education, training and public awareness. Further elaboration on institutional arrangements for capacity-building will be tackled at the COP in Durban.

Countries can argue for some of the resources for capacity building to go to agricultural-related activities, including, for example, the strengthening of agricultural extension to enhance climate-resilient agriculture. Once again, a first step in this regard for this particular example would be to get climate-resilient agriculture into the NAPAs and to demonstrate how an improved agricultural advisory service and/or an improved climate forecasting service for farmers would facilitate this.

### **Kyoto Protocol**

The KP commitment period ends in 2012 and it is uncertain whether a new commitment period will be agreed on. KP only applies to Annex 1 countries (developed countries) though there are mechanisms in KP that can benefit developing countries (e.g. clean development mechanism). If KP continues, it would be useful to have agriculture and land use change more prevalent in KP, as any action on the ground under KP will provide lessons for policy development under the broader COP agreements.

## **6. Pathways to impact**

### **6.1 The need for a joint response**

The power of coalitions of diverse actors has been shown in the REDD+ process, where such coalitions, thinking on the same lines, were very influential in moving the agenda forward. In the case of REDD+, even if there were some contentious issues too, the situation may have been simpler, as there was a specific set of relatively powerful developed countries willing to invest in developing countries to offset carbon emissions and a limited set of developing countries where combating deforestation made sense. The same dynamic is not apparent in the agricultural grouping where countries have a very different perspective on why their agricultural sector is important. And trade and subsidies are highly contentious issues. However, it seems important to help develop a broad coalition and to develop some common high level messages that can move the agenda forwards (examples of previously used high-level messages are in Annex 2).

It would be important for farmers to have a unified voice, cutting across developed and developing countries, and cutting across the different regional farmers' organisations in Africa. The more specific issues, where there would be differences of opinion and complex issues to sort out, need wait for the work program on agriculture.

Two key players to get involved with are FANRPAN and COMESA. These organisations have been important in developing common positions on agriculture amongst various stakeholders and have been influential in driving an agricultural agenda on the global scene.

A number of countries are important in the agricultural negotiations. It would be good for farmer's representatives to get to know their country negotiators and to feed in agriculturally-relevant information to inform the negotiation process. From the developed world, examples of countries that have taken an interest in the agricultural work program include many European Union Countries, Canada, New Zealand and the United States. The big agricultural exporters from Latin America have taken a keen interest in the agricultural negotiations, including for example Argentina, Brazil, Mexico and Uruguay. In Africa it seems that South Africa has a very influential position, being the host of the next COP and co-chairing the Transitional Committee on the Green Climate Fund. Countries like Malawi and Ethiopia have also been playing major roles in terms of agriculture.

A number of major NGOs have played a role in putting agricultural concerns in the forefront of attention. Three examples include the work of ActionAid, CARE and Oxfam.

There are some major coalitions of actors that are worth considering as partners, e.g.:

- The coalition of organisations putting on Agriculture and Rural Development Day in Durban.
- The proposed collaborative partnership on agriculture (this is still an idea that was put forward at a World Bank meeting in April, 2011)
- Farming First.

A coalition of agricultural interest groups presented Agriculture and Rural Development Day (ARDD 2009) at COP15 in Copenhagen, and a similar coalition then put on ARDD 2010 at COP16 in Cancún. This coalition is arguably one of the largest in the agricultural world, comprising international agencies, research providers, national governments agencies, private sector players, NGOs and farmer organisations. For example, at COP16 the partnership involved 19 organisations. The CGIAR Research Program on Climate Change, Agriculture and Food Security (CCAFS) and the Global Donor Platform for Rural Development were the lead organising agencies at both COP15 and COP16, together with local agencies (Copenhagen University in Copenhagen and Ministry of Agriculture in Brazil).

ARDD is not a once-off event, but rather the culmination of a process leading up the ARDD. For example, in 2010, the year started with an issues paper of the Global Donor Platform for Rural Development that set out the agenda for policy engagement in 2010. Then in June 2010 a side event was held in the Bonn meeting of the UNFCCC that set the scene for future work towards ARDD 2010. A number of relevant research papers were also commissioned in order to feed into the deliberations on ARDD 2010.

In 2011, there will be a number of key meetings, including:

- UNFCCC SBSTA (June);
- “World-wide Farmers Speak up: G20 Facing Food Challenges” June, France;
- A meeting on “The Science of Climate-Smart Agriculture” in Wageningen the Netherlands (October);
- an African Ministerial Meeting on Agriculture in relation to climate change (September);
- Agriculture and Rural Development Day at COP17;
- COP17 – note that early registration as an Observer is needed.

