WHAT ARE THE CHALLENGES FOR THE PARIS AGREEMENT IN MEETING THE NEEDS OF AFRICAN COMMUNITIES?

Recommendations of the Climate & Development Network,
October 2015

RÉSEAU CLIMAT DÉVELOPPEMENT

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PRESENTATION OF THE CLIMATE & DEVELOPMENT NETWORK

The Climate & Development Network (French acronym RC&D) brings together French-speaking NGOs working on local and/or national development in the challenging context of climate change. Set up in 2007 by the Climate Action Network-France (RAC-France) and ENDA Energie in Senegal, the RC&D counts around 70 field and advocacy NGOs in 21 African countries and France amongst its members.

Drawing on the diversity of its membership - project developers in the field or experts in international negotiations – the RC&D promotes forms of development that take climate and energy constraints into account. Its members are engaged in implementing innovative, integrated projects at local level, or striving to make the general public and national and international decision-makers more aware of the new energy and climate dynamics. The RC&D also works to give French-speaking civil society a louder voice in national, regional and international policy arenas, by holding capacity-building and information-sharing workshops and issuing joint briefing notes and position papers.

Every year, the RC&D produces a shared vision accompanied by policy recommendations. In 2010, it looked at how climate and energy issues are tackled in local development policies, in 2011 at the effective, fair governance of climate finance and then, in 2012, at specific recommendations for Rio+20. Since 2013, the RC&D has had an input into the debate on the two major events of 2015: the Sustainable Development Goals and the global climate agreement, focusing on the need for development practices to take climate and energy constraints on board (2013) and then on the key role played in Africa by renewable energy in combating poverty and climate change (2014).

The RC&D decided to step up this work in 2015, a decisive year for climate and development, by translating the priorities of African civil society into policy recommendations for COP21. Six RC&D ambassadors, from Chad, Niger, Burkina Faso, Benin and Mali, were therefore appointed to report and bring out the concerns expressed by member associations on six key issues: renewable energy and energy efficiency; adaptation, agriculture and food security; climate financing; gender; and human rights. Support for this work has come from the French Ministry of Foreign Affairs and International Development, the MAVA Foundation, ADEME, the Heinrich Böll Nigeria Foundation, OIF – IFDD, Germanwatch, HELIO International, Île-de-France Region and Claude Bartolone, President of the French National Assembly. ●

RC&D ANNUAL WORKSHOP, 2015

The RC&D held its 9th annual workshop from 14 to 18 April 2015 at the premises of CIRED (International Centre For Research on Environment and Development) in Paris, France, in partnership with the Climate Action Network (CAN) West Africa and close co-operation with French international solidarity associations belonging to Coordination Sud, namely ACF, CARE-France, CCFD-Terre Solidaire, GERES, Oxfam and Secours Catholique – Caritas France.

More than 60 people attended, including over 40 members of the RC&D and around 20 representatives of French international solidarity associations from 20 European and African countries: Benin, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Congo-Brazzaville, Côte d'Ivoire, Democratic Republic of Congo, Djibouti, Ethiopia, France, Germany, Mali, Mauritius, Morocco, Niger, Senegal, Switzerland and Togo.

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The workshop focused on the six priority themes for African civil society in the run-up to COP21. Participants were able to share analysis and field experience and develop a core of new knowledge for each theme concerning the major issues and the subjects of debate at the climate negotiations. The workshop also afforded an opportunity to build capacity in terms of advocacy, communications and use of social networks, as well as to identify the policy priorities that the RC&D should bring to the attention of decision-makers with a view to COP21. ●

IN BRIEF

Africa is the continent making the smallest contribution to greenhouse gas emissions. Nevertheless, it is already the one bearing the brunt of climate change. Economies, ecosystems and communities, especially those already weakened by poverty and the degradation of their environment, will be very directly and very adversely affected. The impacts already seen on agricultural and livestock production, on the stability of the ecosystems on which many communities depend, the availability of water and, finally, food security, human health, lifestyles and cultures can only get worse. Some population groups or countries will suffer irreversible damage, including in terms of human lives, forcing people to migrate. Without immediate action sustained over the long term to reduce the impacts of climate change, efforts to combat poverty and to promote human rights, access to health and dignity will be wiped out and the African continent's development capacity will be under threat.

The International Energy Agency has said that, to keep global warming below 2°C, we need to leave at least two thirds of our known reserves of fossil fuels, such as the coal, gas and oil that are directly responsible for global warming, in the ground[1]. Given the lifetime of infrastructure, this means in particular that it is vital for any new energy production infrastructure to operate on the basis of renewable rather than fossil energy. It implies that whole continents, including Africa, must not only adapt to the impacts of climate change but also choose an energy model based on renewable energy and energy efficiency rather than on fossil fuels.

This crisis is, however, also an opportunity to rethink development policies to make them fairer and more accessible to everyone. For instance, 70% of people in sub-Saharan Africa have no access to electricity, particularly in rural areas. Fossil fuels cannot meet the need for universal access to electricity and energy: oil, coal and gas are too expensive and difficult to import and transport to isolated rural areas. Coal in particular can be seriously damaging to health. Fortunately, the situation is beginning to change: renewable energy and energy efficiency will help African countries to meet the target of access to energy for all – including the most vulnerable and isolated. The solutions are there, they can clean up the air and create local jobs, they can contribute to improved community well-being and the fight against climate change.

Adapting the development model to cope with climate change also provides an opportunity to rethink policies and investment choices with regard to agriculture, infrastructure, housing or water management to make them more relevant to the needs of people, especially the most vulnerable groups – such as women who suffer most from the impact of climate change but are also part of the solution. Finally, it is an opportunity to encourage respect for human rights, too often threatened both by the impacts of climate change and by policies and projects carried out in the name of development or the climate.

The next international climate negotiations (COP21) will be held from 30 November to 11 December 2015 in Paris, France. The Paris summit will be decisive as it has to come up with an international climate agreement that keeps alive the hopes of limiting global warming to less than 2°C by 2100. The Climate & Development Network considers that this summit needs to address the dual challenge of combating both climate change and poverty in the worst affected countries. The RC&D is calling for an agreement which:

- **Protects and enhances** human rights and gender equality
- **Finances** the fight against climate change in the poorest and most vulnerable countries
- **Invests** massively in access to sustainable energy services for all
- **Enables** the most vulnerable people to cope with the impacts of climate change
- **Preserves** food security and the climate by investing massively in family and agro-ecological farming.

1.AIE, World Energy Outlook 2012

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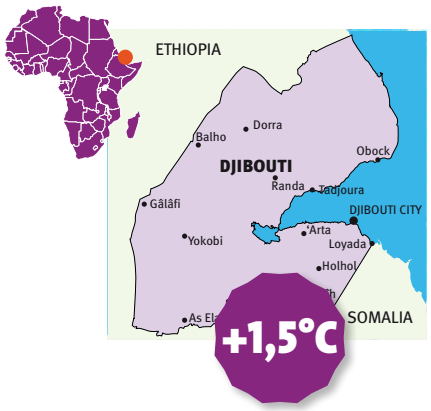
AFRICA, THE CONTINENT MOST AFFECTED BY THE CLIMATE CRISIS

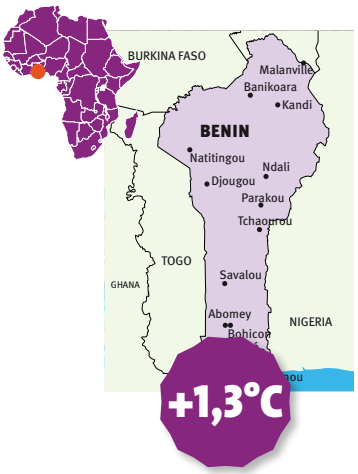
Despite its minimal contribution to greenhouse gas emissions (3.3% of global energy-related emissions in 2012)[2], Africa is presently the region most affected by climate change and likely to remain so in future. An analysis of climate data since 1950 shows an increase in intensity and frequency of extreme climate events – droughts, heavy rainfall causing flooding, etc. The food security, health and livelihoods of Africans are already feeling the effects of climate change. As we move towards global warming of more than 2°C, the fifth IPCC report notes that the temperature is likely to rise faster in Africa, especially in the arid regions. This will have an even more serious impact on agricultural production, food security, human health and water availability.

In response to this situation, the Climate & Development Network is encouraging the development of documentation on climate change issues and impacts at national and local level. In 2015, the RC&D supported the production of case studies examining the real situation in the field in Djibouti, Benin and Morocco, to illustrate the impacts of climate change in Africa and step up its advocacy in international forums, especially with a view to COP21 in Paris.

2.Chiffres clés du climat. France et Monde. Editions 2015, Repères. Service de l'observation et des statistiques.



+1.5°C average increase in the extreme minimum temperature over the decade 1991-2000 in relation to the period 1960-1990.



+1.3°C between 1960 and 2010

+1°C between 1960 and 2000

Sources : Djibouti : Rapport Météo 2006.

Bénin : deuxième communication nationale du Bénin.

Maroc : http://www.minenv.gov.ma/PDFs/CLIMAT/changements_climatiques.pdf

CLIMATE DISRUPTION

RISING TEMPERATURES

The latest IPCC report shows that Africa has already warmed by at least 0.5°C over the last 50 to 100 years.

As regards projections, according to the most optimistic scenario in the latest IPCC report, the increase in temperature will exceed 2°C as of 2080 and, in the event of intense warming, as of 2050, reaching between 3° and 6°C by the end of the century[3].

