

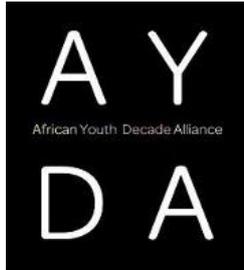
My Little COP Pocket Book





Green bits
Initiative

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Cover design by:	Charles Kyeti
Designers:	Vise Gilbert Chin Yenaye Rene Mkerka
Chief Editor:	Kennedy Liti Mbeva
Editors:	Reuben Mako mere Kenny Wahome
Translation:	Ntiokam Divine

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TABLE OF CONTENTS:

Part 1: Introduction and history of climate change negotiations.....	6
Introduction.....	7
Inspiration for this series.....	7
Brief history of climate change negotiations.....	7
The Intergovernmental Negotiating Committee.....	7
Part 2: Battle Lines Are Drawn.....	8
The Heart of UNFCCC.....	9
Enter the Rock Star: Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC).....	9
The North – South Divide.....	9
Issues! Issues! Issues!.....	10
Common but Differentiated Responsibilities.....	10
Annex Parties.....	10
Part 3: The Good, The Bad and The Kyoto Protocol.....	11
Birth of Kyoto Protocol.....	12
Climate Change Convention vis-a-vis The Kyoto Protocol.....	12
Principle underpinning the Kyoto Protocol.....	12
Gases covered under the Kyoto Protocol.....	13
The Good.....	13
The Bad.....	13
Part 4: Under the Hood of The Kyoto Protocol.....	14
In a nutshell.....	15
a. Emissions Trading.....	15
How it works.....	16
Other trading units used.....	16
Tracking, Checks and Balances.....	17
Success Story.....	17
b. Clean Development Mechanism (CDM).....	17
Origins.....	17

Management of CDM.....	18
A simple example.....	18
c. Joint Implementation (JI).....	18
Example project.....	18
Operation of JI.....	18
Guidelines.....	19
Eligibility requirements for Kyoto Protocol Mechanisms.....	19
Part 5: Examining the UNFCCC Financial Mechanism.....	20
Introduction.....	21
Brief overview of the UNFCCC Financial Mechanism.....	21
Role of the COP in the UNFCCC financial mechanism.....	21
Current Funds.....	22
Brief history of the GEF.....	22
Linkage between UNFCCC and GEF.....	23
Main objectives of the GEF.....	23
Onset of problems.....	23
Changes in context.....	24
Efforts to strengthen the UNFCCC Financial Mechanism.....	24
• Establishment of level of ambition.....	24
• Standing Committee.....	25
• Long-term Finance.....	25
Conclusion.....	25
Part 6: Where is the Money?.....	26
1. Special Climate Change Fund (SCCF).....	27
2. Least Developed Countries Fund (LDCF).....	27
3. Adaptation Fund.....	28
4. Green Climate Fund (GCF).....	28
Tasks of the GCF Board:.....	29
Conclusion.....	29

Part 7: Structure of the COP.....	30
1. Structure of COP.....	31
a. Subsidiary Body for Scientific Technological Advice (SBSTA).....	31
b. Subsidiary Body for Implementation (SBI).....	31
2. COP Timeline.....	32
COP 1: Establishing the Basics.....	33
COP 2: Geneva Declaration.....	33
COP 3: Kyoto Protocol.....	33
COP 4: Plan of Action.....	33
COP 5: Finalizing the Kyoto Protocol.....	33
COP 6: Kyoto Protocol Operation Rulebook.....	33
COP 7: Marrakech Accords.....	34
COP 8: New Delhi Work Program.....	34
COP 9: Adaptation Fund.....	34
COP 10: Post-Kyoto Mechanisms.....	34
COP 11: Montreal Action Plan.....	34
COP 12: Nairobi Conference.....	34
COP 13: Bali Action Plan.....	34
COP 14: Poznan Climate Change Conference.....	35
COP 15: Copenhagen Accord.....	35
COP 16: Cancun Agreements.....	35
COP 17: Durban Platform.....	35
COP 18:.....	35
Conclusion.....	35
Final Conclusion.....	36

Part 1: Introduction and history of climate change negotiations

Introduction

So, we have all heard of climate change, and all that appertains to it. Climate change mitigation and adaptation have become hot topics, and also one of the areas of focus for AYICC. But then, this topic can be overwhelming at times, and this was the case when we first set out to wrap our heads around it. COP18 (18th Conference of Parties) is just around the corner, and there are quite a number of interesting issues that will be discussed.

