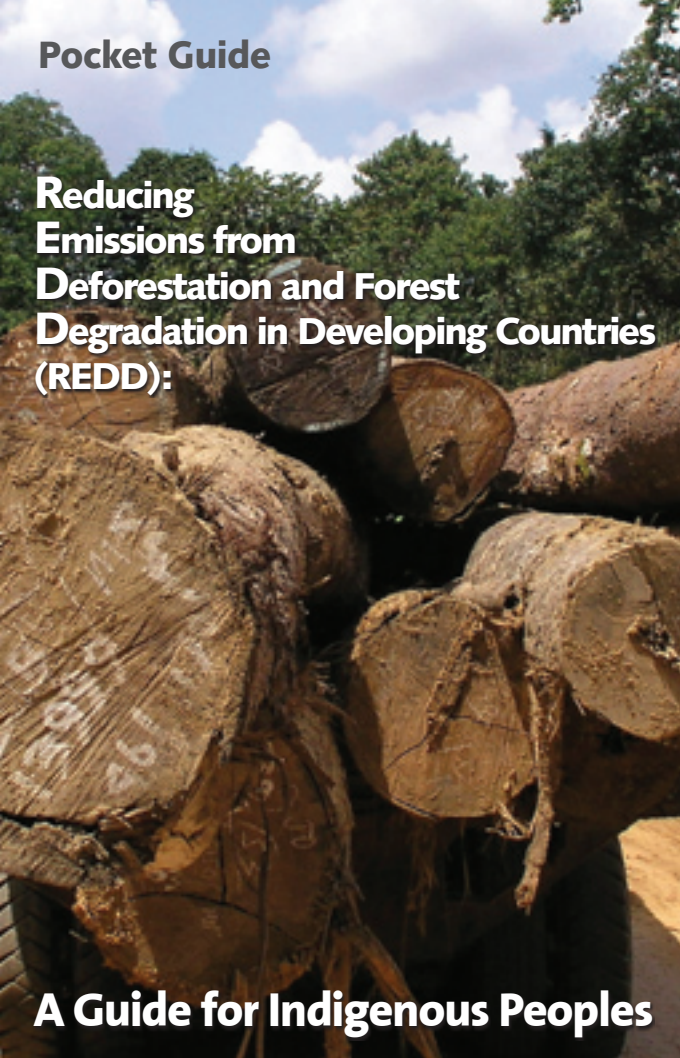
Pocket Guide

Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation in Developing Countries (REDD):



A Guide for Indigenous Peoples

This report was written by

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UNU-IAS POCKET GUIDE

Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation in Developing countries (REDD): A Guide for Indigenous Peoples

Contents

About this Guide 1

1. The World's Forests 5

1.1 Drivers and Effects of Deforestation 9

2. Climate Change 11

2.1 What is Climate Change? 11

2.2 Impacts of Climate Change on Indigenous Peoples 14

2.3 The Role of Forestry Management in Contributing to and Fighting Climate Change 16

2.4 What is REDD? 18

3. The International Response to Climate Change 19

3.1 Joint Implementation and CDM 22

3.2 The Carbon Market and Carbon Financing 24

3.3 Treatment of Forestry Activities under the UNFCCC/Kyoto Protocol 28

3.4 Recognition of Indigenous People under the UNFCCC/Kyoto Protocol 30

3.5 Post-2012 Negotiations 31

4. International Activity on REDD **34**
4.1 UNFCCC Discussions on REDD 34
4.1.1 COP 13 Bali Action Plan and Decision on REDD 36
4.1.2 SBSTA 29 Conclusions 38
4.2 Consideration of REDD in other International Fora 40

5. Opportunities and Risks **45**
5.1 Opportunities 47
5.2 Risks 50
5.3 Key Principles in Moving Forward 54
5.4 Ways to Speak Out 60

References and List of Resources **62**

Annex 1: Glossary and Abbreviations **74**

Table of Current REDD Activities **82**

About this Guide

Forests cover just over 30% of the earth's land area. They house two-thirds of our terrestrial plant and animal species (World Bank, 2008) and they provide food, shade, shelter, timber and non-timber products, medicines and many other goods and 'services'. These include helping to regulate the quality and flow of water supplies and contributing to the earth's natural carbon cycle. A large number of Indigenous peoples live in and benefit from forested areas: the Rainforest Foundation estimates that tropical rainforests are home to 50 million Indigenous forest peoples, while the World Bank estimates that around 60 million Indigenous people are 'almost wholly dependent on forests' (World Bank, 2008b).

In the context of the increasing global focus on climate change, attention is being paid to the role of the forestry sector in contributing to and fighting climate change. In particular, this includes a recent focus on opportunities for reducing greenhouse gas emissions from deforestation and forest degradation in developing countries—known as 'REDD'. Such activities can present both risks to and opportunities for the interests and rights of Indigenous peoples. For this reason, it is vital that Indigenous communities have accurate

information to help them make, and participate in, REDD-related decisions that may affect them.

This is a short guide for Indigenous communities to climate change and to the current international debate surrounding REDD. **Section 1** introduces the location and features of the world's forests, and explains deforestation and forest degradation, and their causes and effects. **Section 2** explains climate change, notes the impacts of climate change on Indigenous peoples, outlines the role of the forestry sector in both contributing to and fighting climate change, and introduces the concept of REDD.

Section 3 explains the international regime set up to address climate change, namely the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change and its Kyoto Protocol. It also explains how this climate regime addresses Indigenous peoples and how it deals with the forestry sector. **Sections 4** outlines international activity on REDD, both under the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change and in other conventions and institutions. Finally, **Section 5** canvasses some potential opportunities and risks for Indigenous groups to think about, and some tools and fora to consider, in advocating a position on REDD.

This is not a comprehensive analysis or legal guide to all aspects of REDD. Other reports have already done the former, though the extent to which they have addressed Indigenous issues has often been limited. The Reference List, included at the end of this guide, notes many additional sources of useful information. The list is divided by subject area and includes only references that are available free of charge on the Internet. These references are mostly English language references. A Glossary of Terms and Abbreviations is also included, followed by an Annex listing various multilateral and bilateral REDD efforts currently under way.

International discussions surrounding REDD have not yet taken adequate account of the interests of Indigenous peoples. Nonetheless, parties have arguably provided a greater foundation for doing so than has been the case with any previous international debate about climate mitigation mechanisms. Even if it is only state parties that have the ultimate mandate to negotiate any decision or additional agreement under the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), the unprecedented and explicit provision for consideration of Indigenous interests provides Indigenous groups with a real opportunity to have their voices

heard. Moreover, various opportunities exist for REDD-related activities outside the UNFCCC system—providing further channels through which Indigenous peoples can and must have their say on this matter.

1. The World's Forests

An area of land is a 'forest' if it is more than 0.5 hectares and contains trees higher than five metres with a canopy cover of more than 10% (FAO, 2004). In 2005, there were just under four billion hectares of forest on earth. The following ten countries house two-thirds of this: Russia, Brazil, Canada, the US, China, Australia, Democratic Republic of Congo, Indonesia, Peru and India (FAO, 2005).

Forests have a great many benefits and uses. In addition to housing two-thirds of the world's land-based biodiversity,[1] forests provide homes and livelihoods for Indigenous peoples and forest-dwellers. They also form the basis for a range of 'environmental services', being benefits gained from the environment—in this case the forest ecosystem. Such services include food, water, timber, non-timber forest products, energy, medicines and pharmaceuticals, shade, cultural, recreational and spiritual benefits. They also include the protection or regulation of other natural features, such as water catchment and quality, river flow, soil protection, wildlife habitat and the global 'carbon cycle' (see section 2). It is estimated that around 60 million Indigenous

[1] Tropical forests alone are home to approximately half of all known plant and animal species (FAO, 2008).

people are 'almost wholly dependent on forests' (World Bank, 2008b).

Figure 1: Global Distribution of Forests

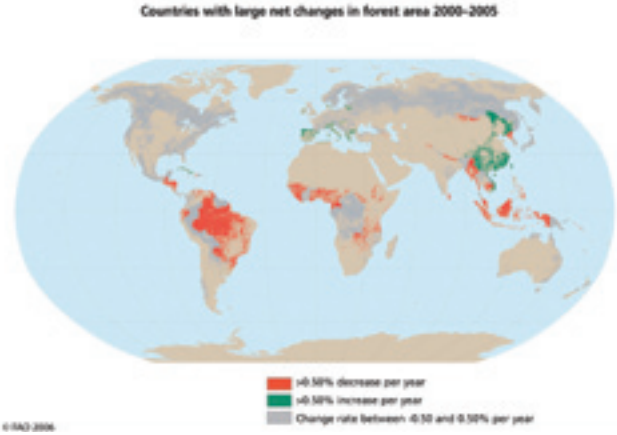
Data Source: Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, 2005
Graphic: Rekacewic and Bournay, UNEP/GRID-Arendal

While forests presently cover about 30% of the earth's land area, this global percentage has been consistently decreasing for decades due to '**deforestation**'. This occurs when a forest is

cleared and permanently converted to another use. Since 2000, the rate of deforestation has been 7.3 million hectares per year, while from 1990 to 1999 it was 8.9 million hectares per year. The highest rate of forest loss is occurring in Africa, followed by South America, with Oceania and Central America also experiencing a net loss. Asia, which had a net loss in the 1990s, reported a net gain of forests in the period 2000–2005, primarily due to large-scale '**afforestation**' (the development of a forest on previously unforested land) in China. However, Indonesia in particular continued to experience deforestation during the period 1990 to 2005 (FAO, 2005). The below figure shows where deforestation is taking place throughout the world—almost entirely within the tropics. This is particularly pertinent for Indigenous forest dwellers, given that approximately 50 million of them live in tropical rainforest areas (Rainforest Foundation, 2008).