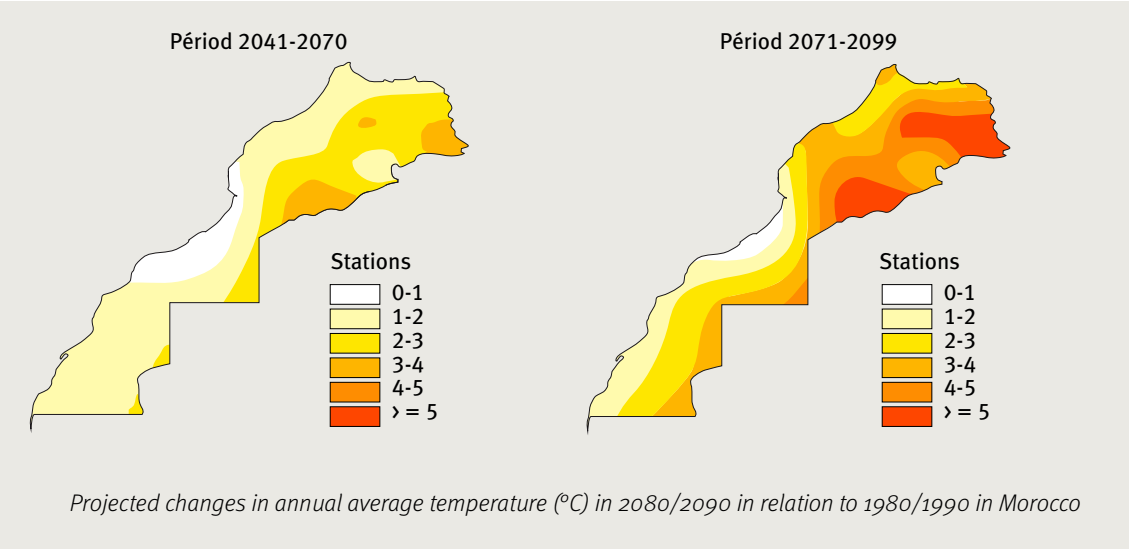
RISING SEA LEVELS

In sub-Saharan Africa, the effects of rising sea levels can already be seen in the form of salinization of ground water and coastal erosion.

In a world at +4°, the IPCC estimates that sea levels will rise faster than the global average in Africa, reaching 80 cm or more above current levels along the coasts of the Indian and Atlantic oceans by 2100. The continent is likely to hold a particularly large number of people threatened by flood risk in the coastal towns of Mozambique, Tanzania, Cameroon, Egypt, Senegal and Morocco.

To find out what scientists have to say about climate change, go to the website leclimatchange.fr

3. Africa's Adaptation Gap 2. Technical Report. Bridging the gap – Mobilising sources, AMCEN, UNEP, Climat Analytics, African Climat Finance Hub, 2015.



Projected changes in annual average temperature (°C) in 2080/2090 in relation to 1980/1990 in Morocco

Source : www.minenv.gov.ma/PDFs/CLIMAT/changements_climatiques.pdf

DROUGHTS, HEAVY RAINS AND RAINFALL VARIABILITY

According to the latest IPCC report, there is a serious shortage of data concerning annual precipitations in Africa. The available data show a very probable decrease in annual precipitations during the 20th century in the Sahelian region, along with an increase in the eastern and southern regions of the continent.

Mohammed Saddik, of the **Homme & Environnement Association:** *Morocco now receives less and less rainfall during the rainy season from September to April. In the north-western region, there has been a one third reduction in rainfall during that season between 1976 and 2006. Droughts and flooding are increasingly frequent. Combined with over-exploitation of water resources, they have caused an almost universal and very alarming drop in the water table, which is already resulting in a significantly reduced flow in water courses and the ingress of seawater into coastal groundwater, which is subject to salinization.*

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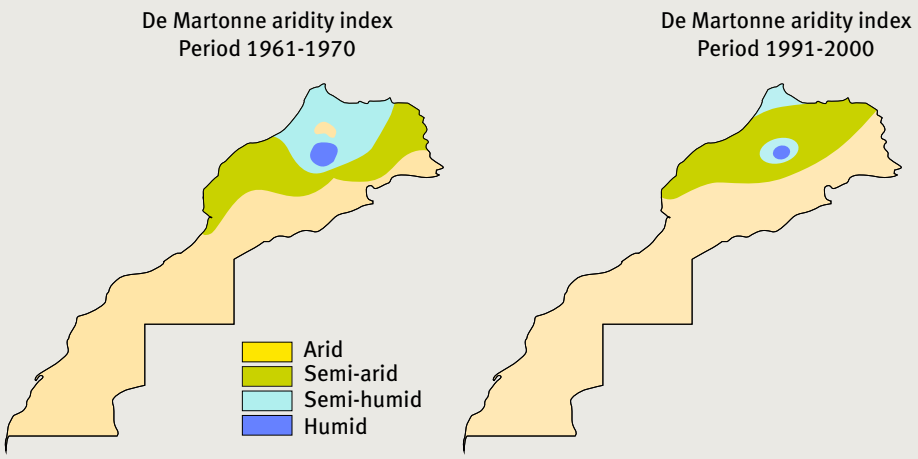
In Benin and many other African countries, agriculture is heavily dependent on the start date of the rainy season when farmers can prepare the ground and sow the crops. Until the end of the 1970s, the Ministry of Agriculture used to tell farmers when sowing could begin but, since 1980, the first rains of the year have been coming later and later, making it very difficult for the services concerned to recommend sowing dates to producers. Benin is also suffering increasingly frequent devastating floods during the rainy season. In fact, climate change is exacerbating the degradation and destruction of the gallery forests which form a natural barrier against flooding.

In Djibouti, the climate is naturally semi-desert. In rural areas, however, increasing numbers of extreme situations have been seen in recent years, with prolonged droughts being followed by violent rains which spare neither the villages nor the vegetation cover due to serious soil erosion. The flooding causes water points to silt up and can destroy farmland and rangeland, putting the local people into an even more precarious position. In addition, almost all the water used for domestic and farming activities comes from underground sources, the replenishment of which depends on rainfall and infiltration patterns that have become problematic as a result of climate change. This situation particularly affects the most vulnerable groups, i.e. both residents of the peri-urban areas around the capital, where districts receive supplies in turn while some sectors are still not connected to the drinking water network, and groups of nomadic and semi-nomadic herders who have to change their transhumance routes in order to find new grazing areas and water points.



Shifting of the arid and semi-arid climate northwards in 1991-2000 in comparison with 1961-1979 in Morocco

Source : http://www.minenv.gov.ma/PDFs/CLIMAT/changements_climatiques.pdf

DRAMATIC CONSEQUENCES FOR PEOPLE AND THE ENVIRONMENT

IMPACTS ON HEALTH

The WHO[4] estimates that sub-Saharan Africa will, in 2030, pay the highest price in terms of mortality due to climate change. Rising temperatures and changes in rainfall patterns could create new habitats conducive to the development of pathogenic organisms such as mosquitoes and lengthen the list of regions in sub-Saharan Africa prey to dengue and yellow fever and malaria. Cases of waterborne and food-related illnesses as a result of the impact on hygiene of lack or excess of water and the use of wastewater in food production are also likely to increase.

IMPACTS ON AGRICULTURE AND FOOD SECURITY

In sub-Saharan Africa, researchers agree on the vital importance of food security issues. With warming of between 1.5 and 2°C, drought and aridity will make between 40 and 80% of arable land unsuitable for growing maize, millet and sorghum by 2030-2040. Between now and 2050, the reduction in available calories could lead to a 20% increase in the number of children suffering from malnutrition (in comparison with a world unaffected by climate change), half of them in sub-Saharan Africa[5]. The most "optimistic" projections (+2°C on average on the surface of the globe) forecast that the rate of under-nutrition in Africa will rise by between 25 and 90% by 2050 (90% for West Africa)[6].

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Djibouti: A bank eroded by the wadi

© EVA

Djibouti: Trees uprooted by the floods

4. Hales S, Kovats S, Lloyd S, Campbell-Lendrum D. Quantitative risk assessment of the effects of climate change on selected causes of death, 2030s and 2050s. Geneva: World Health Organization, 2014.

5. Nelson GC, Rosegrant MW, Koo J, Robertson R, Sulser T, Zhu T, Ringler C, Msangi S, Palazzo A, Batka M, Magalhaes M, Valmonte-Santos R, Ewing M, Lee D (2009) Changement Climatique - Impact sur l'agriculture et coûts de l'adaptation. Institut international de recherche sur les politiques alimentaires, Washington, DC.

6. Lloyd, S. J., Kovats, R. S., & Chalabi, Z. (2011). Climate Change, Crop Yields, and Undernutrition: Development of a Model to Quantify the Impact of Climate Scenarios on Child Undernutrition. Environmental Health Perspectives.

In Benin, the periods of excess water, prolonged drought and gales are bound to have consequences for animal health. Periods when there is too much water are conducive to the multiplication of pathogens leading to the proliferation of diarrhoeal infections and skin diseases such as scabies among small ruminants like sheep and goats.

According to **Ahmed Ali Dimbio**, of the **EVA Djibouti association**, *the Weïma catchment basin in the north of the Republic of Djibouti is one of the most densely populated rural areas in the country. Its inhabitants mainly make a living from herding, with agro-pastoralism being a recent introduction. Like other rural areas of the country, this region has experienced serious droughts over the last few decades. More than 60% of the food supply comes from food aid provided by the WFP and, in 2011, almost 70% of households had a poor or restricted diet. The price of basic foodstuffs and meat has risen sharply: for example, meat has doubled in price since 2009 , while the price of potatoes has risen by 50% in two years*.