## 6.2 The need for an agricultural work program

At this stage, even if there are differences in perspectives on agriculture, it seems important to get an agricultural work program. At the June SBSTA meeting, there was discussion as to how to deal with agriculture, but it was agreed that SBSTA could not deal with it yet, as they have to get the mandate from the UNFCCC main

negotiating process. Thus the negotiations leading up to COP17 (i.e the Panama meeting in October) and COP17 itself will be crucial. If a coalition of important actors could already urge this, in a major media release before those meetings that would be important. At this stage it is not necessary to tackle the details of adaptation, mitigation, MRV, etc. – the message can be very blunt. For example, some would argue that a

### ***(small) Contentious area #8:***

***What term to use? Climate-smart agriculture or climate-resilient agriculture or merely sustainable agriculture? There is a big push to use the term “climate-smart agriculture” (from major international organisations) to cover win-win-wins in mitigation, adaptation and food security. There is some resistance from others (e.g. agricultural negotiators) because:***

- do only win-win-wins count – what of win-win-lose?***
- the term gives equal attention to mitigation and adaptation, and some argue that adaptation is the key concern.***

***Some are concerned that funding may have a mitigation conditionality.***

***A medium position is to use whatever term is needed in a specific context – often that will be climate-resilient agriculture or sustainable agriculture.***

simple message such as “No farmers-No deal” would be sufficient – if agriculture is not explicitly identified as a work program at the UNFCCC then the message could be sent that farmers do not support the UNFCCC process.

Reduced Emissions from Deforestation and Degradation (REDD) has gained significant policy momentum as an international mechanism for global climate change mitigation. The mobilization of funding, technical activity and institutional engagement for REDD has been relatively quick and broad. The policy and technical lessons learned over the evolution of REDD are not yet widely understood or integrated into efforts to enable and incentivize agricultural mitigation. Within the UNFCCC, there are opportunities for including agricultural mitigation through the AWG-LCA and AWG-KP negotiating tracks and through SBSTA work programmes. To create the policy space and operational feasibility necessary for an international mechanism for agricultural mitigation, parallel advancement is needed on developing a shared vision, tackling high-priority analysis, coordinating efforts among stakeholders and getting money to flow from donor governments, foundations and industry.

### 6.3 Demonstrating and promoting early action

One of the key reasons for the success of REDD+ was that there was early action on the ground, in terms of trialling different approaches and this was supported by considerable funding. This gave international policy makers some confidence that forestry could contribute to meeting emission targets. For agriculture we need pilots and testing of climate-smart agriculture or climate-resilient agriculture. This includes having solid national plans for agricultural mitigation and adaptation, moving national policy forward for climate-smart agriculture, trialling market-based mechanisms for reducing emissions, trialling ways that farmers’ organisations can contribute to reducing the transaction costs of involving 1000s of farmers in mitigation activities, testing new approaches to getting information to farmers on technologies and practices for adapting to climate change, improving climate forecasting that helps farmers deal with climate extremes, trialling index-based insurance for farmers etc. The larger the scale of piloting the more convincing it will be.

Farmers organisations could promote such demonstrating of early action, and look for finance to undertake early action.

### 6.4 Getting involved in NAPAs and NAMAs

As is indicated above, it is in NAMAs and NAPAs, or other similar national strategies, where agriculture has to be appropriately dealt with if the sector is going to benefit from the climate change negotiations and climate finance. Farmers’ organisations need to consider how to engage in these national processes in order to ensure that their interests and experience are taken into account.

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## Annex 1. The agricultural-related negotiating text that went to Copenhagen (CoP15) and Cancun (CoP16) but which was not included in the Cancun Agreements

### Chapter IX

#### Cooperative sectoral approaches and sector-specific actions in agriculture

*Note from the Chair: the paragraphs below contain further provisions on cooperative sectoral approaches and sector-specific action to enhance the implementation of Article 4, paragraph 1(c), of the Convention in the agricultural sector referred to in paragraph 57 of chapter I.*

*[The Conference of the Parties,*

*Reaffirming* the objective, principles and provisions of the Convention, in particular its Article 2, Article 3, paragraphs 1 and 5, and Article 4, paragraph 1 (c),

*Bearing in mind* [the need to][the value of] improve the efficiency and productivity of agricultural production systems in a sustainable manner,