Another serious problem is '**forest degradation**'. This occurs when the structure or function of a forest is negatively affected by external factors—such as fire, pests or pruning for firewood—thereby reducing the forest's ability to provide the services and products referred to on page 2 (FAO, 2004).

Figure 2: Changes in Global Forest Coverage (2000-2005)



Source: FAO, 2006

1.1 Drivers and Effects of Deforestation

Deforestation and degradation cause soil erosion and land degradation, a loss of biodiversity, the removal of livelihoods and homelands, and diminished environmental services. Indigenous people are often among the most affected (most recently, see Reuters, 2008). Important for addressing climate change, deforestation and degradation also reduce the amount of carbon removed from the atmosphere—a vital natural

mechanism in the fight against climate change (see section 2 below).

Very often, forested land is cleared for agricultural use, for both crop and livestock purposes (FAO, 2005). Other common reasons for deforestation include logging, the development of infrastructure, such as roads or human settlements, fuel (both firewood and charcoal) and occasionally civil unrest.

Such direct causes are sometimes compounded by indirect causes, such as:

- poor governance, law enforcement, stakeholder participation and forest management;
- uncertain or contested land rights;
- poverty; and
- a lack of institutional capabilities among local communities to ensure sustainable forest management (UNEP, 2008; Wardojo, 2008).

2. Climate Change

2.1 What is Climate Change?

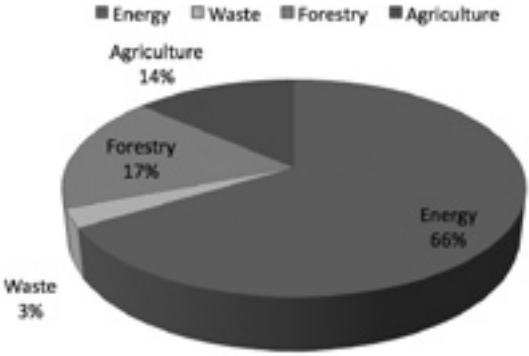
Part of the earth's atmosphere is made up of '**greenhouse gases**'. These gases absorb infrared radiation from the sun, reflect some of it back into space and emit some of it towards the earth. This natural process of trapping the sun's energy in the atmosphere, called the '**greenhouse effect**', provides for relatively stable and mild temperatures on earth. However, human activity can change the concentration of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere, which can amplify the greenhouse effect.

There are a range of greenhouse gases: water vapour, ozone, carbon dioxide methane, nitrous oxide, hydrofluorocarbons, perfluorocarbons and sulphur hexafluoride. Many human activities involve the emission of greenhouse gases. These '**human-induced**' or '**anthropogenic**' emissions have increased significantly since the start of the western industrial era from the early to mid 1800s onwards, particularly emissions of carbon dioxide. In most countries, rates of emissions are still increasing now. This is mostly because of the combustion of '**fossil fuels**', which includes gas, coal, oil and oil-derived products such as diesel. Fossil fuels are combusted to create electricity, to provide heating, to power all

forms of transportation and to power industrial processes, like mining and manufacturing activities. Together, these and other activities involving the combustion and use of energy account for around 66% of human-induced greenhouse gas emissions.

Other key activities that involve greenhouse gas emissions are waste management, agriculture, and land clearing and deforestation. The last of these accounts for around 17% of our greenhouse gas emissions (IPCC, 2007).

Figure 3: Global Greenhouse Gas Emissions in 2004 by Sector



Source: IPCC, 2007; Data represented as CO_2e

As the human-induced emission of greenhouse gases has increased, so has the concentration of these gases in the atmosphere, which is raising the earth's temperature ('**global warming**'). This is affecting other aspects of the earth's climate system—hence the term '**climate change**'. This includes rainfall patterns and ocean levels, the direction and speed of wind and ocean currents, seasonal cycles, and the likelihood and intensity of climatic disasters such as droughts, storms and floods (IPCC, 2007). These climatic changes can prompt other environmental, social and economic problems, such as:

- soil erosion and land degradation;
- the flooding or loss of low-lying lands into the ocean;
- changes to the fertility of agricultural lands;
- changes to the zones where infectious diseases occur;
- a reduction in the earth's diversity of animal and plant species; and
- a reduction of fresh water supplies (IPCC, 2007).

2.2 Impacts of Climate Change on Indigenous Peoples

It is now internationally recognised (though sometimes ignored) that climate change is having a disproportionate effect on vulnerable communities, including Indigenous peoples (IPCC, 2007). Impacts include:

- negative effects on the natural resource base of traditional Indigenous livelihoods; this includes natural resources and ecosystems important for tourism, hunting, gathering, fishing and herding;
- the melting of glaciers and polar ice—much of this in areas of significance to some Indigenous peoples;
- increased vulnerability to external influences, such as drought, flood, wildfire and invasive plants and animals;
- shortages of food, fuel or water, which may in turn prompt migration away from traditional lands; and
- threats to traditional knowledge and cultural activities that involve Indigenous peoples' relationships with land, plants and animals.

Along with affecting health and livelihoods, such impacts may affect the spiritual and

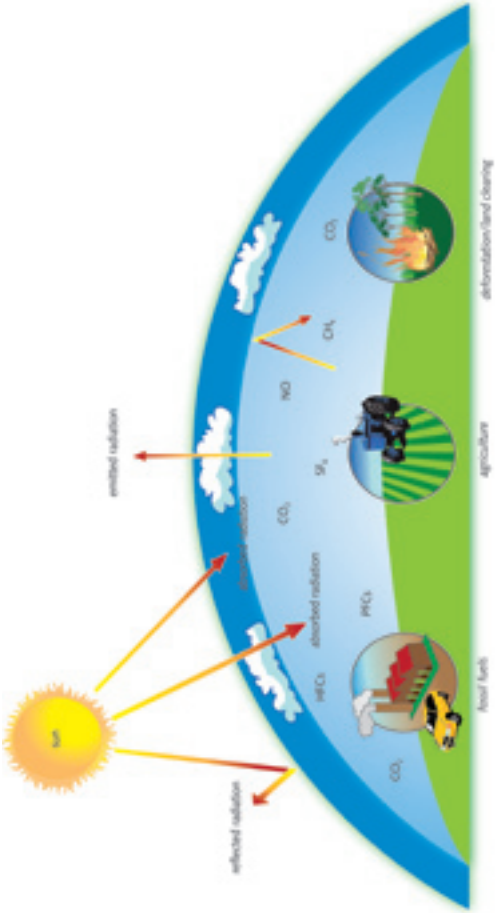


Figure 4: The Greenhouse Effect

cultural connection of Indigenous people to their lands (Oxfam, 2007). For more information on the impacts of climate change on Indigenous peoples, see the Reference List at the end of this guide.

2.3 The Role of Forestry Management in Contributing to and Fighting Climate Change

As plants, trees and microscopic fauna in the soil grow, they absorb carbon dioxide from the atmosphere, release the oxygen back into the atmosphere and store the carbon. This process is known as '**carbon sequestration**' (or carbon biosequestration). The forests and bush that sequester carbon dioxide are called '**carbon sinks**'.[2] The amount of carbon stored by forests will depend upon the type, age and health of the plants, the forest management regime in place, and disturbances, such as pests, insects and fires. Globally, forest ecosystems are estimated to be storing 50% more carbon than is contained in the entire atmosphere (FAO, 2005).[3]

[2] Another major carbon sink is oceans.

[3] Here, forest ecosystem means the wood, roots and leaves of the trees (biomass), the soil, deadwood and tree 'litter' (such as leaves, nuts, flowers and so on that have fallen from the tree).

Deforestation affects the earth's natural ability to reduce the amount of carbon dioxide emitted into the atmosphere. When land is deforested, the earth loses an important carbon sink, the trees slowly release much of their stored carbon back into the atmosphere when they die and decompose, and the tree-clearing process itself releases greenhouse gases, particularly when burning is used to clear the land. Similarly, forest degradation reduces the ability of a forest to serve as a carbon sink. Due to these activities, the amount of carbon stored in forest ecosystems globally decreased during the period 1990 to 2005 (FAO, 2005).

Conversely, sound forest management practices, afforestation, the reestablishment of a forest ('**reforestation**') and avoiding, or reducing, the rate of deforestation can contribute to the global fight against climate change. There are of course many other reasons why sustainable forest management is a good idea. Forests house a huge number of the earth's plant and animal species, provide homes and livelihoods for many people, and form a part of the natural process by which the earth's water circulates from the oceans to the atmosphere to the ground and back.