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Djibouti: An operation to distribute food to destitute herders

IMPACTS ON LIVELIHOODS

Climate change affects the livelihoods of people in Africa, leading to deterioration in their living conditions and, more generally, altering the traditional social structure.

The constantly falling income of farmers in Benin, closely connected with climate change, is reflected in rising poverty levels. **Saïd Hounkponou**, of the **IDID association** in Benin reports: *We have looked very closely at Dassa-Zoumè in the centre of the country. More than one head of household in five claims to have taken at least one child out of school in the last five years for financial reasons. 85% of cases of school dropout occurred during the 2007-2008 and 2010-2011 school years when harvests were very poor. In addition, their precarious situation has led 7.5% of households to place their children with other people because they were no longer able on their own to meet their needs*.

More and more young people are looking for new and more promising income sources. Again in Dassa-Zoumè, many young people are opting to leave or work as motorbike taxi drivers, which contributes to the growing shortage of farm labour. Finally, it is becoming increasingly difficult for small farmers, who regularly resort to borrowing at the beginning of the season to purchase seed, inputs and sometimes paid labour, to pay back their loans.

POPULATION MOVEMENTS AND CONFLICTS

Climate change increases population movements, particularly as sea levels rise and natural resources become ever scarcer. This means many more situations of extreme poverty and food insecurity that can trigger conflicts. In the Sudano-Sahelian zone, for example, nomadic herding communities are facing steep reductions in grazing areas and water resources, leading them to alter their transhumance patterns. This results in a concentration of people in certain areas and conflicts between farmers and herders. Since 2010, Djibouti has seen massive displacement of nomads who have gathered in particular areas following loss of their livestock and are now almost completely dependent on food aid programmes (WFP, FAO, etc.).

© DR

According to the Norwegian Refugee Council, there were almost three times more people displaced by disasters brought on by naturel hazard events (mostly weather-related events) than there were people fleeing conflicts in 2013 (in the world as a whole). Despite this, climate or environmental refugees have no legal status or specific rights. **The United Nations Environment Programme estimates that there could be 50 million environmentally displaced people in Africa in 2060.**

> ***People in rural areas are heavily dependent on natural resources which have shrunk significantly. In spite of the coercive measures under traditional law designed to protect the environment, enforcement is becoming increasingly difficult because alternatives need to be offered alongside these laws or rules so that people can live a decent life.***
>
> In the words of a customary chief, Goda region, Djibouti

A DEGRADED ENVIRONMENT

CLIMATE CHANGE EXACERBATES DESERTIFICATION AND SOIL DEGRADATION

In Djibouti, as in the whole Sudano-Saharan zone, recurrent droughts and the disruption of the rainfall cycle, which is now increasingly uncertain, contribute to desertification. This phenomenon is intensified by overgrazing as herders' livestock becomes concentrated in a few areas as a result of the sharp reduction in available pasture. In addition, seeing their main source of income dwindling, these people are increasingly engaged in cutting wood contrary to their traditional values, further upsetting the ecological balance.

BIODIVERSITY UNDER THREAT

In Djibouti, climate change has further reduced the numbers and in some cases led to the complete disappearance of endemic plant species used for their nutritional value or medicinal or aesthetic properties. At the same time, this phenomenon has encouraged the development of invasive, drought-resistant species such as Prosopis which has now colonized more than 80% of the coastal zones and plains in the south of the country. This has meant a drop in income for many operators who depend on such plants (traditional healers, sellers of traditional beauty products, etc.) and marks the decline of traditional plant-based practices. Climate change has also contributed to the increasing scarcity of species such as antelope, rabbits, warthogs, ostriches and francolins (endemic birds).

> ***In the past, when I was a young shepherd, various species of antelope and other herbivores were found alongside domestic animals close to nomadic encampments. Nowadays, to see a gazelle is unusual, pure chance.***
>
> Ahmed Meko, customary chief from Weïma region (Northern Djibouti)

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Fetching water, an arduous chore done by women and girls

INEQUALITIES, A VULNERABILITY FACTOR

Inequalities are an additional vector of vulnerability: the poorest groups who are most dependent on natural resources are the most vulnerable to the impacts of climate change. The dwindling or deterioration of a resource caused by climate change can have a direct impact on their ability to meet their own and their families' needs. Access to climate information, market prices or education also has a bearing on the adaptation capacity and/or vulnerability of individuals. This means that such vulnerable people will have a narrower range of solutions than those with highly diverse sources of livelihood. Several factors influence the level of vulnerability: gender, age, social class, ethnicity, etc.

Indigenous communities very often live in areas (mountains, forests, deserts, etc.) where access to basic social services (health, education, etc.) is already difficult, making them even more vulnerable.

Gender inequalities are also a vulnerability factor for **women**. In many countries, women have limited access to climate information, markets, resources and so on. In Africa, only 2% of women own land despite contributing 80% of food production[7].

Saïd Hounkponou : *In the Collines department in central Benin, periods of excess rainfall occur every year during the months of August to September, coinciding with harvest time for the products of the main rainy season. This activity is essentially carried out by women, who therefore bear the brunt of the heavy rainfall characteristic of the period. It is also women who deal with drying these products ready for storage, but intermittent, unexpected rainfall can soak products put out to dry.*

Child deaths account for 80% of deaths attributed to climate change[8]. Pneumonia, diarrhoea and malaria are the three major causes of child mortality and climate change makes a significant contribution to the spread of these diseases. Between now and 2050, it is thought that 25 million additional children will suffer from malnutrition due to climate change[9].

For further information, see the vulnerability studies of the Climate & Development Network on Benin, Djibouti and Morocco, available on the RC&D website

7. Gender and climate change research in agriculture and food security for rural development, FAO, CCAFS, 2nd edition, 2013.

8. UNICEF, The Challenges of Climate Change: Children on the front line, 2014.

9. Nelson G.C., et al, Climate Change: Impact on agriculture and costs of adaptation, International Food Policy Research Institute, 2009.

THE PARIS CLIMATE AGREEMENT: WHAT ARE THE STAKES FOR AFRICA?

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ENABLING ACCESS TO SUSTAINABLE ENERGY FOR ALL

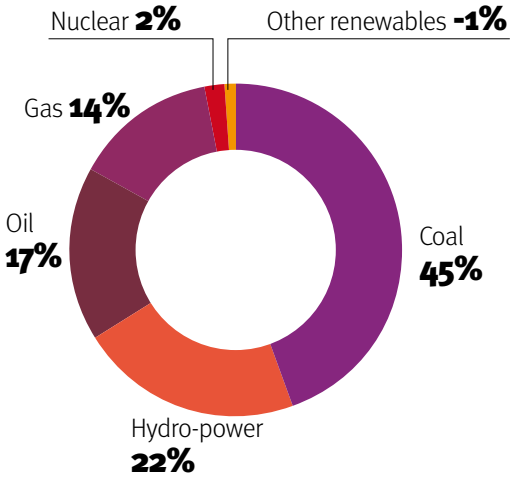
STATE OF PLAY

Very little access to energy in Africa together with heavy dependency on fossil fuels

Sub-Saharan Africa has 13% of the world's population but consumes only 4% of its energy, obtaining half of this from traditional biomass sources. The whole of sub-Saharan Africa consumes less electricity than Spain and 63% of that consumption is concentrated in South Africa. In 2014, 625 million people — 70% of the African population — still had no access to electricity and 80% of them live in rural areas. Four out of five people cook with biomass, essentially firewood, using equipment (e.g. three-stone stoves) with a deplorably low energy yield[10].

Paradoxically, in spite of its limited access to energy, Africa is heavily dependent on fossil fuels, especially to produce electricity.

Installed capacity in sub-Saharan Africa for electricity production



Source: Africa Energy Outlook, International Energy Agency, 2014.

Oil accounts for 15% of overall energy consumption in sub-Saharan Africa, while renewables, excluding the use of traditional biomass, make up less than 2% of the sub-Saharan energy mix[11].

Dependency incompatible with the fight against poverty and climate change

Costly energy sources with far too little benefit for people

landlocked countries that do not produce hydrocarbons, such as Mali, are supplied from neighbouring countries. Lengthy transport times put up the price. Being a producer country does not, however, necessarily facilitate access to energy: Nigeria exported oil worth US$89 billion in 2013, but 93 million Nigerians have no access to electricity. Furthermore, fossil fuel-based power stations primarily supply businesses, particularly multinationals, and only too rarely benefit local people. Oil and butane gas are available for the most well-off groups but remain out of reach of a large proportion of the population. States spend considerable sums to subsidize fossil energy — up to 20% of the budget of some West African countries[12] — totalling $21 billion per year in Africa. These measures do not benefit the poorest, however: 44.2% of these subsidies go to the 20% richest households, whilst the 20% poorest only get 7.8%[13]. In the end, it is the poorest people in Africa who pay the highest energy prices in the world. At the current rate, energy will only be accessible to all Africans in 2080. Worse still, they will not all have access to non-polluting cooking methods before 2150.

Outdated, inadequate infrastructure

Consumption peaks and electricity failures cost sub-Saharan Africa between 2 and 4% of its annual GDP and deepen poverty, especially amongst women and rural communities[14].

10. *Africa Energy Outlook, International Energy Agency, 2014.*

11. *Ibid.*

12. *Hans V.*, A West African Energy Transformation, *2014.*

13. *Power People Planet.* Seizing Africa's energy and climate opportunities. *Africa Progress report 2015, Africa Progress Panel.*

14. *Power People Planet.* Seizing Africa's energy and climate opportunities. *Africa Progress report 2015, Africa Progress Panel.*

Energy sources that damage health and the environment

600,000 Africans, mainly women and children, die every year due to indoor air pollution resulting from the use of biomass as fuel for cooking. Coal is also a cause of respiratory diseases. Fossil fuels and traditional biomass have adverse effects on the environment — via their use and/or exploitation (oil) — and finally on health: deforestation and degradation of the soils (biomass) but also local pollution of the water, soil and so on.