*Recognizing* the interests of small and marginal farmers, the rights of indigenous peoples and traditional knowledge and practices, in the context of [applicable international obligations and taking into account] national laws and national circumstances,

*Recognizing* that cooperative sectoral approaches and sector-specific actions in the agriculture sector should take into account the relationship between agriculture and food security, the link between adaptation and mitigation and the need to safeguard that these approaches and actions do not adversely affect food security,

*[Affirming* that cooperative sectoral approaches and sector-specific actions in the agriculture sector should not constitute a means of arbitrary or unjustifiable discrimination or a disguised restriction on international trade,]

1. *[Decides* that all Parties, with respect to the agriculture sector and taking into account their common but differentiated responsibilities and their specific national and regional development priorities, objectives and circumstances, should promote and cooperate in the research, development, including transfer, of technologies, practices and processes that control, reduce [or prevent] anthropogenic emissions of greenhouse gases, particularly those that improve the efficiency and productivity of agricultural systems [and management of emissions from livestock] in a sustainable manner and those that could support adaptation to the adverse effects of climate change, thereby contributing to safeguarding food security and livelihoods];

2. *[[Affirms][Further decides]* that cooperative sectoral approaches and sector-specific actions in the agriculture sector should not constitute a means of arbitrary or unjustifiable discrimination or a disguised restriction on international trade[, in accordance with Article 3, paragraph 5 of the Convention];]

3. *Requests* the Subsidiary Body for Scientific and Technological Advice to establish, at its thirty-fourth session, a programme of work on agriculture to enhance the implementation of Article 4, paragraph 1(c), of the Convention, taking into account paragraph 1 above;

4. *Invites* Parties to submit to the secretariat, by 22 March 2011, their views on the content and scope of the work programme;

5. *Requests* the secretariat to compile these views into a miscellaneous document for consideration by the Subsidiary Body for Scientific and Technological Advice at its thirtyfourth session.]

## **Annex 2. Examples of the headline messages used at Agricultural and Rural Development Day 2009**

For a full paper see: [http://www.agricultureday.org/ARDDay2009/ARDD\\_Background-Paper.pdf](http://www.agricultureday.org/ARDDay2009/ARDD_Background-Paper.pdf)

1. Business as usual is not an option – otherwise the MDGs and global food security will not be achieved
2. Agricultural practices and the use of natural resources are not only a problem for climate change but also part of the solution
3. Effective agricultural adaptation and mitigation activities offer the prospects of win-win outcomes
4. Major gaps in knowledge about agriculture and climate change must be addressed
5. The climate change, food security and rural development agendas need to be coherent
6. Ambitious financing and policy reforms are needed

### Annex 3. Key resolutions of the *the Cancún Agreements*

(Source: <http://www.rainforestpartnership.org/category/news/environment/redd-environment-news/>)

The negotiations held in Cancún during the COP 16 resulted in 193 out of 194 countries adopting the Cancún Agreements on December 11th 2010. While the Cancún Agreements are quite modest and fall far short of a binding treaty to reduce global emissions, they did help reinvigorate the UN climate process. Had no agreement come out of Cancún, the prospects for the next climate conference in Durban, South Africa, would have been dim.

The following are some of the key resolutions included in the Cancún Agreements:

- **Commitment** made by the developed countries **to mobilize \$100 billion annually by 2020** to help developing countries both mitigate emissions and adapt to climate change. Decision to set up a Green Climate Fund to handle part of this new flow of funds.
- Establishment of a **Climate Adaptation Framework** and an Adaptation Committee to help establish adaptation as a funding priority and enhance international cooperation on climate change adaptation.
- Establishment of an **international Technology Mechanism** to help facilitate the deployment and sharing of clean energy technology.
- While the Cancún Agreements merely include a shared vision to limit average global warming to below 2° C, they do introduce **mechanisms for increasing transparency and streamlining reporting standards for tracking the progress** countries are making on emissions targets.
- Adoption of the **overall goal for REDD+ activities**: “to slow, halt and reverse forest cover and carbon loss.” , which goes much further than previous draft texts. The Cancún Agreements also set forth a **three phased approach** that countries will use to achieve these objectives : 1) readiness, which includes developing national strategies and action plans, 2) implementation, and 3) results-based-payment-for-performance. The Cancún Agreements also strengthened the REDD+ framework by calling for all countries, not just those that are home to forests, to take action to reduce pressures for deforestation.