2.4 What is REDD?

Given the significant emissions from deforestation and forest degradation—most notably in developing countries—a range of stakeholders have become interested in providing positive incentives to developing countries to slow down their rates of deforestation and forest degradation. Hence the term 'reducing emissions from deforestation and degradation in developing countries' or 'REDD'. A range of domestic actions could help to reduce emissions from deforestation and degradation; these include clarification and enforcement of land and forestry rights, the establishment of reserves or parks, ensuring compensation or incentives for avoiding deforestation and altering policies that make deforestation attractive, such as agricultural subsidies.

At the international level, political discussions on REDD have mostly been taking place under the auspices of the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), though REDD is being considered in a range of other fora too. Before explaining these debates in greater detail, the international climate change regime is introduced below.

3. The International Response to Climate Change

Over the past 18 or so years, the international community has sought to respond to climate change by reducing the amount of greenhouse gases released into the atmosphere from human-related activities. This effort to reduce our emissions is called '**mitigating**' climate change. Much of this effort has been focused on reducing our use of fossil fuels and changing the way we use land—such as by reducing our rate of land clearing and deforestation, and increasing our rate of reforestation. More recently, countries have also started to try to address the effects that climate change is already having on land, ecosystems and livelihoods. This is called '**adapting**' to climate change.

An international agreement, called the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change ('**UNFCCC**') was agreed in 1992 and entered into force in 1993. This agreement provides a framework for international cooperation on climate change. In particular, it provides that countries should collect information and produce reports on their national greenhouse gas emissions and also report on their efforts to reduce emissions. It

further provides for international cooperation in climate change research and for wealthy, developed ('**Annex I**') countries to provide technological know-how and financial resources to poorer, developing ('**non-Annex I**') countries to help them respond to climate change.

The '**Kyoto Protocol**'—a subsidiary agreement under the UNFCCC—was concluded in December 1997 but did not enter into force until February 2005. All developed countries are now members of or '**parties**' to the agreement except the United States. The vast majority of the world's developing countries are also members, bringing the total number of parties to 181. As a party to the Protocol and/or the UNFCCC, the instrument is binding on that country under international law.

The Kyoto Protocol is very important because it establishes legally binding '**emissions targets**' for parties listed in Annex B to the Protocol (almost all of which are also Annex I countries under the UNFCCC). Each country's target is different.[4] A target is based on a county's recorded level of emissions during a chosen '**baseline**' year (usually 1990). Australia, for

[4] The first 15 countries of the European Union will meet their target collectively.

example, has a target of 108% of its emissions from the year 1990. Under the Protocol, Australia must achieve this target, which applies collectively to the six main greenhouse gases, between the years 2008 and 2012.[5] These targets are difficult for some countries to meet because in most cases, greenhouse gas emissions have continued to increase since 1990 with economic development.

Decisions under the UNFCCC are taken at the annual gathering of parties to the UNFCCC, known as the '**Conference of the Parties to the UNFCCC**' or '**COP**'. Decisions under the Kyoto Protocol are taken by the '**Conference of the Parties acting as the Meeting of the Parties to the Kyoto Protocol**' or '**COP/MOP**', which also meets once yearly in the same time period as the COP. In addition, two subsidiary bodies meet twice yearly to discuss technical information and draft decisions in advance of the COP and COP/MOP. These are the '**Subsidiary Body for Implementation (SBI)**' and the '**Subsidiary Body for Scientific and Technological Advice (SBSTA)**'. The '**Secretariat**' to the Convention and Protocol

[5] These gases are carbon dioxide methane, nitrous oxide, hydrofluorocarbons, perfluorocarbons and sulphur hexafluoride.

is the permanent administrative or bureaucratic arm and is based in Bonn, Germany.

3.1 Joint Implementation and CDM

The Kyoto Protocol allows for several 'market-based mechanisms' to assist developed countries (Annex I parties) to meet their emissions reduction targets. '**Joint Implementation**' allows a Kyoto Protocol Annex I party to fund and/or run a project to reduce emissions in a non-Annex I party. The funding country can then apply the emissions reductions generated to help it to meet its own Kyoto target. Through the '**Clean Development Mechanism**' (or '**CDM**'), developed countries may finance emissions reducing projects in developing countries that are party to the Kyoto Protocol then use the resulting '**certified emissions reductions**' ('**CERs**') to offset their own emissions.[6] This mechanism is designed to support the sustainable development objectives of developing countries and to provide for the transfer of technology to, and capacity building in, developing countries. It is a very

[6] A third flexible mechanism allows Annex I parties to trade allowances among themselves.

big part of the carbon market,[7] being worth 12 billion euros in 2007 - an increase of 200% from 2006 and comprising 29% (in financial terms) of the overall market (Point Carbon, 2008). These mechanisms do not currently provide for REDD-related activities, though afforestation and reforestation activities can be included as projects under the CDM.

In reality, views are mixed about whether the CDM has really helped to further sustainable development and technology transfer in developing countries in a substantive way. Many Indigenous communities in particular are concerned about the potentially negative impacts of CDM-related activities on their lands and livelihoods. This applies largely to Indigenous communities in developing countries not developed countries—as all CDM projects are hosted in developing countries. Types of CDM projects include: renewable energy; fuel switching (from oil, gas or diesel to gas or biofuels); projects to capture greenhouse gases released from landfill sites; energy efficiency projects; activities to reduce methane from

[7] Though note that it is a much smaller part of overall Annex I emissions reductions for the period 2008 to 2012.

agricultural processes; and forestry-related projects, among others.

3.2 The Carbon Market and Carbon Financing

The provisions of the Kyoto Protocol, together with various domestic laws and policies to reduce greenhouse gas emissions, have prompted many governments and other actors to develop activities and financial resources to reduce greenhouse gas emissions, often in countries other than their own. As a result, a new international '**carbon market**' for greenhouse gas emissions trading has emerged, together with various opportunities to access financing for emissions reduction or offset projects.

In reality, the term 'carbon market' is not entirely accurate because carbon dioxide is only one of several greenhouse gases that can be 'traded'; and because there is not a single, unified international market for emissions reduction purchases. Rather, there are various markets in operation around the world, which can be classified as either regulated or voluntary markets and which interact with one another in different ways.

'**Regulated markets**' are emissions trading schemes set up under domestic or international

law to provide a means for specified actors (often large industrial or power companies) to meet emissions reduction targets. Key examples include the European Union Emissions Trading Scheme and the New South Wales and Australian Capital Territory Greenhouse Gas Abatement Schemes.

The features of each of these schemes are different. In most (but not all) cases, the government places a 'cap' on the amount of greenhouse gases that certain factories or companies can emit over a period of several years. Entities covered by the scheme are usually from high-emitting sectors of the economy. Up until now, the forestry sector itself has not generally been covered, though it is in the New Zealand scheme and is being considered under the Australian scheme.

If a company is going to emit more emissions than its cap, it can buy surplus credits or allowances from another company that has managed to beat its cap (by reducing its emissions below its cap). Alternatively, some schemes provide that the company can pay to offset its excess emissions through emissions reducing activities undertaken by others. This is where Indigenous communities may most

often play a role - through providing offsets, particularly through land management or forestry-related activities. The government entity administering the scheme will decide which activities can qualify as potential offsetting activities. No regulated markets currently provide for the inclusion of REDD-related activities as offsets, though some do include reforestation and afforestation activities.

'**Voluntary markets**' arise where there are private agreements to trade or offset emissions or emissions reductions among actors who may not be legally bound to meet an emissions reduction target, but who have decided to take action anyway. Sometimes these are one-off, single agreements and sometimes they are part of wider voluntary schemes, each with its own procedures and requirements.[8] Forestry-related projects account for a much higher proportion of transactions in voluntary markets—15% in 2007 and 36% in 2006 (Ecosystem Marketplace, 2008), with REDD accounting for 28% of this forestry share in 2007, being 5% of the overall voluntary

[8] WWF recently published a guide that explains the voluntary carbon market and compares some of the big voluntary schemes in existence: <*http://assets.panda.org/downloads/vcm_report_final.pdf*>.

market 2007 (versus 3% in 2006) (Ecosystem Marketplace, 2007).

Another key aspect of the overall development of efforts to reduce greenhouse gas emissions has been the emergence of a range of opportunities for indirect or third-party financing of emissions reduction activities. This is sometimes referred to as 'carbon financing'. In fact, it may also include other fiscal incentives, such as tax rebates or exemptions for the installation of emissions reducing equipment, such as solar water panels.

International organisations such as the World Bank, the regional development banks, the United Nations Development Programme and private investment firms have established a range of funds and/or programmes to facilitate the creation of emissions reducing activities. These programmes often focus on emissions reducing activities in developing countries. Sometimes, the reduction of emissions might be just one aspect of a project designed to ensure sustainable land management, ecosystem protection, improved community health, the creation of employment or training opportunities, sustainable livestock management, or the development of a more

stable community power supply, for example.[9] Such organisations and funds include a focus on forestry activities, among other areas, and have increasingly begun to address REDD (see discussion in section 4 and Annex).