Greater disparities in health and education

The majority of African children do not have access to electricity at school[15]. The argument that developing fossil energy could help to combat poverty and develop universal access to energy, although very commonly expressed, is therefore false. On the contrary, it would mean locking African countries into costly dependency damaging to health and the environment and incapable of meeting the needs of local people, setting them on course for very high-carbon development.

In its latest report, the scientific community (IPCC) establishes that, if climate warming is to be kept below the 2°C threshold, the planet's carbon budget — i.e. the greenhouse gases we can still collectively emit — is extremely limited. According to the International Environment Agency (IEA), this means that countries will only be able to exploit and burn a maximum of one third of known fossil fuel reserves. In fact, coal, gas and oil, which make up more than 80% of the global energy mix, are mainly responsible for climate change with emissions from energy combustion accounting for two thirds of global GHG emissions[16]. A genuine energy transition is therefore necessary, beneficial and urgent.

Fortunately, solutions do exist

Africa has vast and largely unexploited potential in terms of renewable energies and energy efficiency. By way of example, less than 1% of the geothermal potential of the Rift[17] eis exploited. Africa is one of the sunniest regions in the world and yet the share of solar power in the energy mix is less than 1% in the ECOWAS area[18], Wind power potential does exist but remains largely unknown in several regions. With regard to energy efficiency, improved stoves are being widely developed in West Africa. Significant improvements are still possible in building, urban transport and the electricity grid — in ECOWAS countries, more than 10% of the electricity generated is wasted due to the rundown state of the grid[19]. Technology is available and investment in these solutions could provide a simultaneous response to the challenges of equitable development and climate change mitigation and adaptation.

CARBON BUDGET

1050 $GtCO_2$

i.e. a maximum 1/3 of known oil, gas and coal reserves

Developing renewable energies facilitates everyone's access to energy, including in the most remote rural areas, and at lower cost. The centralized grid is at an embryonic stage and the creation of stable grid infrastructure is expensive and not suited to rural areas. Conversely, decentralized mini-grid or off-grid initiatives using renewable energies are better able to meet these specific needs. According to the International Renewable Energy Agency (IRENA), renewable energies are less expensive than oil-fired generators or connections to an unstable central grid, but subsidies for fossil fuels skew prices and prevent investment in these alternatives. A gradual move towards renewable energies is therefore necessary.

Access to basic social services such as health and education is seriously hampered by lack of access to energy. The development of sustainable solutions that everyone can afford would make it possible to electrify health centres, preserve vaccines, develop evening lighting for study purposes and so on. It would also help to reduce the impacts on both health and the environment of burning biomass and fossil fuels.

15. Ibid.

16. Energy and climate change, World energy outlook special report, International Energy Agency, 2015.

17. The Rift (or East African rift) is a divergent zone between two tectonic plates, the African plate and the Ethiopian plate. It extends over several thousand km from Ethiopia to Mozambique.

18. Economic Community of West African States.

19. ECOWAS Energy Efficiency Policy, September 2012.

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The energy efficiency and renewable energy sectors offer significant, underexploited potential for local job creation, both directly and indirectly insofar as communities could then develop processing activities to generate income and help to stem rural exodus.

They also constitute a formidable vector of greater autonomy for women, who are particularly hard hit by energy poverty. With access to renewable energy, they can devote all or part of the time normally spent gathering wood to other, income-generating activities.

Finally, such solutions help to reduce the vulnerability of countries and people. In particular, they can boost agriculture by developing rural infrastructure, including fur crop storage, processing and transport. They can also help to reduce deforestation. Apart from the role the forest plays in terms of biodiversity, forest ecosystems and agro-forestry help to retain more moisture in the soils. This makes it easier to control the water cycle as well as limit erosion due to violent winds. When in good health, these ecosystems can therefore boost climate change resilience.

African local authorities now have the legal right to play an active part in managing and developing access to sustainable energy services and their funding. Unfortunately, the lack of financial resources and adequate human capacity is holding back the decentralization process and preventing them from planning investment effectively in favour of renewable energies.

WHAT ROLE CAN COP21 PLAY?

Energy is a cross-cutting issue in international negotiations although not treated as such. The words “energy”, “fossil fuels” and “renewable energies” do not appear once in the draft agreement. For more than 20 years, negotiations have failed to reduce GHG emissions because they have avoided key questions such as which energies are responsible and which energy solutions can combat climate change. Unless and until the text of the agreement and countries’ commitments tackle this issue, the Paris agreement will not be able to send out the necessary signals to investors and donors to make them understand the urgency and scale of the necessary energy transformation.

The Paris agreement: an opportunity to get an energy transition under way in Africa

One of the challenges faced by the Climate Convention since 1992 and the agreement to be signed in Paris at the end of 2015 is how to reduce GHG emissions as quickly as possible, before and after 2020. Each State has been invited to publish its climate objectives in its contribution (INDC), particularly in terms of reducing the carbon content of its energy production and consumption. For the poorest developing countries, this is not a matter of reducing current GHG emissions but of avoiding future emissions with the aid of financial and technological support from the countries historically responsible for climate change. This offers Africa a formidable opportunity to highlight its energy efficiency and renewable energy potential in order to attract funding, for the sake of the climate, for programmes which will, in the final analysis, help to speed up the development of access to energy for all and act as a lever in eradicating poverty. Moreover, African countries such as Morocco, Ethiopia, Kenya and Djibouti have submitted particularly interesting contributions focusing on significant development of renewable energies and energy efficiency, while contributions from several other countries in Africa and the South more generally have set a more ambitious mitigation target as a condition for obtaining international funding.

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The question of subsidies for fossil fuels

These efforts to develop solutions will, however, be wiped out if at the same time the international community continues to invest in and subsidize fossil fuels despite the fact that they are mainly responsible for climate change. Here again, the UNFCCC could send a strong signal to investors and industrialists and take the necessary decisions to bring use of fossil fuels gradually to an end and plan to phase out the direct and indirect subsidies currently granted to them - which in any case primarily benefit the richest. This planned end to fossil fuel use should go hand-in-hand with a redirection of these funds towards renewable energies, especially for the poorest. It is an opportunity to kill two birds with one stone by supporting the access of the least well-off people to sustainable energy services.

Making the Paris agreement a mechanism for strengthening countries' commitments

Looking at the contributions already announced by some countries, it is clear that efforts will not be sufficient to keep the increase in temperature below 2°C, so there is a need to upgrade these commitments regularly and before 2020. It is vital that the Paris agreement should include a clause whereby all commitments must be revised upwards once every five years, starting with the polluting countries historically responsible for climate change.

Without waiting for the Paris agreement, there is also a need for massive investment in the sectors of the future emitting less greenhouse gas. **The UNEP reports are clear: the main investments and efforts cannot wait until 2020, they must be made right away.** ●

To find out more about the issue of access to sustainable energy for all, see the Climate & Development Network's Briefing Note on Energy
Note de décryptage sur l'énergie du Réseau Climat & Développement, 2015

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PROTECTING FAMILY FARMING AND FOOD SECURITY

STATE OF PLAY

Agriculture, a sector that emits GHG but is also vulnerable

The agricultural sector is responsible for around one fourth of global greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. Deforestation is implicated in 50% of agricultural emissions. Making new land available for agricultural production also releases carbon. Moreover, large-scale agro-industrial operations emit large amounts of GHG due to the use of phyto-sanitary products and fertilizers. Finally, processing followed by transport of the goods also contributes to the sector's GHG emissions.

The variability and upward trend of temperatures, coupled with the increasing number and intensity of extreme climatic phenomena, is a serious threat to agriculture and small farmers in particular. Climate change also has adverse effects on fishery resources and the distribution of fish stocks – and therefore in the end on the people who depend on those resources – due to the displacement of fish and acidification of the oceans.

Food security under threat from climate change

The majority of people in the South are small producers for whom rain-fed agriculture, fishing or herding provide a livelihood, i.e. one that is heavily dependent on climatic and environmental conditions. Climate change is already undermining and will continue to undermine or destroy such livelihoods, jeopardizing these people's access to natural resources and therefore their food security.

The number of plant diseases will rise, with the attendant risks to crops. The fall in agricultural yields will also undoubtedly mean rising prices for basic foodstuffs. The IFPRI estimates that, when the climate factor is included, prices will rise by an additional 23-37% for rice, 52-55% for maize, 94-111% for wheat and 11-14% for soya[20].

Between 2030 and 2050, it is expected that climate change will cause more than 250,000 additional deaths per year due to malnutrition, malaria, diarrhoea and excess heat[21]. While 795 million people are currently suffering from hunger[22] , according to UNEP, 50% of the global population will be at risk of undernutrition in 2050 due to rising demand and climate change (in a 2°C warming scenario) as against around 30% in the absence of climate change[23].

Africa, particularly endangered

The impacts of climate change in Africa will be even more marked. If current climate trends are confirmed, wheat production could fall by between 10 and 20% between now and 2030 in comparison with average yields in the period 1998-2002[24]. Overall, warming of around 2°C in sub-Saharan Africa would also cause a 10% decrease in total agricultural yields by 2050 and this figure could rise to 15 or even 20% if the temperature rises more than that[25].

In an "optimistic" scenario of warming kept below 2°C, between 350 and 600 million Africans will suffer water shortages and the rate of under-nutrition in Africa will increase by 25-90% between now and 2050 (90% for West Africa)[26].