Inspiration for this series

In looking for material related to climate change negotiations, we noticed that much of it is written for technocrats, making it “hostile” for beginners who are interested in learning about the climate change negotiation process. Therefore, we took it upon ourselves to come up with a series titled “Peeling Back the COP” that is aimed at demystifying the climate change negotiation process through short, snappy and fun articles that will be published twice a week – from now until the start of COP18 (end of November 2012).

Brief history of climate change negotiations

NB: We will try to keep this very simple, and where necessary, we will provide useful links that you can use for further research.

So, how did the climate change negotiation process start? In truth, it was the culmination of previous studies, discussions and issues brought up over the years, and the year 1990 saw major changes to the way this issue was perceived. During the UN General Assembly session of 1990, there were some negotiations that were undertaken with the aim of creating a formal body of addressing the issue of climate change. One of the results of the negotiations was the formation of a body that would come up with a convention that would deal with climate change; it was called the Intergovernmental Negotiating Committee (INC).

The Intergovernmental Negotiating Committee

This committee took fifteen months to come up with a convention for tackling climate change, and it aptly named it the Climate Change Convention. This convention was then presented before the UN Commission on Environment and Development (UN CED) for signing in 1992 - this was the famous Earth Summit.

Part 2: Battle Lines Are Drawn

This is going to be a feisty piece, as hinted to by the topic! The previous chapter covered the formation of UN Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). In the second part of this series, we will cover the Climate Change Convention.

The Heart of UNFCCC

The Climate Change Convention (CCC) is the heart of UNFCCC, with everything else revolving around it. It is interesting how the CCC came into being. As a refresher, you may have heard of the 1985 Vienna Convention for the Protection of the Ozone as well as the stellar 1987 Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer. These two conventions covered some Green House Gases (GHGs) that were depleting the Ozone layer; however, there was emerging scientific evidence that there were more gases that were doing more harm than good to the environment, hence the need to tackle them. But then, there was a need to get continuous scientific information that would inform policy formulation with regards to reducing the GHGs.

Enter the Rock Star: Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC)

IPCC is the scientific body that has brought Climate Science to the Rock n Roll podium of science: they even won the Nobel Prize! Anyways, as a first step towards addressing the issue of the remaining GHGs, World Meteorological Organization (WMO) and United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) formed the IPCC in 1988. Their mandate was to give the latest scientific research as well as how to inform policy with regards to mitigation and adaptation of climate change.

The North – South Divide

The findings by IPCC showed that something needed to be done with regards to mitigating and adapting to climate change, and the news was grim! As anticipated, this led to divisions with countries identifying themselves either as “North” or “South”. But hey, it was not all about the geographical location: it was all about developed “North” and developing “South” countries. This divide was manifested in the 2nd World Climate Conference in Geneva.

Issues! Issues! Issues!

Just like human relationships, there were issues that were involved in the “separation” of the countries. The “South” countries blamed the “North” countries for being supremely responsible for most of the GHG emissions since the Industrial Revolution. So, what did this mean? Well, it meant that the “North” countries should take drastic steps towards reducing their emissions. In addition, developing countries called on the developed ones to finance their climate mitigation and adaptation activities. Whoa! This was a big issue as it caused the proverbial “storm in a tea cup!”

Common but Differentiated Responsibilities

There was a consensus that action needed to be taken to combat climate change, and there were general commitments that both developed and developing countries were obligated to in responding to climate change. This principle simply observed that all the countries faced common problems, although they were varying to some degree. The next sensible thing to do was to classify countries: enter Annex I, non-Annex I, and Annex II parties.

Annex Parties

In order to allocate responsibilities to countries in addressing climate change through the reducing of GHGs, a classification system was created. In essence, two main groups were formed: Annex I and non-Annex I countries. Simply put, Annex I countries are developed countries that have contributed most to GHG emissions since the Industrial Revolution. Non-Annex I comprises of mostly developing countries. We will talk more on Annex I and non-Annex I countries sooner than later!

Part 3: The Good, The Bad and The Kyoto Protocol

Yep! We are now in part 3 of the Peeling Back the COP series! As promised in the preceding post, we will deal with the protocol that embodies the efforts aimed at reducing Green House Gas emissions – the Kyoto Protocol – in this part, and it will span a number of posts. This is where parties (countries) were rewarded with regards to their Green House Gas emissions (GHGs), and a big tussle ensued; it still exists today!

Birth of Kyoto Protocol

The Kyoto Protocol came into force in 1995 after the Russian Federation ratified it, and it was adopted at the 3rd Conference of Parties (COP 3) in 1997 in Kyoto, Japan. The first commitment period of the Kyoto Protocol was from 2008-2012.