3.3 Treatment of Forestry Activities under the UNFCCC/Kyoto Protocol

Often, forest-related emissions and removals are grouped together with land use and land-use change as one sector of emissions and removals—called '**land-use, land-use change and forestry**' ('**LULUCF**').[10] This is generally the case under the UNFCCC and the Kyoto Protocol.

Under the Convention, forests are identified as sources of greenhouse gas emissions as well as sinks that store carbon. In providing for the development of policies to address climate change and for national inventories of greenhouse gas emissions and removals, the

[9] For a more detailed discussion of opportunities for Indigenous involvement in the carbon market, see the UNU publication 'Emissions Trading, Carbon Financing and Indigenous Peoples' at <http://www.ias.unu.edu/resource_centre/UNU-CARBONMARKET.pdf>.

[10] '**Removals**' means the opposite of emitting greenhouse gases into the atmosphere—i.e. the removal of an amount of gas from the atmosphere, through, for example, the process of photosynthesis.

Convention addresses all sources and sinks of greenhouse gases, including those from LULUCF.[11]

Under the Kyoto Protocol, developed countries with binding emissions targets must report on emissions and removals from certain LULUCF activities in the context of efforts to meet their emissions targets. Additionally, afforestation and reforestation activities can be included as projects under the CDM, but '**avoided deforestation**' activities cannot (this occurs where land that would otherwise have been deforested is not because of a change in policy, funding etc). There is also presently a limit on the amount of credits that an Annex I party can obtain by way of afforestation or reforestation projects (IISD, 2008).

There are a range of ongoing limitations and issues in relation to how LULUCF activities are addressed in international climate change policy. Chief among them are technical concerns about the methodology for measuring and comparing forest-based emissions and removals in different

[11] The Convention specifically provides for parties to promote technologies that lead to lower greenhouse gas emissions in the forestry sector and promote sustainable management of sinks and reservoirs, among other things (Article 4.1).

regions and types of forests. Another is the question of how to address the potentially non-permanent nature of emissions reductions from LULUCF activities. These activities may be non-permanent because forest fires, disease or even climate change itself may affect the health of a forest and therefore its ability to store carbon. Similarly, human activity may cause the storage capability of a forest to change (UNFCCC, undated b). Within the context of the Bali Roadmap for a post-2012 climate change agreement (see 3.5 below), discussions are now under way to reform the rules governing LULUCF activities under the UNFCCC and the Kyoto Protocol to address some of these concerns.

3.4 Recognition of Indigenous People under the UNFCCC/Kyoto Protocol

Unlike the UN Convention on Biological Diversity, the UNFCCC includes no formal recognition of Indigenous peoples or their interests, nor does the Kyoto Protocol. There is some consideration of Indigenous peoples within UNFCCC-related work on the impacts of climate change on Indigenous peoples and in relation to the adaptation of communities to climate change. Additionally, local Indigenous interests may be considered when examining the 'sustainable

development' component of individual CDM projects, and the UNFCCC Secretariat often makes a public statement on Indigenous issues on the International Day of the World's Indigenous Peoples. Finally, several Indigenous organisations have observer status with the UNFCCC, providing them with the opportunity to be represented at certain UNFCCC meetings, but not to take part in decision-making processes.

Current international discussions about REDD seem to include a greater focus on Indigenous peoples than arguably any other mitigation policy tool considered under the UNFCCC in the past. While it is still only state parties that have the ultimate right to negotiate any decision or additional agreement under the UNFCCC, the explicit provision for consideration of Indigenous issues provides the opportunity for Indigenous groups to have their voices heard in a way that has not happened in the past. See section 5 below for more information on opportunities for engagement.

3.5 Post-2012 Negotiations

In 2005, parties to the UNFCCC and the Kyoto Protocol began to consider whether and how the UNFCCC and the Kyoto Protocol should be revised, and what new commitments or actions

should be pursued beyond 2012 to address climate change. These discussions are taking place in several fora under both the UNFCCC and the Kyoto Protocol (collectively called the 'post-2012' discussions). This is partly because the US is a party to the UNFCCC but not the Kyoto Protocol and partly because different parties wish to see different things achieved for the Convention or for the Protocol. Some issues, such as technology transfer or financing, are being discussed in more than one of these fora at the same time.

A key point in these discussions occurred in December 2007. Parties to the UNFCCC and to the Kyoto Protocol adopted a series of decisions and conclusions on a *process* for agreeing to future revisions and additions to the UNFCCC and the Kyoto Protocol. This collection of decisions and conclusions are together known as the '**Bali Roadmap**'. The roadmap sets the aim of finalising all post-2012 discussions in all fora by the UN Climate Change Conference to be held in Copenhagen in December 2009.

One part of the Bali Roadmap, the '**Bali Action Plan**', was a decision by the UNFCCC COP about negotiations on future enhancements of the Convention. This decision established an **'Ad**

Hoc Working Group on Long-term Cooperative Action' ('AWGLCA') to consider a specified set of issues with a view to reaching agreement by the December 2009 Copenhagen meeting (UN Doc FCCC/CP/2007/L.7/Rev.1).

4. International Activity on REDD

4.1 UNFCCC Discussions on REDD

REDD was first discussed under the UNFCCC in 2005 at the eleventh Conference of the Parties (COP 11). Consideration of the issue has continued since that time. As well as discussions at the yearly COP and at biannual meetings of the Subsidiary Bodies, several UNFCCC workshops have been held: one in Rome, Italy in August 2006, another in Cairns, Australia in March 2007 and another in Tokyo, Japan in June 2008. Key issues discussed have included:

- the *causes* of deforestation;
- *policy* tools for REDD, including bilateral and multilateral cooperation;
- ways to provide *incentives* for REDD, including financial mechanisms; and
- *technical issues* associated with measuring REDD and implementing policies for REDD.

Such *technical issues* include the availability and adequacy of data on the extent of global forest coverage and rates of deforestation, and the data and methods for estimating changes in the amount of carbon stored in forests (the 'carbon stock').

Discussions on *policy tools* and *financial mechanisms* concern the issue of how REDD activities can be incentivised and facilitated. Key proposals for policy and financial tools include the following:

- market-based and market-linked mechanisms, such as:
  - inclusion of REDD projects in the CDM and Joint Implementation; or
  - establishment of a dedicated REDD trading mechanism, separate to the CDM and Joint Implementation with a limit on the amount of developed country emissions reductions that could derive from REDD (Ogonowski et al, 2007); or
  - introduction of a new emissions trading unit to be used by developed countries in partial fulfilment of their emissions targets (Hare and Macey, 2007);
- non-market financial mechanisms, such as:
  - the required purchase of a proportion of each developed country's emissions target (rather than free allocation), with the revenue used to support REDD and other activities; or
  - establishment of a financial mechanism or fund, linked to the UNFCCC, to provide access, directly or indirectly, to financing for

REDD activities;

- simple commitments by developing countries to reduce their emissions across the entire domestic forestry sector with credits generated for each tonne of avoided CO_2; and
- a focus on the domestic capacity (technical skills and institutions) needed to implement and monitor REDD activities.

4.1.1 COP 13 Bali Action Plan and Decision on REDD (December 2007)

At COP 13, held in Bali, Indonesia in December 2007, in adopting the decision known as the Bali Action Plan (see section 3.5), parties agreed to consider policies and incentives for REDD and the role of conservation, sustainable management of forests and enhancement of forest carbon stocks in developing countries (para 1(b)(iii), UN Doc FCCC/CP/2007/L.7/Rev.1).

The parties to the UNFCCC also adopted a decision specifically on REDD (UNFCCC, 2008a, Decision 2/CP.13). In the 'preamble' or introduction to that decision, parties 'recognised' that 'the needs of local and Indigenous communities should be addressed when action is taken' to address REDD. While this portion of the decision is not legally binding on parties, as

it is contained in the preamble to the decision, it is nonetheless significant. Beyond this, the decision invited parties to explore actions to address the causes of deforestation and further support REDD efforts on a voluntary basis. It also encouraged those parties 'in a position to do so' to provide support for improvement of REDD-related data collection and estimations, monitoring and reporting, and institutions in developing countries. Additionally, the decision included an Annex providing guidance on conducting REDD demonstration activities. This Annex notes that demonstration activities should 'be consistent with sustainable forest management', referring to the UN Forum on Forests, the UN Convention to Combat Desertification and the Convention on Biological Diversity, among others, and that such projects should be conducted with the approval of the host country. The Annex makes no mention of Indigenous peoples.

This decision also requested SBSTA to carry out work on methodological issues concerning policies and incentives for REDD, so that this work can be considered at SB 29 in December 2009 and again at COP 14, immediately after SBSTA 29 (IISD, 2008). Finally, Decision 2/CP.13 invited parties to the UNFCCC to submit their

views on how to address a range of outstanding methodological issues.

4.1.2 SBSTA 29 Conclusions (June 2008)

The views of parties requested at COP 13 were compiled by the Secretariat into a document, which was then considered by the SBSTA at SB 28 in June 2008. At that time, the SBSTA identified a list of methodological issues requiring further examination. Some of the key issues are listed below because they provide an indication of the sorts of complex technical issues still needing to be clarified before further agreement can be reached on REDD under the UNFCCC. Only one cross-cutting issue (italicised) mentions Indigenous people specifically, but as a cross-cutting issue, it is broad, arguably covering all other REDD issues.