20. Impact of climate change on agriculture and costs of adaptation, *International Food Policy Research Institute, October 2009.*

21. WHO website, August 2014.

22. FAO, The State of Food Insecurity in the World (SOFI), 2015.

23. UNEP, Africa's Adaptation Gap 2: Bridging the gap – mobilizing sources, 2015.

24. Richard Munang, Jesica Andrews, L'Afrique face au changement climatique, *Afrique Renouveau: Édition Spéciale Agriculture 2014.*

25. Bates, B.C., Z.W. Kundzewicz, S. Wu and J.P. Palutikof, Eds., Climate Change and Water, *IPCC Technical Paper VI - June 2008, IPCC Secretariat, Geneva.*

26. Lloyd, S. J., Kovats, R. S., & Chalabi, Z. (2011). Climate Change, Crop Yields, and Undernutrition: Development of a Model to Quantify the Impact of Climate Scenarios on Child Undernutrition. *Environmental Health Perspectives.*

WHAT ROLE CAN COP21 PLAY?

Agriculture is a complicated subject in the negotiations. One of the reasons is that agriculture presents challenges in terms of both mitigation and adaptation. Another relates to the very principle of the negotiations, as the UNFCCC approach was not originally sector-based. Finally, as agriculture is a highly political topic for many States, the discussions are extremely conflictual, especially as regards mitigation. Agricultural issues are usually dealt with in the text under the umbrella of land use.

Using the climate negotiations as an opportunity to combat hunger and poverty

Food security — and therefore the promotion of family farming and agro-ecological techniques — needs to be a flagship principle for the Paris agreement and included on an operational basis, i.e. in the preamble, the general objectives and the chapter on adaptation.

The question of land use and "net zero emissions"

Some countries have proposed that the agreement should adopt as a long-term objective[27] not a global target of "zero GHG emissions" (by 2050 or the end of the century) but a "net zero emissions" target. The latter, denounced by many civil society organizations, would enable States and industry to continue emitting greenhouse gases without changing their agro-industrial model while turning towards carbon sequestration technologies. The concept of "net zero emissions" is being used by some governments and industrialists to escape any commitment to real, effective action to reduce emissions which would mean stopping the exploitation and consumption of fossil fuels and changing their agricultural model. It also poses many other problems.

On the one hand, carbon sequestration in forests or soils is not permanent, unlike the emission reductions deriving from stopping use of fossil resources[28]. . On the other, the IPCC estimates in its 5th report that scenarios which rely on carbon sequestration to avoid exceeding a 2°C rise in temperature would mean dedicating between 500 million and 6 billion hectares of land to carbon storage. By way of comparison, global agricultural production currently covers 1.5 billion hectares of land while 6 billion hectares is twice the surface area of Africa. It is completely impossible to find such large areas and in any event this could only lead to a new cycle of land-grabbing which would have dramatic consequences for food security.

Moreover, the potential benefits of carbon sequestration technologies are nowhere near proven: industrial production of biofuels might turn out to be an even greater emitter of GHG than the use of fossil fuels[29], carbon capture and storage technology is far from being mature, operational and marketable on a large scale[30] and the real benefits of biochar production have also been questioned[31]. Finally, agro-ecological techniques adopted by small farmers can sequester carbon in the soils without calling into question local people's rights and food security. On the matter of "net zero emissions" and in general terms, it is crucial for the Paris agreement to take account of the impacts of any climate policy on food security and human rights, particularly with regard to mitigation measures affecting the land sector.

27. The long-term objective is the overall target that signatories to the Paris Agreement must set themselves to guide their long-term action – by 2050 for example. The idea is to put the objective of keeping global warming below 2°C into concrete terms by sending countries and investors a clear signal as to the direction that countries have collectively decided to take.

28. A rights-based approach to land use in a future climate agreement: policy and implementation framework, *EIA and CIEL, may 2015.*

29. Du Climate and Business Summit à la COP21. Quelles solutions pour le climat ? *Action contre la Faim, Agronomes et vétérinaires sans frontières, Amis de la Terre France, CARE France, CCFD-Terre Solidaire, France Nature Environnement, Gevalor, Oxfam France, Peuples Solidaires, Réseau Sortir du Nucléaire Secours Catholique, WECF, mai 2015.*

30. Ibid.

31. African Biodiversity Network, Biochar Land Grabbing, the Impacts on Africa, 2010.

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Casting aside false solutions, giving priority to adaptation and family farming

The Global Alliance for a Climate Smart Agriculture (GACSA) was launched in New York on 23 September 2014 at the Climate Summit led by the United Nations Secretary-General. Presented as a major initiative to combat climate change in agriculture, the GACSA – supported by France and the United States in particular – and the institutionalization of the "climate smart agriculture" (CSA) it proposes are very worrying. The parties to this Alliance have refused to define the concept or establish any accountability framework, while no social or environmental criteria have yet been set out.

In addition, small farmers are barely represented, unlike the giants of the agribusiness, industrial fertilizer and pesticide, seed and biotechnology sectors, which are already stakeholders keen to award themselves the "climate smart agriculture" label. In fact, the GACSA is no more than a promoter of intensive agriculture as practiced on a large scale with its known consequences in terms of impact on the environment and people.

The Paris Agreement should not seek to promote an agricultural model based on agribusiness or apparent increases in land productivity that ignore ecological and food security issues. Nor should it push for climate smart agriculture and its global Alliance by, for example, including them in the Lima Paris Action Agenda (previously called Solutions Agenda)[32].

On the contrary, the real challenge is to turn to genuine solutions capable of addressing the issues of mitigation and adaptation as well as respect for human rights. This means preserving and funding smallholder farming, which is the primary form of agriculture in the world with around 500 million farms[33], together with agro-ecological practices. Low GHG emitters, these are the solutions best able to ensure everyone's food and nutritional security, improve small producers' yields and income, develop sustainable agriculture that does not rely on fossil fuels and improve small farmers' resilience in the face of extreme climate events. The climate negotiations should also tackle the need for support, especially financial support, for adaptation strategies that can boost the resilience of communities and their food production systems. ●

To find out more, see the Climate & Development Network's Briefing Note on Agriculture and Food Security: Note de décryptage sur l'agriculture et la sécurité alimentaire du Réseau Climat & Développement, 2015

32. The Lima-Paris Action Agenda is a joint undertaking of the Peruvian and French COP Presidencies, the Executive Office of the Secretary-General of the United Nations and the UNFCCC Secretariat. It is aimed to encourage action and commitments by non-state actors.

33. Coordination SUD, Recommendations of the Climate and Development Committee for the Lima conference on climate change. Les agricultures familiales sont incontournables dans la lutte contre les changements climatiques ! [Family farms are key to the fight against climate change] *2014.*

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GIVING THE SAME PRIORITY TO ADAPTATION AND LOSS AND DAMAGE AS TO MITIGATION

STATE OF PLAY

Adaptation, a priority for developing countries

Adaptation is a priority for developing countries, especially the poorest and most vulnerable such as sub-Saharan African countries or small island states. It is in fact the countries least responsible for climate change which are suffering and will suffer the most from the human and economic damage it causes, whereas their ability to respond is often limited.

The ricochet effects of the impacts of climate change

Climate change already has and will continue to have an increasingly serious impact on crop and livestock production, the stability of the ecosystems that sustain many communities, the availability of water and, in the end, on food security and human health, lifestyles and culture. Without immediate, longer-term action, efforts to combat poverty and promote human rights, access to healthcare and dignity will be wiped out and the development capacity of many countries, especially in Africa, will be in jeopardy. The impacts of climate change lessen the positive effects of policies to combat poverty. For example, poor harvests due to late rains or serious droughts will significantly reduce farmers' income, so that the latter may have to give up the possibility of obtaining medical care or sending their children to school.

Furthermore, adaptation initiatives often help to generate resources and contribute to reducing poverty. For example, the practice of agro-forestry, which helps to stem the advancing desert in the Sahel, also helps to reduce expenditure on chemical fertilizers and diversify farmers' income through the sale of fruit. Finally, any development planning that does not include adaptation to future climate change in its design and implementation is at risk of maladaptation. Premature scrapping of any such infrastructure might become necessary, which would mean spending more on new infrastructure better adapted to the climate situation and the impacts of change.

Beyond adaptation: loss and damage

Even if climate warming can be limited to 2°C, it is now indisputable that some people or countries will suffer potentially dramatic damage. There is no official definition of "loss and damage", but the expression generally refers to the irreversible adverse effects of climate change which cannot be avoided through mitigation or adaptation efforts.

By way of example, rising sea levels will result in extremely significant loss and damage. The world population tends to concentrate along the coasts: 600 million people live in coastal regions less than 10 metres above sea level and 150 million people are only 1 metre away from the high tide. According to the latest IPCC report, 2°C warming would mean a 70 cm rise in sea levels by 2080, whilst 4°C warming would cause a 1 m rise by 2100, affecting 700 million people[34]. Irreversible loss and damage caused by global warming is not restricted, however, to the impacts of rising sea levels, but includes forced displacement of people, with the loss of their land, cultural identity and right to dignity.

34. Part 1 of the 5th IPCC report: The physical science basis, *Climate Change 2013, Working group 1 technical support unit, Cambridge University Press, 2013.*

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Some communities and groups more vulnerable than others

The groups most dependent on natural resources such as small farmers and agro-pastoralists, indigenous communities and women are those most affected by climate change. They are also the ones with the least capacity to adapt, due to their limited access to resources (finance, land, etc.) and their weak control over those resources.