Climate Change Convention vis-a-vis The Kyoto Protocol

“Oh! Wait a minute, I am getting lost! What is the difference between the Climate Change Convention (CCC) and Kyoto Protocol (KP)?” Well, do not despair; the line between the two is very clear. CCC was aimed at encouraging parties to reduce their GHG emissions, while KP was tailored to legally bind parties towards realizing their emission reduction targets. As easy as that!

Principle underpinning the Kyoto Protocol

The main principle underpinning the Kyoto Protocol is the principle of “common but differentiated responsibilities.” As an example, think of a pizza, but this time a distasteful one. Logically, most people would avoid eating such a pizza, and if they are compelled to do it, then they will try to take the smallest piece possible – human nature!

Now, let us imagine that the distasteful pizza represents the responsibilities for reducing GHG emissions. In essence, we have all contributed to GHG emissions, but we will be given a slice of the distasteful pizza whose size will correspond to the degree of our GHG emissions. Therefore, we have all contributed to GHG emissions, but then the ones who have polluted most will have to take the biggest responsibilities in reducing their GHG emissions.

Gases covered under the Kyoto Protocol

The Kyoto Protocol covers six Green House Gases, namely carbon dioxide, methane, nitrous oxide, hydrofluorocarbons, perfluorocarbons and sulphur hexafluoride.

The Good

Quite a number of countries actually ratified the Kyoto Protocol, and they are considered as the “good guys”.

The Bad

USA, Australia and China, among other countries, are some of the biggest polluters in terms of Green House Gas emissions, yet they have been playing cat and mouse with regards to being legally bound by the Kyoto Protocol.

You can check out the complete list of countries that have ratified the Kyoto Protocol, as well as those which have not, [here](#).

Part 4: Under the Hood of The Kyoto Protocol

In the previous chapter, we saw that there was plenty of politics with regards to the Kyoto Protocol. But then, you may be wondering what actually constitutes this Protocol? Well, this chapter will give you a peek under the hood of the Kyoto Protocol.

To be honest, this may be a 10,000 foot fall (without a parachute) to a newbie, but we will try as much as possible to introduce things in a subtle manner; worry not! But then, you will have to undertake further reading so as to have a firm grasp of the issues under discussion.

In a nutshell

In a nutshell, the functional components of the Kyoto Protocol are known as the Kyoto Protocol Mechanisms. These are the functional components that actually make up the Kyoto Protocol, and they are:

- Emissions Trading
- Clean Development Mechanism (CDM)
- Joint Implementation (JI)

Let us first itemize the objectives of these mechanisms before delving into their details:

- To stimulate sustainable development through technology transfer and investment
- To assist countries to reach their Kyoto commitments in a manner that is cost-effective
- To encourage both the private sector and developing countries to contribute to emission reduction efforts

a. Emissions Trading

This is the first mechanism we are going to look at, and as the name suggests, it is a platform that facilitates the trading of carbon units. Annex B countries that have commitments under the Kyoto Protocol mainly practice it. These countries usually have emission reduction targets either for limiting or reducing emissions. These targets are expressed as “assigned amount units” (AAUs).

How it works

Actually, you may have guessed right; this mechanism is actually a market, so there is “buying” and “selling” of commodities (carbon units). This market is commonly known as the “carbon market”, since carbon dioxide is the principle Green House Gas (GHG).

Under this mechanism, a country has a “ceiling” of the amount of GHGs they can release to the atmosphere. Therefore, there are countries that usually surpass this ceiling, while others are more efficient and keep their emissions under their ceiling (target). What actually happens to countries that have surpassed their ceiling? In this mechanism, such countries will usually go to countries that have not surpassed their emissions target and buy their “spare” units. Now, this is what is called emissions trading.

Other trading units used

There are other trading units, apart from AAUs, which are used in the carbon market. They are:

Removal Unit (RMU): This is usually based on land use, land-use change and forestry (LULUCF) activities (e.g reforestation)

Emissions Reduction Unit (ERU): It is generated by a Joint Implementation project (we will discuss it in a short while)

Certified Emissions Reduction (CER): This is usually generated by a CDM project (will also be discussed in a short while)

Each of these units is equal to one tonne of CO₂.

Tracking, Checks and Balances

As with other systems, this mechanism must be tracked and appropriate checks and balances applied:

- The registry systems under the Kyoto Protocol are used to track the transfer and acquisition of these emission reduction units
- The International Transfer Log ensures that the transfer of emission reduction units between countries is secure
- In order to avoid ‘overselling of units’, each country is required to maintain a reserve of its emission reduction units (also known as “commitment period reserve”), and it should not fall below 90% of the party’s assigned amount

Success Story

Well, this mechanism seems quite impressive, and there has been one stellar success story: the European Union Trading Scheme (EUTS). It is actually the largest scheme in operation.