- **Estimation and monitoring:** how to adequately estimate and monitor changes in forest cover, associated carbon stocks and greenhouse gas emissions, incremental changes due to sustainable forest management, reductions in emissions from deforestation, and reductions in emissions from forest degradation;
- **Reference emissions levels:** how to establish the relevant baseline or reference emissions levels against which reductions will be measured,

including the timing of the reference period and any specific national circumstances and approaches;

- **Capacity building:** how to ensure adequate technical and institutional capacity in developing countries to carry out REDD-related activities;
- **Effectiveness of actions:** What criteria should be used to evaluate the effectiveness of any REDD-related actions;
- **Cross-cutting issues:**
  - Means to address non-permanence;
  - How to compare and assess the carbon stocks of diverse ecosystems;
  - The financial implications of different methodological approaches;
  - Institutional requirements for implementing methodological approaches;
  - *Any implications of methodological approaches for Indigenous people and local communities;*
  - Implications for the promotion of co-benefits taking note of the aims and objectives of other relevant international conventions and agreements;
  - Implications of different definitions of forest and relevant forest-related activities on the assessment of emissions reductions

and removals;

– Means to deal with uncertainties in estimates aiming to ensure that reductions in emissions or increases in removals are not over-estimated (UNFCCC, 2008b, FCCC/SBSTA/2008/L.12).

Those supportive of REDD hope that it will be possible to clarify the methodological issues surrounding REDD, and to provide for the inclusion of REDD under the CDM or other mechanism connected to the UNFCCC, at COP 14 in December 2008 and COP 15 in December 2009.

4.2 Consideration of REDD in other International Fora

In addition to the negotiations currently under way under the UNFCCC, a number of other multilateral institutions are beginning to consider REDD:

- **Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD):** At COP 9, which took place in May 2008 in Bonn, parties invited the UNFCCC to take account of the opportunities for its REDD work to provide benefits for biodiversity. They recognised the need to provide biodiversity-relevant information to the UNFCCC in a timely manner.

They also established an Ad Hoc Technical Expert Group on biodiversity and climate change, which will include representatives from indigenous and local communities and small island developing states (UNEP/CBD/COP/9/L.36). It is likely that this body will consider REDD.

- **International Tropical Timber Organization:** The Council of the International Tropical Timber Organization (ITTO) receives regular updates on the forestry-related activities of the UNFCCC. While it has not yet taken any decisions on REDD, the Council has noted that the ITTO can play a role in REDD discussions by further promoting the inclusion of REDD as a carbon mitigation tool, initiating pilot projects, and developing appropriate baseline and measuring methodologies. At its forty-third meeting in Yokohama, Japan in November 2007, it also agreed to designate funds to study the relationship between tropical forests and climate change, including the relationship between the ITTO and the UNFCCC.

- **UN Forum on Forests:** The UN Forum on Forests has not yet taken any decisions on REDD, though it has noted the contribution of forests

to addressing climate change.

Additionally, a range of funding mechanisms or initiatives have been launched to pilot actual REDD activities. Chief among them are several new World Bank initiatives. First, it is intended that the **Strategic Climate Fund**, which was launched in 2007 and finalised in 2008, will incorporate the establishment of a forest investment programme by the end of 2008. The aim of this programme would be to mobilise increased funds for reducing deforestation and forest degradation and promoting improved sustainable forest management. The World Bank has stated that this forest investment programme 'will be developed on the basis of broad and transparent consultations', with the design process taking into account 'country-led priority strategies for the containment of deforestation and degradation' (World Bank, 2008b).

Second, the **Forest Carbon Partnership Facility** was launched in December 2007 to assist developing countries with building capacity to undertake REDD activities and to test a programme for 'performance-based incentive projects' in several countries. It is anticipated that, if successful, a far larger system of

incentive-based activities will be developed in the future. The World Bank has now named the first countries to be earmarked for funding under this facility: Bolivia, Costa Rica, Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon, Ghana, Guyana, Kenya, Laos, Liberia, Madagascar, Mexico, Nepal, Panama and Vietnam.

While these World Bank initiatives could provide much-needed funds to developing countries, Indigenous peoples have voiced a number of grave concerns. First, they were not adequately consulted on the design of the Forest Carbon Partnership Facility. It is vital that they be consulted in relation to any particular projects under the facility that might affect them and that any such projects fully take account of and recognise any Indigenous rights that may be affected. Second, it is important that such projects seek to address the drivers and causes of deforestation, in order to be properly effective. Third, there is some concern about the fact that it is mostly government and private sector entities that have caused deforestation and it is these same entities that are likely to now benefit from the facility. For a comprehensive assessment of the facility, see IIED, 2008.

In September 2008, the UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon announced the launch of the **United Nations Collaborative Programme on Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation (UN-REDD Programme)**, which aims to combat climate change through creating incentives to reverse deforestation trends. The programme aspires to ensure international coherence and provide support to developing countries in building capacity to design and implement REDD measures so that the mechanism may result in significant reductions in greenhouse gas emissions. The REDD Programme will be coordinated by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN, the UN Development Programme and the UN Environment Programme. The Government of Norway has provided start-up financing with a contribution of US$35 million. The nine countries to receive initial assistance are: Bolivia, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Indonesia, Panama, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Tanzania, Viet Nam and Zambia.

The Annex to this guide lists a range of other bilateral and multilateral REDD-related initiatives now under way, including activities on the voluntary carbon market.

5. Opportunities and Risks

Like most climate mitigation tools, REDD-related activities may pose both risks and opportunities for Indigenous peoples. In addition to the fact that forests and forest management systems vary considerably, a range of other factors—both positive and negative—will be relevant in the case of each particular REDD-related project. The real success and benefits of any single activity for Indigenous people will depend upon the level of consultation and participation afforded to them throughout, and the overall way in which the project is designed and implemented.

The below section summarises potential risks and opportunities from REDD-related activities, taking account of Indigenous rights as recognised in the UN Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples (hereinafter the 'UN Declaration'). Indigenous peoples are of course also entitled to all general human rights recognised in international, regional and domestic law.

Some more lengthy analyses of REDD as a climate mitigation and poverty alleviation tool are noted in the Reference List.

Box 1: International Law on Indigenous Rights

The central feature of international law on Indigenous rights is the UN Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples. This instrument was adopted by the UN General Assembly on 13 September 2007 after over 20 years of negotiation. A total of 143 countries voted in favour of the resolution, with four voting against (Canada, Australia, New Zealand, United States) and 11 abstaining.

In fact, this document is not legally binding under international law. However, given the significant vote in favour of the instrument, it carries great political weight. Moreover, many of the rights recognised in the instrument are in fact binding under international law as they are found in a range of other, binding human rights instruments, such as the International Covenant of Civil and Political Rights and the International Covenant of Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. These include key rights such as the rights to life, health, an adequate standard of living and to self-determination among many others.

Regardless of whether the declaration is ultimately binding until international law, states have a strong imperative to ensure all rights contained within it are fulfilled. The document should be taken into account by all government, private and non-government institutions when undertaking activities that may affect Indigenous people. For more information, see <http://www.iwgia.org/sw248.asp>

Additionally, the wider body of human rights law of course applies to Indigenous people; see <http://www.ohchr.org/EN/ProfessionalInterest/Pages/InternationalLaw.aspx>

There are also two conventions on Indigenous peoples' rights under the International Labor Organisation; see <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/indigenous/standard/index.htm>

5.1 Opportunities

Some studies suggest that undertaking REDD activities in developing countries represents a cost-effective means to reduce greenhouse gas emissions, thereby helping to mitigate climate change (IPCC, 2007). Even though developing countries have contributed significantly less to climate change than developed countries, reducing its effects is clearly in all of humankind's interests. This includes Indigenous peoples, who are often among the most affected by climate change. Moreover, Indigenous peoples may also be among the most affected by deforestation.

Beyond simply being cost-effective, there is some suggestion that REDD activities can provide an additional source of income for communities and governments, where payment is directly received or where some other kind of revenue is derived indirectly (see Butler, 2008; Ogonowski, 2007; Nepstad et al, 2007; Stern, 2006 for REDD cost estimates). As well as providing revenue for central and provincial governments, REDD activities must also provide income or other appropriate means of support for local forest dependent communities, including Indigenous

Box 2: REDD as a Means of Fostering Indigenous Rights?

Article 7

1. Indigenous individuals have the rights to life, physical and mental integrity, liberty and security of person.

Article 20

1. Indigenous peoples have the right to maintain and develop their political, economic and social systems or institutions, to be secure in the enjoyment of their own means of subsistence and development, and to engage freely in all their traditional and other economic activities.

Article 24

1. Indigenous peoples have the right to their traditional medicines and to maintain their health practices, including the conservation of their vital medicinal plants, animals and minerals. Indigenous individuals also have the right to access, without any discrimination, to all social and health services.
2. Indigenous individuals have an equal right to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of physical and mental health. States shall take the necessary steps with a view to achieving progressively the full realization of this right.