Inequalities are an additional vector of vulnerability. Gender inequalities, age, social class or ethnicity can be amongst the factors determining people's level of vulnerability. Differential analysis taking account of those factors is therefore vital to identify the specific vulnerabilities and needs of different groups so that genuinely relevant solutions can be put forward and implemented. Community participation facilitates identification of these specific vulnerabilities and needs and can also foster a sense of ownership and enhance the impact of projects.

The key role of vulnerable groups in adapting to climate change

Nevertheless, vulnerable groups can also come up with solutions. Women and indigenous communities are the repositories of specific knowledge and adaptation capacities that need to be preserved and disseminated, especially because they often underpin the adaptation strategies most effective for the whole community (in respect of energy, food security and so on). Traditional knowledge often enables farmers and/or herders, based on observation of their own environment, to forecast meteorological trends for the season or year.

WHAT ROLE CAN THE COP21 PLAY?

Adaptation, a priority for the most vulnerable countries and their population, must be afforded the same importance as mitigation, along with loss and damage. In fact, even if mitigation measures do keep warning to below 2°C (or even 1.5°C), funding needs in terms of adaptation and loss and damage are and will be very significant and no country will be immune.

The lack of current global ambition as regards reducing greenhouse gas emissions has a direct impact on funding needs when it comes to adaptation and loss and damage: if efforts to reduce global GHG emissions are not successful, needs in respect of adaptation and loss and damage, which are already considerable, will increase even further; and if adaptation efforts are too weak, loss and damage will there again be even more significant.

This direct link between mitigation, adaptation and loss and damage needs firstly to be reflected in the adoption of a Global Adaptation Target which is directly based on mitigation pathways. Secondly, five-year review cycles for adaptation strategies need to be linked to the review cycles for mitigation policies, as well as financial flows and needs, so that progress in respect of mitigation informs the level of adaptation needed and the corresponding funding. ●

To find out more, see the Climate & Development Network's Briefing Note on Adaptation: Note de décryptage sur l'adaptation du Réseau Climat & Développement, 2015

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RAISING FINANCE TO MEET THE CLIMATE CHALLENGE

STATE OF PLAY

Existing commitments

The Climate Convention contains two flagship principles to guide countries: a principle of "common but differentiated responsibilities" for States and a principle of solidarity, whereby the Convention calls on developed countries to provide financial and technological support for developing countries. The way these principles are to be put into effect is still under debate but they can nevertheless serve collectively as rules for assessing and comparing climate-related financial mechanisms and commitments.

In Copenhagen at the end of 2009, developed countries make a collective commitment to raise $100 billion per year through to 2020 to support efforts to combat climate change in the developing countries. They also undertook to demonstrate their good faith and step up their efforts by disbursing $30 billion between 2010 and 2012. Finally, they officially approved the establishment of the Green Fund for the climate, the first UNFCCC fund dedicated to the fight against climate change and accessible to all developing countries (unlike the other existing funds).

The climate finance landscape

Several types of public and private financial flows, grants and loans from both national and international sources are available to finance the fight against climate change. Public finance goes through bilateral and multilateral funds, which can in some cases raise finance from the private sector. The current profusion of climate financing sources is reflected in a lack of co-ordination at international level and is creating an additional administrative burden for beneficiary countries.

The UNFCCC has set up several climate action funds to cover mitigation and adaptation measures. These are "multilateral" funds which manage public financing. In 2013, they amounted to €600 million per year. Since then, the initial capitalization of the Green Fund in 2014 has generated commitments of around $10 billion – a necessary first step that must nevertheless be seen against the required commitment of $100 billion per year through to 2020. The Green Fund will grant these amounts in the form of grants or loans over a four-year period (2015-2018). 50% of this Fund is to be allocated to mitigation and 50% to adaptation, half of which must go to particularly vulnerable countries, especially African States, a measure heartily approved by civil society.

Apart from the UNFCCC, there are three categories of funds. Firstly, bilateral and multilateral funds for development and the environment (World Bank, French Development Agency, etc.) contribute to some extent to financing the fight against climate change but still very often continue, in the name of development, to finance projects that are incompatible with that fight. Secondly, some developed countries have also set up bilateral funds dedicated to combating climate change. Thirdly, several multilateral funds host initiatives dedicated to the climate, some of them set up at the instigation of the World Bank.

Financing needs

According to UNEP, adaptation in all developing countries could cost $150 billion by 2025/2030 and €250-500 billion per year between now and 2050 – even if the international community succeeds in keeping climate warming below 2°C[35].

For Africa alone, this cost already means $7-15 billion per year for adaptation through to 2020 and could amount to $50 billion per year in 2050 – in the most optimistic scenario and excluding the costs of the energy transition[36]. Africa also needs to invest in its renewable energy and energy efficiency potential. This means considerable initial investment on which there will later be a return, but which very poor, highly indebted countries can presently ill afford.

35. UNEP 2014. The Adaptation Gap Report 2014. *United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), Nairobi.*

36. Africa's Adaptation Gap 2. *Technical Report. Bridging the gap – Mobilising sources, AMCEN, UNEP, Climat Analytics, African Climat Finance Hub, 2015.*

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Inadequate and too often inappropriate financial contributions

Generally speaking, it is very difficult to calculate the amount of climate financing because donor countries count very different flows, generating extremely varied estimates. For example, France counts the total value of its loans and not their concessional element, while Japan counts private financing and its export credit guarantees.

In many cases, climate financing is paid out in the form of loans. Between 44 and 51% of "climate" financial flows (from multilateral funds, ODA and dedicated funds) is disbursed in the form of grants. France primarily uses loans, at market or barely concessional rates. Grants only represented 7% of climate financing declared by the French Development Agency in 2014.

Moreover, in most cases, these financing are counted twice: once for the climate and once for Official Development Aid (ODA), despite the need to raise additional public resources to meet the challenges of both development and climate change which involve excess cost. Not only that, donor countries – the majority of whom were already failing to meet the target of devoting 0.7% of their Gross National Income (GNI) to ODA – too often redirect existing development financing towards the fight against climate change. This means that efforts in favour of the climate are made to the detriment of other key development areas such as education or health.

Furthermore, the bulk of climate financing is allocated to mitigation projects. According to the 2014 report from the Standing Committee on Finance, only 11-24% of climate financing targets adaptation, despite the fact that a majority of countries report significant needs concerning this component. In addition, some of the financing earmarked for "adaptation" are disbursed in the form of loans which do not address the adaptation and planning challenges of the poorest countries which are already heavily indebted.

In the end, it is still hard to see how the international community could be able to raise $100 billion per year between now and 2020 and no mechanism has been set up to do so.

Africa, the poor relation in climate financing

Climate financing has so far primarily targeted Asia and the Pacific. Africa looks like the poor relation for climate donors: it is estimated that only $1-2 billion is raised for adaptation in Africa from different sources (climate funds, bilateral aid, etc.). The more precise data from the CFU[37] reveal, however, that only $2.3 billion has been granted since 2003 (via dedicated climate funds) in sub-Saharan Africa, of which $600 million was approved in 2014. Only 45% of this financing is dedicated to adaptation measures, a level far below the $7-15 billion per year thought to be necessary to

37. *Climate Funds Update*, Climate Funds Regional Briefing : sub-Saharan Africa *(briefing 7), October 2014.*

finance the region's adaptation needs alone through to 2020. Considering that 45% of the African population lives in countries with the weakest adaptation capacity in the world, it is crucial to invest in systems to provide basic social services and institutional capacity-building.

As Africa does not emit much GHG, it does not take priority when financing is allocated for mitigation either. By way of example, only 2% of investments under the Clean Development Mechanism went to Africa despite the vital need for the continent to roll out access to energy for all and avoid committing to fossil fuel-based development.

According to the 2013 findings of the World Bank, less than one third of the climate financing approved for Africa has been disbursed. Countries' limited absorption capacity continues to be a barrier to access to climate financing in Africa. This means that a large part of the financing intended for African countries is taken up by intermediaries. In the last few years, several African countries have been endeavouring to strengthen their national entities so that they can benefit directly from international financing without costly intermediaries. So far, however, only the national entities of Rwanda and Senegal have succeeded in obtaining programme financing from the Adaptation Fund.

WHAT ROLE CAN COP21 PLAY?

The financial component of COP21 in Paris has several key dimensions. On the one hand, developed countries need to fulfil their commitment to raise $100 billion per year through to 2020 to finance low-carbon, climate change resilient development in the developing countries. On the other, new financial commitments for the post-2020 period need to be written into the Paris agreement to finance both adaptation and future GHG emission reductions. A majority of developing countries have put forward plans to reduce their emissions that will require international financing if they are to be implemented in full. While there will be a return on investments in energy efficiency and renewable energy in the long term, the initial cost is often too high to be borne by heavily indebted poor countries which have few financial resources and an undeveloped private sector. COP21 is an opportunity for financial players and donors to commit to massive investment in these fields without delay. The financial instruments need to be adapted to the specific features and difficulties of the target countries, particularly in Africa, and should not expect short-term returns. Finally, public resources are needed to finance adaptation, mainly because it is not generally considered profitable and does not attract private investors.

COP21 should therefore make it easier to raise appropriate financing — i.e. public financing — for development and access to sustainable energy for all and adaptation in developing countries, as well as facilitating technology transfers. This requires the creation of financial mechanisms capable of generating automatic, predictable, public revenue to ensure fulfilment of the commitments made. Fortunately, solutions do exist, such as taxing sea and air transport and taxing financial transactions in Europe. What is presently missing is the political will to put them into practice.