Article 25

Indigenous peoples have the right to maintain and strengthen their distinctive spiritual relationship with their traditionally owned or otherwise occupied and used lands, territories, waters and coastal seas and other resources and to uphold their responsibilities to future generations in this regard.

Source: UN Declaration on Indigenous Rights—selected articles

peoples, and must be consistent with forest-dependant livelihoods.

Beyond this, reducing deforestation and forest degradation can have a great many other benefits. From the perspective of forest conservation alone, the link with climate change mitigation provides a powerful opportunity for political and financial support. If instituted in a manner consistent with Indigenous interests, reduced deforestation could help to protect the biodiversity of plants and animals, help to secure Indigenous lands and livelihoods, and provide for the ongoing culture and community of Indigenous and forest-dwelling peoples. Estimations abound of the potential proceeds from REDD—see the Reference List. How much of this revenue might actually be directed toward Indigenous peoples is not known.

As such, successful sustainable forest management through REDD-related activities could indirectly help to fulfil a range of Indigenous rights as stipulated in the UN Declaration, such as those to means of subsistence and development (Art 20), to traditional medicines and health practices, including the maintenance of vital plants, animals and minerals (Art 24.1), to the highest

standard of physical and mental health (Art 24.2), to maintain and strengthen the distinctive spiritual relationship with traditional lands (Art 25) and the right to life (Art 7.1).

5.2 Risks

In spite of the above, REDD may carry with it a range of risks. A significant proportion of the world's forests are owned by states themselves and most fall under state control in some way, even if only in relation to land-use zoning laws. Government decisions about land-use zoning and forest management often do not take adequate account of the rights of Indigenous groups living in such areas, particularly when these conflict with perceived national interests or opportunities for financial gain, despite the right to participate in decision making (Art 18) and the requirement of free prior and informed consent (Art 19). Affected Indigenous rights may include those to access and control traditional lands and forest resources (Art 26), to protect and access cultural heritage, and those to health, life, food and shelter (Colchester, 2007).

These problems are compounded when forest peoples lack recognition domestically as distinct groups or peoples, when individuals lack even recognition as citizens and/or when traditional

Indigenous governance institutions are not recognised by governments (for examples, see Colchester, 2007).

Forest conservation efforts may directly displace Indigenous peoples from their traditional lands or deprive them of their livelihoods—in instances where new laws or policies require that forests be protected from settlement. This is in direct breach of Article 10 of the UN Declaration on Indigenous Rights. On other occasions, forest conservation measures may deprive Indigenous peoples of their livelihoods and indirectly force displacement by prohibiting any kind of commercial or subsistence forest-based activity. This is in violation of the rights to traditional lands and resources (Art 26), to determine strategies for developing traditional land and resources (Art 32), to means of subsistence and development (Art 20), to traditional medicinal plants and animals (Art 24.1), to maintain a spiritual relationship with traditional lands (Art 25), and to maintain cultural heritage, traditional knowledge and sciences (Art 31). Moreover, the implementation of both kinds of government policies may involve excessive enforcement measures, thereby threatening the rights to life (Art 7.1) and health (Art 24.2), among others (Colchester, 2007).

Box 3: REDD as a Risk to Indigenous Rights?

Article 10

Indigenous peoples shall not be forcibly removed from their lands or territories. No relocation shall take place without the free, prior and informed consent of the indigenous peoples concerned and after agreement on just and fair compensation and, where possible, with the option of return.

Article 18

Indigenous peoples have the right to participate in decision-making in matters which would affect their rights, through representatives chosen by themselves in accordance with their own procedures, as well as to maintain and develop their own indigenous decision-making institutions.

Article 19

States shall consult and cooperate in good faith with the indigenous peoples concerned through their own representative institutions in order to obtain their free, prior and informed consent before adopting and implementing legislative or administrative measures that may affect them.

Article 20.1

See text box on page 48.

Article 24.2

See text box on page 48.

Article 25

See text box on page 48.

Article 26

1. Indigenous peoples have the right to the lands, territories and resources which they have traditionally owned, occupied or otherwise used or acquired.

2. Indigenous peoples have the right to own, use, develop and control the lands, territories and resources that they possess by reason of traditional ownership or other traditional occupation or use, as well as those which they have otherwise acquired.

Article 31

1. Indigenous peoples have the right to maintain, control, protect and develop their cultural heritage, traditional knowledge and traditional cultural expressions, as well as the manifestations of their sciences, technologies and cultures, including human and genetic resources, seeds, medicines, knowledge of the properties of fauna and flora, oral traditions, literatures, designs, sports and traditional games and visual and performing arts. They also have the right to maintain, control, protect and develop their intellectual property over such cultural heritage, traditional knowledge, and traditional cultural expressions.

Article 32

1. Indigenous peoples have the right to determine and develop priorities and strategies for the development or use of their lands or territories and other resources.

2. States shall consult and cooperate in good faith with the indigenous peoples concerned through their own representative institutions in order to obtain their free and informed consent prior to the approval of any project affecting their lands or territories and other resources, particularly in connection with the development, utilization or exploitation of mineral, water or other resources.

Source: UN Declaration on Indigenous Rights—selected articles

It is also important to bear in mind that often times, deforestation is due to poor forest governance. In light of such weak governance, REDD-related activities may not be successful and/or may not adequately take account of Indigenous interests in the implementation phase, even where provided for at the outset. It also is possible that, in adding greater value to and interest in forested lands, REDD could reinforce existing governance problems that are already denying Indigenous peoples their rights. For this reason, careful project design and monitoring throughout the lifetime of a project are essential.

5.3 Key Principles in Moving Forward

Whether or not and the degree to which such risks materialise will vary depending upon many factors, such as the forest governance and land tenure system in place and how the particular REDD policy tool is designed. There are several principles that may be important to keep in mind when moving forward with REDD.

- **Consult Indigenous peoples at all stages:** Consistent with Articles 10, 18 and 19 of the UN Declaration, Indigenous peoples who live in and are dependant upon forests should be consulted at all stages of REDD-related

activities. This applies to the negotiation of an international framework for REDD under the UNFCCC and consideration of REDD-related policies in other international fora. It also applies to the actual implementation of domestic government policies on REDD and all pilot projects and future full-scale projects. Indigenous peoples must themselves be given the opportunity to present their views in relation to all of the above, rather than state parties or other entities relying solely on second-hand sources for information.

- **Require consideration of Indigenous interests in planning and implementation:** Related to the above, so as to ensure that all potential impacts of REDD activities on local Indigenous peoples are taken into account, it should be a requirement that such impacts are considered and documented for all REDD projects from the planning phase through to the implementation phase. Acceptance of project design documents should be contingent upon evidence of adequate consultation and consideration of Indigenous interests. Similarly, any credits from and/or finance for REDD should be contingent upon proof of this. Moreover, in order to incentivise consideration of Indigenous interests, it may be useful to include a per tonne

bonus payment—on top of the base payment for each REDD credit—where there is evidence of positive benefits for local Indigenous communities.

- **Respect Indigenous proprietary and land rights:** Traditional, proprietary and all other rights of Indigenous peoples connected to the land on which REDD activities are to take place, be they derived from international law, domestic law and/or custom, must be taken into account from the outset and must continue to be fully exercisable through the operation of any REDD project (Art 26 and 32).
- **Ensure Indigenous involvement in REDD governance structures:** Indigenous peoples must have a role in all REDD governance structures—at the international, national and local levels—that may impact on their rights and lands.
- **Ensure equitable distribution of REDD-related benefits:** REDD activities should not only provide revenue for central and provincial governments in host communities. In instances where Indigenous peoples have interests over the land or other relevant rights, REDD activities should also provide income or other appropriate means of support for local Indigenous

peoples. Similarly, Indigenous peoples must be adequately compensated for decisions or acts made in relation to the lands that they own, inhabit and/or depend upon (Art 20.2 and 26.3).

- **Put REDD in context of wider forest governance:** In light of the common role of poor governance in deforestation, REDD activities should be considered within the context of wider forest governance and sustainable management programmes, which should themselves seek to clarify and secure Indigenous peoples' forest-related rights. It is vitally important that this take place—given corruption and poor management are themselves reasons behind current rates of deforestation, it would be highly inappropriate to simply channel additional funds into the same hands.
- **Put REDD in context of drivers of deforestation and other land uses:** Similarly, REDD activities must be set within a wider focus on the underlying drivers of deforestation and degradation, including poverty and agricultural policies, among others. They should be consistent with the maintenance of Indigenous livelihoods and ensure equitable access to the benefits of forests (IIED, 2008; IUCN, undated).

- **Reduce emissions in other key sectors:** Support for REDD should not provide a basis for developed and developing countries to shift their focus away from key greenhouse gas emitting sectors, especially the energy sector, including fossil fuel production and use, energy use in residential and commercial buildings and transportation, and industrial processes. In

Box 4: Key Indigenous Rights in Moving Forward with REDD

Article 10

See text box on page 52.

Article 18

See text box on page 52.

Article 19

See text box on page 52.

Article 20

2. Indigenous peoples deprived of their means of subsistence and development are entitled to just and fair redress.

Article 26

3. States shall give legal recognition and protection to these lands, territories and resources. Such recognition shall be conducted with due respect to the customs, traditions and land tenure systems of the indigenous peoples concerned.

Article 27

States shall establish and implement, in conjunction with indigenous peoples concerned, a fair, independent, impartial,

particular, developed country support for REDD should not provide a basis for these countries to shirk away from the vital need to address their own greenhouse gas emissions.

- **Sustainable forest management and governance is vital even without financial incentives:** Similarly, REDD should not provide a basis for developing countries to refuse to

open and transparent process, giving due recognition to indigenous peoples' laws, traditions, customs and land tenure systems, to recognize and adjudicate the rights of indigenous peoples pertaining to their lands, territories and resources, including those which were traditionally owned or otherwise occupied or used. Indigenous peoples shall have the right to participate in this process.

Article 28

1. Indigenous peoples have the right to redress, by means that can include restitution or, when this is not possible, just, fair and equitable compensation, for the lands, territories and resources which they have traditionally owned or otherwise occupied or used, and which have been confiscated, taken, occupied, used or damaged without their free, prior and informed consent.
2. Unless otherwise freely agreed upon by the peoples concerned, compensation shall take the form of lands, territories and resources equal in quality, size and legal status or of monetary compensation or other appropriate redress.

Source: UN Declaration on Indigenous Rights — selected articles

reduce deforestation and forest degradation in a sustainable fashion unless payment is provided.

5.4 Ways to Speak Out

- Discussions in the Convention on Biological Diversity and the UNFCCC provide the most direct opportunity to influence REDD-related negotiations. In the case of the CBD, Indigenous people will have a direct channel of communication via the Ad Hoc Expert Group. In the case of the UNFCCC, Indigenous peoples might wish to advocate for a similar group.
- It will also be important to insist on ongoing and adequate engagement with the World Bank and other multilateral financial institutions to ensure Indigenous interests are taken into account, given the substantial amount of funds such institutions control.
- Provincial and national governments involved in the UNFCCC, CBD and World Bank operations must have a clear understanding of Indigenous concerns about REDD. Thus advocacy work at the provincial and national level will also be necessary.
- The UN Permanent Forum on Indigenous Issues will continue to provide a platform

through which Indigenous concerns are heard in UN fora. Moreover, the UN Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples provides a sound political basis for Indigenous rights to be enjoyed globally.

- A range of Indigenous representative organisations and environmental NGOs are now actively engaged in the REDD debate: the names of many of these organisations appear in the Reference List.

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Annex 1: Glossary and Abbreviations

Adaptation: Activities to address the effects that climate change is already having on land, ecosystems and livelihoods.

Afforestation: Developing a forest on land that has not been forested in recent times.

Annex I parties: Industrialised countries listed in Annex I to the UN Convention on Climate Change. Nearly all of these countries are the countries that have binding emissions reduction targets under the Kyoto Protocol.

Anthropogenic: Human-induced. The term used to distinguish naturally occurring greenhouse gas emissions from ones that result from human activity.

Avoided deforestation: this occurs where land that would otherwise have been deforested is not because of a change in policy, funding etc.

Bali Action Plan: One part of the Bali Roadmap, the Bali Action Plan is the name given to a decision taken by the Conference of the Parties to the UNFCCC that specifically concerns negotiations on future amendments of the Convention itself. The decision establishes an 'Ad Hoc Working Group on Long-term Cooperative Action' ('AWGLCA') to consider a specified set of Convention-related issues, which are also set out in the decision, with a view to reaching agreement at the UN Climate Change Conference to be held in Copenhagen in December 2009 (UN Doc FCCC/CP/2007/L.7/Rev.1).

Bali Roadmap: The collection of decisions and conclusions adopted by the parties to the UNFCCC and to the Kyoto Protocol at the 2007 UN Climate Change Conference (Bali, Indonesia), which provide a *process* for agreeing to future revisions and additions to the UNFCCC and the Kyoto Protocol. The roadmap sets the aim of finalising all post-2012 discussions in all fora by the UN Climate Change Conference to be held in Copenhagen in December 2009.

Baseline: In seeking to measure whether greenhouse gas emissions have decreased or increased, it is necessary to have a known previously emitted amount (often connected to a baseline date or year), against which to make a comparison over time. This is called the baseline.

Carbon biosequestration: The storage of carbon by plants, trees and other flora, which absorb carbon dioxide from the atmosphere while they grow, release the oxygen, and store the carbon.

Carbon market: Transactions for the sale of emissions permits, reductions or offsets together comprise the 'carbon market'. In fact, carbon dioxide is only one of several greenhouse gases that can be 'traded'. Moreover, there is not a single, unified international market for emissions reduction purchases. Rather, there are various markets in operation around the world, which can be classified as either 'regulated' or 'voluntary' markets and which interact with one another in different ways.

Clean Development Mechanism (CDM): A facility created under the Kyoto Protocol, which allow Annex I countries to finance emissions reducing projects in developing countries that are party to the Kyoto Protocol then to use the resulting 'certified emissions reductions' ('CERs') to offset their own emissions.

CO_2e: Not all greenhouse gases warm the atmosphere equally—some gases (such as methane) have a greater warming effect than carbon dioxide. To account for this, the term CO_2e is used and means that greenhouse gases other than carbon dioxide can be converted to the equivalent amount of CO_2, based on their relative contribution to global warming. This provides for a single, uniform means of measuring emissions reductions for multiple greenhouse gases.

Conference of the Parties (COP): The term used to describe the regular meeting of state parties to the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change. This is the body with authority to take decisions under the Convention.

Conference of the Parties acting as the Meeting of the Parties to the Kyoto Protocol (COP/MOP): This is the meeting of state parties under the Kyoto Protocol and the body with authority to take decisions under the Protocol.

Controlled (or 'prescribed') burning: Intentional and controlled fires in bushland or forest designed

to prevent more intensive, uncontrolled forest or bushfires.

Climate change: This term refers to the collection of impacts on the earth's natural climate system that are resulting from global warming (see below). This includes rainfall patterns and ocean levels, the direction and speed of wind and ocean currents, seasonal cycles, and the likelihood and intensity of climatic disasters such as droughts, storms and floods (IPCC, 2007).

Deforestation: The conversion of forested land to non-forested land.

Emissions trading (or 'carbon trading'): A sale and purchase of 'permits' or 'allowances' to emit greenhouse gases; or 'certificates' that prove a certain reduction in emissions from a particular activity beyond what would otherwise have been the case (i.e. *'business as usual'* emissions); or certificates that indicate a certain amount of actual emissions have been 'offset' somewhere else, through for example, carbon sequestration.

Energy efficiency: Reducing the amount of energy used to operate a product or to carry out a process, without reducing the quality or level of service, or making the actual generation of electricity more efficient.

Forest degradation: Occurs when the structure or function of a forest is negatively affected, reducing the ability of the forest to provide services or products (FAO, 2004).

Fossil fuels: Gas, coal, oil and oil-derived products such as diesel. Fossil fuels are combusted to create electricity, to provide heating, to power all forms of transportation and to power industrial processes, like mining and manufacturing activities.

Global warming: As the human-induced emission of greenhouse gases has increased, so has the concentration of these gases in the atmosphere, which is raising the earth's temperature.

Greenhouse effect: The process by which greenhouse gases in the earth's atmosphere (see below) absorb infrared radiation from the sun, reflect some of it back into space and emit some of it towards the earth. This natural process provides for relatively stable and mild temperatures on earth and in the atmosphere. However, human activity can change the concentration of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere, which can amplify the greenhouse effect.

Greenhouse gases (GHGs): A group of gases in the atmosphere that absorb infrared radiation. They appear in greatest proportions in the earth's lower atmosphere. These gases include water vapour, ozone, carbon dioxide, methane, nitrous oxide, hydrofluorocarbons, perfluorocarbons and sulphur hexafluoride.

Joint Implementation: A facility created under the Kyoto Protocol, which allows an Annex I party to fund and/or run a project to reduce emissions in another Annex I party. The funding country can

then apply the emissions reductions generated to help it to meet its own emissions target under the Kyoto Protocol.

Kyoto Protocol to the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change: a subsidiary agreement to the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change, this agreement was concluded in December 1997 but did not 'enter into force' (become legally binding on its parties) until February 2002. This Protocol is binding under international law on those countries that are a 'party' to it.

Land use, land-use change and forestry (LULUCF): This is an identified category of activities that can contribute to both greenhouse gas emissions and emissions removals. The other main categories are energy-related emissions (both production and consumption), agriculture and waste-related activities.

Mitigation: Seeking to reduce the amount of greenhouse gases released into the atmosphere by human-related activities. Such actions might include reducing our use of fossil fuels and changing the way we use land - such as by reducing our rate of land clearing and deforestation, and increasing our rate of reforestation.

Non-Annex I parties: Developing countries not listed in Annex I to the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change. These countries do not have binding emissions targets under the Kyoto Protocol.

Party: The individual members of a legal agreement, such as the member states of an international law agreement (like the UNFCCC), or the individuals or organisations that sign a private contract.