How financing is allocated is also key: it is vital for the bulk of financing to go to the poorest countries and be split in a more balanced way between adaptation and mitigation. Finally, redirecting investment is essential to ensure that it is always compatible with the objectives of combating climate change and respecting human rights. ●

To find out more, see the Climate & Development Network's Briefing Note on Climate financing:
Note de décryptage sur les financements climat du Réseau Climat & Développement, 2015

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REDUCING GENDER INEQUALITIES IN CLIMATE POLICIES

STATE OF PLAY

Gender inequalities, a specific vulnerability factor for women

Being a man or a woman is often amongst the deciding factors when it comes to the level of risk a person faces with regard to climate shocks and changes in the environment and economy. Women's livelihoods depend to a large extent on natural resources (water, forest products and agriculture) and are greatly at the mercy of an uncertain climate. The impacts of climate change (degradation of land and forests, falling yields, etc.) mean that resources become scarcer, making women's activities more difficult. The chore of fetching water mainly falls to women and girls in rural areas in the South. When water becomes scarce, they have to make longer and longer and sometimes dangerous journeys to fetch it, taking up more time.

Furthermore, the resources and options available to individuals to cope with these shocks and changes are also heavily dependent on gender-related social norms and expectations. Women's lack of access to economic and productive resources and the limited control they have over these, together with the obstacles they encounter in exercising their rights, make it even more difficult for them to adapt to climate change. In many countries, it can be seen that women also have limited access to climate information, markets, resources and so on.

By way of example, while women produce 60-80% of the food resources from small farms, they hold only 10-20% of land ownership titles in developing countries. This is even more marked in Africa, where only 2% of women actually own land despite contributing 80% of food production[38]. Women therefore have an extremely limited range of options and adaptation capabilities when land can no longer be cultivated.

These inequalities can also be seen when it comes to energy. The main source of energy used in Africa is biomass. As in the case of water, it is almost always the women who gather firewood, having to travel further and further to do so as a result of deforestation and recurrent drought. Moreover, most people in rural areas still use traditional stoves with very high wood consumption that bring serious health problems due to smoke (respiratory, lung and eye infections, etc.), primarily for women and children, together with the risk of burns or fires.

Women, bearers of solutions

While women and girls are affected by climate change to a greater extent than men and boys, they also play an important part in combating it. Drawing on their knowledge, experience and know-how, women can come up with concrete solutions, primarily at community level. As a result of women's management of the domestic economy and natural resources, their income-generating activities and their participation in numerous socio-cultural, political/economic and environmental protection initiatives through their groups and associations, they have a key role in ensuring food security and providing their families and communities with a livelihood.

In addition, developing renewable energies and promoting energy efficiency help to widen access to energy services (for lighting, cooking and productive activities). As a corollary, women's workload is reduced and they can find time for other tasks that may generate income. Apart from this, all members of the family can benefit from the considerable positive effects on women in terms of education, literacy, nutrition, health, economic opportunities and involvement in community affairs.

38. Gender and climate change research in agriculture and food security for rural development, *2nd edition. FAO, CCAFS, 2013.*

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WHAT ROLE CAN COP21 PLAY?

Ensuring gender-equal participation

The "Women and Gender Constituency" is one of nine groups of observers within the UNFCCC. Various international and civil society organizations are also working on issues relating to gender and the climate.

Gender balance is an important indicator of women's participation in the decision-making process and women are still under-represented in many delegations, on UNFCCC bodies and at decision-making level in countries facing the greatest risks in the context of climate change. The agreement should therefore encourage wide participation by women in the process of drawing up, implementing, monitoring and evaluating policies and action to combat climate change.

Mainstreaming gender in climate policies

Getting gender equality taken on board in climate solutions determined at international, regional, national and local level is still the greatest challenge. It is therefore vital to adopt gender equality as a guiding principle in the fight against climate change and acknowledge the differential impacts on men and women, identifying specific vulnerabilities and needs so that genuinely appropriate solutions can be worked out and implemented.

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The aim is also to progress from a "gender-sensitive" to a "gender-responsive" approach, i.e. rather than simply taking account of the capacities, needs and priorities of men and women and how decisions can have different repercussions on the position of women and men when designing development policies, programmes and projects, to move towards mainstreaming gender in budgeting and implementation with the aim of reducing inequalities. Finally, this approach needs to become reality, with gender equality written into the introductory paragraph of the text of the Agreement and stated in operational terms under the various themes of the agreement and in policies, programmes and projects at all levels. ●

To find out more, see the Climate & Development Network's Briefing Note on Gender and Climate: Genre et climat du Réseau Climat & Développement, 2015

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PROTECTING THE CLIMATE AND HUMAN RIGHTS

STATE OF PLAY

Climate change, a threat to human rights

Climate change threatens both States and their populations. Its consequences can undermine or even jeopardize access to essential services such as water, food or health and regularly serve as catalysts for inter-community or even inter-state conflicts. Climate change therefore represents a threat to human rights and in particular to the rights of certain already very vulnerable groups such as women, indigenous communities, poor farmers or traditional societies. By nature, these people live in close connection with their environment and owe their survival to the production and preservation of natural resources. In addition, certain international projects and investments which have adverse effects on the climate in developing countries create serious social and environmental risks for local communities and indigenous groups. There have, for example, been many cases of violation of land rights and human rights and of environmental degradation linked to mining or logging projects.

A paradox: human rights swept aside in the name of the climate

Some projects put forward as solutions to the climate emergency can actually create social, health and food-related problems for people. This applies to the policy of developing biofuels, which can mean taking over farmland used for food production, or to major dam projects designed to generate "clean" electricity which expropriate local communities and deprive them of their land[39]. Many rights are under threat in these cases: the right to food, land rights, the right to health, the right to housing, the right to water, the right to education, the right to energy and, more generally, the right to a decent life and the right to development.

A fair, equitable transition

The question of how to achieve a fair, equitable transition also arises. This can be done by mainstreaming the rights-based approach. For example, the fight against climate change means closing down power stations that use fossil fuels but this must go hand-in-hand with the creation of new jobs for the people who worked in the sector so that the transition does not put the people concerned into an even more precarious position.

Information and participation, too often inadequate

In order to ensure that rights are taken into account, States have a duty to inform their people about the environment and enable them to participate in environmental management and in the preparation, implementation and evaluation of policies and projects. Such measures to inform and consult people are, however, far too frequently lacking these days. Whereas new national and international rules call for communities to be consulted before projects are approved and for the rights of indigenous people in their territory to be recognized, the Santa Rita dam project in Guatemala was launched without the Q'echi communities in the region receiving any response to their request for information about this project, despite the fact that it threatens their rights of access to water and adequate food and their freedom of movement[40].

The rights-based approach

The rights-based approach involves implementing rules on the protection and promotion of human rights and preparing policies on the basis of "rights" rather than "needs". This approach implies that a right, unlike a

39. To find out more about the major dams, see the Amis de la Terre publication: À qui profitent vraiment les grands barrages?

40. WATCH THIS! *NGO Newsletter N°.11: "Santa Rita hydro-dam: A story of pain". Carbon Market Watch, 28 April 2015.*


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need, can be enforced. Its implementation therefore requires the creation of an independent legal mechanism enabling people or groups who feel that their rights have been violated to lodge a complaint. Finally, this must lead to a process which identifies the party responsible, guarantees protection of the right and, where appropriate, provides for reparation commensurate with the damage caused.

A rights-based approach also means giving priority amongst various possible mitigation or adaptation options to those which do not increase the vulnerability of the people affected or create new vulnerabilities but, on the contrary, help to protect these people and enhance their ability to live a decent life.

Inadequate UN rules

Several United Nations agencies and special rapporteurs working on human rights very clearly acknowledge the impact of climate change on human rights. In March 2008, the United Nations Human Rights Council declared that *climate change poses an immediate and far-reaching threat to people and communities around the world and has implications for the full enjoyment of human rights*.

Various standards, principles and guidelines protect human rights, including the rights of indigenous peoples. For example, ILO Convention No. 169 is one of the major binding instruments as regards the rights of indigenous communities. The World Bank has put in place social and environmental safeguards, as has the Forest Carbon Facility, to protect human rights in the programmes and projects it funds. Other bodies such as the GEF, FAO and UNDP have also adopted guidelines and policies.

Although these norms represent a great advance for human rights, standards vary according to the mechanism involved, which leads to a lack of consistency as well as problems in transmission and enforcement. These norms are unfortunately confined to the international level and barely enforced at national level.

A working group on REDD+[41] has helped to establish safeguards for human rights and the rights of indigenous peoples, but these are not very restrictive and there is no clear mechanism to ensure commitment and respect for human rights on the part of States. In addition, various references to human rights and recognition of the traditional skills of indigenous peoples as a vector of solutions were included in the Cancun Agreements in 2010.

WHAT ROLE CAN COP21 PLAY?

More and more civil society organizations – arising from the indigenous peoples' caucus, trades unions and solidarity associations – are mobilizing to ensure that human rights have a genuine place in the Paris agreement.

Human rights are a cross-cutting aspect of the fight against climate change and it is crucial to include them in the operational provisions of the Paris agreement, which need to recognize the various existing United Nations texts on rights. Account also needs to be taken of the REDD+ safeguard principles, which acknowledge and respect the rights of indigenous peoples and women, the Cancun Adaptation Framework, which recognizes traditional, local knowledge, and the principles of free, prior and informed consent (FPIC). Respect for these rights must go hand-in-hand with strengthening of the right to information and participation in the decision-making process, already recognized in the Climate Convention, to ensure that civil society and local communities can take part in decision-making at all levels.

41. REDD+ (Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation) is a mechanism established under the aegis of the UNFCCC which aims to reduce emissions from deforestation and forest degradation by generating carbon credits.