Reducing emissions from deforestation and forest degradation in developing countries (REDD)

Reforestation: the reestablishment or regeneration of a forest.

Removals: This is the opposite of an emission of greenhouse gas and occurs when greenhouse gases are removed from the atmosphere, for example, by trees during the process of photosynthesis.

Renewable energy: This form of energy can be used to provide electricity, heating or fuel for transportation similar to the way we use fossil fuels for these purposes. Unlike oil, gas and coal, renewable energy sources are not finite. Key sources include wood, waste decomposition, geothermal activity, wind and solar energy. The use of renewable sources for generating energy usually involves lower emissions of greenhouse gases than the use of fossil fuels does.

Sinks: Reservoirs or locations that sequester or store a greater amount of carbon dioxide than they release. Major carbon sinks include forests and oceans.

Subsidiary Body for Implementation (SBI): a subsidiary body to the UNFCCC and Kyoto Protocol,

which considers and advises the parties on issues relating to the implementation of the Convention and Kyoto Protocol.

Subsidiary Body for Scientific and Technological Advice (SBSTA): a subsidiary body to the UNFCCC and Kyoto Protocol, which considers and advises the parties on scientific and technological issues related to the Convention and Kyoto Protocol.

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC): An international agreement, which was reached in 1992 and entered into force in 1993, the UNFCCC provides a framework for international cooperation on climate change.

Table of Current REDD Activities

Host Country/Region	Supporting Country/Institution
BRAZIL	
	BNDES
	Sustainable Amazonas Foundation and partners

Activity
May 2008: The government-run National Economic and Social Development Bank (BNDES) announced it would establish an 'international donations fund' to preserve the Amazon (Planet Ark, 2008). Further details were provided in August 2008, when the Brazilian government announced that the fund would be called the Amazon Fund, and would involve activities to address forest conservation and sustainable development.
December 2007: The Governors of the Brazilian province of Amazonas and the Indonesian provinces of Aceh, Papua and West Papua signed a declaration agreeing to a moratorium on logging on their lands, with the aim of protecting their forests (Forests Now, 2007).
July 2008: The Juma Sustainable Development Reserve RED Project is planned for an area of tropical forest in Amazonas State, Brazil. The project is being carried out by Sustainable Amazonas Foundation, with a range of partners, including the state government, the Institute for Conservation and Sustainable Development of Amazonas and Marriott International. The project is part of a wider strategy developed by the state government to stop deforestation and promote sustainable development. The project involves the establishment of a Protected Area for Sustainable Use in an area that would otherwise have been deforested. It is anticipated that the project might generate 253,017,111 tons of CO_2 emissions reductions (Sustainable Amazonas Foundation, 2008).

Host Country/Region	Supporting Country/Institution
CONGO BASIN	
	UK and Norway
COSTA RICA	

Activity
June 2008: The Congo Basin Forest Fund was launched with a grant of £100 million from the British and Norwegian Governments. The aim of the fund is to complement existing activities and support new proposals to develop human and institutional capacity in the Congo Basin to manage forests, ensure sustainable livelihoods and reduce deforestation. The Fund is run by a Governing Council and its Secretariat is housed in the African Development Bank. The fund will seek to support and complement activities under the Central Africa Forests Commission and the fund will work closely with relevant regional partners, including NGOs and the private sector. Note that the fund is currently accepting ideas for proposals — for more information, go to: http://www.cbf-fund.org/ (CBFF, 2008).
A project is currently being developed to avoid deforestation through payment for ecosystem services on private lands in the conservation area of the Central Volcanic Mountain Range of Costa Rica. The project would provide for a portion of the forested land to be included in the National Fund for Forestry Finance's Payment for Environmental Services programme and monitored by INBio, the Costa Rican National Institute for Biodiversity. Carbon sequestration rights from avoided deforestation will be marketed internationally by the Pax Natura Foundation (Pax Natura Foundation, 2008).

Host Country/Region	Supporting Country/Institution
N/A	EUROPEAN UNION
	European Commission
GUYANA	
	Canopy Capital
INDONESIA	
	Australia, UK, Germany, World Bank

Activity
The European Commission is running a public consultation on REDD from 25 June to 22 August 2008. The Commission is seeking views on key issues and policy options for REDD within the context of the post-Kyoto negotiations. These views will be taken into account in the drafting of an EU position paper or 'Communication', to be released by the European Commission by the end of 2008. Opinions can be lodged at: <http://ec.europa.eu/yourvoice/ipm/forms/dispatch?form=deforestation>.
April 2008: The English investment firm Canopy Capital agreed to fund a significant part of the research and conservation programme of the Iwokrama Rainforest in return for the right to develop environment services on the reserve (Mongabay, 2 April 2008).
2007: The Indonesia Forest Climate Alliance was established by the Indonesian Ministry of Forestry, in conjunction with other stakeholders, in 2007 to address REDDI - Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation in Indonesia. This study group includes officials from the Ministry, other Indonesian departments and relevant national and international researchers. The alliance receives financial support from the Australian government, the Deutche Gesellschaft fur Technische Zusammernarbeit (GTZ); the UK government and the World Bank. A workplan has identified a range of studies to be conducted on REDD methodology, financing and implementation issues (Ministry of Forestry, 2008).

Host Country/Region	Supporting Country/Institution
	Australia

Activity
June 2008: Australia and Indonesia signed an agreement on REDD to develop a 'Roadmap for Access to International Carbon Markets', to model 'how a developed country like Australia and a developing country partner like Indonesia can work together towards participation in international forest carbon markets'. It is intended that the roadmap will be developed by the relevant Ministers by late 2008. As part of the agreement, the countries also established the Indonesia-Australia Forest Carbon Partnership, which will provide 'programmes and activities to reduce greenhouse gas emissions from deforestation and forest degradation, to improve livelihoods for forest-dependent communities and to promote biodiversity conservation'. It is also hoped that the experiences gained may facilitate negotiations on REDD under the UNFCCC. In particular, the agreement seeks to: build on existing cooperation between the two countries in three areas: 'policy development and capacity building to support participation in international negotiations and future carbon markets; technical support for Indonesia to develop its national forest carbon accounting and monitoring system; and the further development of demonstration activities, and the provision of related enabling assistance, to trial approaches to reducing emissions from deforestation and forest degradation'. The partnership will also 'incorporate existing cooperation' through Australia's International Forest Carbon Initiative (Commonwealth of Australia, 2008).

Host Country/Region	Supporting Country/Institution
Province of Aceh	Merrill Lynch
Province of Papua	New Forests
MADAGASCAR	
	Wildlife Conservation Society

Activity
September 2007: As part of the Australian federal government's International Forest Initiative, the Australian and Indonesian governments agreed to the Kalimantan Forests and Climate Partnership to trial a market-based approach to financing and implementing REDD in Central Kalimantan. It is considered to be the first, large-scale demonstration activity of this kind, and both countries hope it will be able to inform forestry-related negotiations under the UNFCCC and Kyoto Protocol. Australia committed A$30 million to the partnership (Commonwealth of Australia, 2008).
February 2008: Merrill Lynch agreed to invest more than US$9 million over four years in conserving forest in the Indonesian province of Aceh, in what is anticipated to generate 3.4 million tones of offset carbon dioxide. The deal was brokered by Carbon Conservation, based in Australia (Mongabay, 12 March 2008).
May 2008: The province of Papua, on the island of New Guinea, made an agreement with New Forests, an Australian investment firm, to establish a forest conservation carbon credit project in the province (Mongabay, 14 May 2008).
June 2008: Madagascar intends to sell nine million tons of carbon offsets on the voluntary carbon market, providing a means to protect the Makira Forest. It is expected that the offsets will be sold over 30 years. The deal is being managed by the Wildlife Conservation Society based in the US. Reports indicate half the revenue will go to forest communities, with the remainder divided between forest conservation, government conservation and climate change projects, monitoring and overheads (Harris, 2008).

Host Country/Region	Supporting Country/Institution
	France
TANZANIA	
	Norway
N/A	WORLD BANK
N/A	FAO, UNDP & UNEP

Activity
June 2008: Madagascar has signed an agreement with France providing that US$20 million owed by Madagascar to France be diverted to a fund, the Foundation for Protected Areas and Biodiversity (IRIN, 2008).
April 2008: Norway committed USD 100 million over five years to Tanzania for activities to address climate change and deforestation. This will include the development of deforestation pilot projects (Hauksson, 2008).
December 2007: The Forest Carbon Partnership Facility (FCPF) seeks to help developing countries reduce emissions from deforestation and land degradation by building capacity for REDD in developing countries and 'testing a program of performance-based incentive payments in some pilot countries, on a relatively small scale, in order to set the stage for a much larger system of positive incentives and financing flows in the future' (World Bank, undated, b).
September 2008: The UN Collaborative Programme on Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Degradation in Developing Countries (UN-REDD Programme) is aimed at tipping the economic balance in favour of sustainable management of forests so that their formidable economic, environmental, & social goods and services benefit participating countries, communities, and forest users while also contributing important reductions in greenhouse gas emissions. (United Nations, DPI, 24 September 2008)

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