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It is also fundamentally important to ensure respect for rights by adopting social and environmental safeguards in the initiatives promoted by the Solutions Agenda as well as in projects receiving climate financing.

Furthermore, the Paris agreement needs to lay the foundations for a fair, equitable transition. Climate-related reforms and public policy have to provide support for workers from greenhouse gas-emitting sectors to ensure that the transition does not put the people concerned in an even more precarious position.

Civil society has a key role to play in ensuring that ordinary people have a voice in the climate negotiations, denouncing failure to respect rights and helping communities to force respect for their rights. It must therefore be involved in preparing and implementing the national contributions (iNDC), programmes and climate mechanisms to ensure transparency and respect for rights. Finally, States need to ensure that civil society is represented within national institutions and bodies, including those connected with the Green Fund, in order to facilitate identification of national priorities. ●

To find out more, see the Analytical report on human rights and climate change by RC&D, 2015

RECOMMENDATIONS FROM THE CLIMATE & DEVELOPMENT NETWORK

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PARIS DECLARATION, MAY 2015

The COP21 will be held in Paris in December 2015 and will lead to a global agreement on fighting climate change. On this occasion, the 75 member organizations of the Climate & Development Network (RC&D) united their voices to call on donors, governments, and negotiators to support and invest in low-carbon and climate-resilient development.

1/ AN AGREEMENT THAT PROTECTS AND REINFORCES HUMAN RIGHTS AND GENDER EQUALITY

For full climate justice, the agreement signed in Paris will have to acknowledge the specific vulnerabilities of the most affected populations, including women and indigenous communities, and protect their rights. This is the key for success in fighting climate change.

Donors, African governments, and the COP21 can and must:

- Incorporate human rights and gender equality in policies, programs, mechanisms, and projects at all levels.
- Strengthen participation by local and indigenous populations and by women in all stages of the planning process of policies, programs, and projects at the local, national, and international levels.
- Promote and strengthen the principles of transparency and accountability via reporting, monitoring, verification, appeal, and sanction mechanisms in the event of non-respect by financial partners or states.
- Analyze vulnerabilities and specificities, in order to better identify the needs of the most vulnerable local communities. Based on this analysis, determine more indicators that are sensitive to gender and human rights in climate policies and projects.
- Provide capacity building for administration and civil society stakeholders on issues related to gender and human rights.
- Eliminate discriminations, in order to facilitate access to land and to ecological and financial resources by women and indigenous populations.

2/ AN AGREEMENT THAT FINANCES THE FIGHT AGAINST CLIMATE CHANGE IN THE POOREST AND MOST VULNERABLE COUNTRIES

Climate financing for the poorest and most vulnerable countries is often neglected in negotiations and in the fight against climate change. The COP21 must demonstrate that commitments will be respected and that new commitments will be made to respond to the climate emergency in the countries suffering the most.

Donors can and must:

- Guarantee and implement direct accessibility to financing, by giving priority to the most vulnerable populations, in particular indigenous populations and women.
- Encourage and develop governance and financing for and by Africa, through support for the creation or reinforcement of national bodies, direct access to financing, and active participation by African civil society.
- Draw up a list of undertakings that should be excluded from climate and development financing: fossil fuels, "false solutions" like nuclear energy, GMOs, carbon capture and storage (CCS), climate-smart agriculture (CSA), and projects harmful to social and environmental rights.

African governments can and must:

- Consolidate their institutional framework as well as national bodies and policies; engage in capacity building, so as to develop projects eligible for and able to receive international financing.
- Incorporate climate budgets into national and local development and planning programs.
- Establish and reinforce a mechanism for monitoring and evaluating financial flows and needs at the country level.

The COP21 can and must:

- Devote at least 50% of public financing to adaptation, in the form of donations and funds that must come on top of Official Development Assistance.
- Increase the volume of climate financing that goes through UNFCCC funds, in particular the Green Climate Fund and the Adaptation Fund.
- Guarantee the additionality of the commitments and the prioritization of public financing and donations; this public financing and its links with private financing must be entered into accounts clearly and precisely.
- Create innovative financing such as the tax on financial transactions and that on maritime and aviation emissions.
- Put an end to all financing by public financial institutions that is harmful to the climate, and redirect it to low-carbon and resilient development that generates social and environmental impacts that are proven to be positive.
- Between now and the COP21, adopt a roadmap that will clarify how the commitment of 100 billion dollars per year by 2020 will be met, and according to what intermediary steps. This roadmap must provide for financing that is mostly public and that will give priority to adaptation.
- For the developed countries, guarantee that their post-2020 financial commitments will be public and will give priority to adaptation. These commitments must be separate from those devoted to the financial mechanism for loss and damage.
- Set up a monitoring and evaluation mechanism on financial flows and needs in the Paris agreement as well as at the national level — especially in the NAPAs, the NAPs, and the "national contributions" (iNDCs) — and guarantee that they are periodically revised according to mitigation patterns and climate change scenarios.

3/ AN AGREEMENT THAT MASSIVELY INVESTS IN ACCESS TO SUSTAINABLE ENERGY SERVICES FOR ALL

The last IPCC report was very clear: we must start now to speed up our efforts to reduce emissions, especially by giving up fossil fuels definitively and by investing massively in renewable energy and energy efficiency. This transition is not only possible but desirable, including in the countries that are the poorest and that emit the least amount of GHGs, because it makes it possible to reach the objectives of universal access to energy.

Donors can and must:

- Decrease and gradually give up direct and indirect subsidies for fossil fuels. Instead, renewable and energy-efficient energy should be subsidized, with the priority target being sustainable energy systems that have the greatest impact on development and the climate.
- Guarantee that the projects financed are transparent and entered into accounts; that they are subject to impact analysis; and that they have grassroots stakeholders participate in them, upstream and downstream.
- Work along with states and regions in developing energy strategies and programs to provide access to sustainable to energy services at the regional level; help incorporate those strategies and programs into sectoral policies.

African governments can and must:

- Mobilize their own additional financing to provide for the implementation of renewable energies and energy efficiency.
- Set up legislative, technical, and financial mechanisms to encourage the production and sales of sustainable energy services adapted to people's needs and ensure the development of local value chains.
- Ensure that technological projects and solutions meet local needs; see to their ownership by the local population; make sure they take into account human rights and gender inequalities.
- Provide local authorities with legal and financial resources so that they are able to provide energy to their community, and set up a funding mechanism for local communities for their energy policy.
- Promote exchanges of good practice and technology transfer.
- Develop roadmaps that are transparent and explicit with regard to development of renewable energy and energy efficiency. They should state intermediary objectives and the corresponding financial needs. These roadmaps should appear in the "national contributions" (iNDC) for post-2020.

The COP21 can and must:

- Strengthen, starting now, the existing commitments by the developing countries to reduce their GHG emissions before 2020.
- Increase post-2020 country climate commitments (INDCs) well before the Paris agreement comes into force.
- Strengthen access to renewable energy in the poorest countries, especially by providing financial and technological support.

4/ AN AGREEMENT THAT ENABLES THE MOST VULNERABLE POPULATIONS TO DEAL WITH THE IMPACTS OF CLIMATE CHANGE

Adaptation is the nº 1 priority of the least developed countries and their populations, especially in Africa. It should be given the same importance as mitigation in the agreement to be adopted in Paris and in financing strategies.

Donors and African governments can and must:

- Increase adaptation financing in the most affected countries.
- Guarantee access to resilient means of subsistence as well as the respect of human rights and of gender equality through adaptation practices.
- Give priority to adaptation by local and indigenous communities and by the most vulnerable groups, including women, as well as to community-based adaptation.
- Enhance the status of traditional and indigenous knowledge, capitalize on good practices, and promote the spread of climate information and innovations.
- Incorporate — for greater coherence — adaptation in all development, anti-poverty, and sectoral plans.
- Allocate national and local budgets for adaptation, and make national climate-change windows operational.
- Strengthen the capacities and participation of civil society for the implementation of adaptation policies and projects.

The COP21 can and must:

- Create a Global Adaptation Goal within the Paris agreement that can evolve according to mitigation and warming patterns. This means that the adaptation needs of the most vulnerable countries will increase or decrease according to the international community's efforts to reduce emissions.

5/ AN AGREEMENT THAT PRESERVES FOOD SECURITY AND THE CLIMATE BY INVESTING MASSIVELY IN FAMILY FARMING AND AGRO-ECOLOGY

Agriculture, and hence food security, are directly threatened by climate change. At the same time, industrial agriculture is responsible for a growing proportion of greenhouse gas emissions. With this as a background, the COP21 must take action on agricultural sector emissions and at the same time preserve and support low-emission and resilient agricultural models that guarantee food security.

Donors and African governments can and must:

- Give priority to family farming and their agro-ecological practices, given their crucial role in food security.
- Refuse that climate change becomes an alibi for developing an agricultural model based on the promotion of agribusiness and GMOs.
- Subject all agricultural and food security projects to prior impact studies, especially with regard to human, environmental, and social rights.

The COP21 can and must:

- Incorporate food security — and hence the promotion of family farming and agro-ecology — so that it becomes operational in the Paris agreement: it must be included in the preamble, the overall objectives, and the chapter on adaptation.
- Acknowledge the fact that it is mainly industrial agriculture that is responsible for agricultural emissions, and do not allow the agricultural sector to compensate for industrial-sector emissions.
- Require that the mitigation actions linked to land use, including carbon storage, do not negatively impact food security.
- Refuse the inclusion of the climate-smart agriculture concept and the Global Alliance for Climate-Smart Agriculture (GACSA) in the Paris agreement and in the agenda of solutions. ●

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