15

b. Clean Development Mechanism (CDM)

You most definitely have heard of this mechanism, and it is quite interesting. It is defined in Article 12 of the Kyoto Protocol. Simply put, it allows Annex B Party countries to implement emission-reduction projects in developing countries; it’s that simple! Therefore, it is a standardized emissions offset instrument.

Origins

This mechanism began operation in 2006, and so far, more than 1,650 projects have been registered under this mechanism. This is expected to result in the reduction of 2.9 billion tonnes of CO₂ in the first commitment period (2008-2012).

Management of CDM

The CDM Executive Board oversees the CDM, and it is ultimately answerable to the countries that have ratified the Kyoto Protocol.

A simple example

KenGen (Kenya Electricity Generating Company) has six projects that are under CDM, mainly dealing with geothermal energy. Some of them are: Eburru Geothermal Project and Olkaria II Geothermal Expansion Project.

c. Joint Implementation (JI)

This mechanism is defined in Article 6 of the Kyoto Protocol, and it allows an Annex B country to earn Emission Reduction Units (ERU) from an emission reduction or emission removal project in another Annex B country. The country that is hosting the project usually stands to benefit from foreign investment and technology transfer.

Example project

For example, a developed country may implement a renewable energy project (e.g geothermal power plant) in an EIT (Economy In Transition) country such as Ukraine to replace a coal-fired power plant.

Operation of JI

There are two tracks of operation for JI projects:

- **Track 1 Procedure**

This is when a host party meets all the eligibility requirements to transfer and/or acquire Emission Reduction Units (ERU), and it may issue the appropriate ERUs to the partnering country

• Track 2 Procedure

This is when a host party only fulfils part of the eligibility requirements; this then means that the verification process and awarding of ERUs has to be overseen by the Joint Implementation Supervisory Committee (JISC). The JISC can then accredit an independent entity to determine whether relevant requirements have been met.

However, it is important to note that a party that fulfils Track 1 requirements can opt for Track 2 procedure.

Guidelines

Jl projects have certain guidelines that have to be followed, and they are:

- A JI project must provide a reduction in emissions by sources, or an enhancement of removals by sinks
- The host party must approve the JI project
- Participants have to be authorized to participate by a party involved in the project
- Projects that started as far back as the year 2000 may be eligible as JI projects if they meet certain requirements
- ERUs may only be issued for a crediting period starting after the beginning of 2008.

Eligibility requirements for Kyoto Protocol Mechanisms

In order for Annex 1 parties to be eligible to take part in these mechanisms, they have to meet certain requirements (among others):

- They must have ratified the Kyoto Protocol
- They must have calculated their assigned amount in terms of tonnes of CO₂-equivalent
- They must have a national system for estimating emissions and the removal of greenhouse gases in their territories
- They must have in place a national registry that records and tracks the movement of ERUs, CERs, AAUs and RMUs, which they have to report annually to the secretariat

Part 5: Examining the UNFCCC Financial Mechanism

Introduction

To be honest, the UNFCCC financial mechanism is one of the most contentious issues in the climate change negotiation process, and a concise look into its inner workings brings to light a number of issues that have been the cause of the tug of war between Parties. This is a highly politicized issue, and after much deliberation, I thought it wise to bring out the issues that have been contentious, rather than examine the different political angles in the process.

Brief overview of the UNFCCC Financial Mechanism

I can bet that you have all heard of the famous Brundtland Report of 1987. For starters, this report is more commonly known as “Our Common Future”, and it is famous for bringing to the global arena the concept of sustainable development. However, it is important to note that there were a number of interesting things discussed in this report; the one that is most relevant to this report called on the need “to assign significant financial resources to address the global environmental challenges.”

Role of the COP in the UNFCCC financial mechanism

It is important to clarify the role of the COP (Conference of Parties) in the UNFCCC financial mechanism so as to avoid any confusion down the road. Simply put, COP is the governing body of the Climate Change Convention (CCC) and it decides on the policies, programme priorities and eligibility criteria of the financial mechanism.

Current Funds

The Global Environment Facility (GEF) is responsible for managing most funds in UNFCCC financial mechanism. There are four special funds:

1. Special Climate Change Fund – managed by the GEF
2. Least developed Countries Fund – managed by the GEF
3. Green Climate Fund – falls under the Climate Change Convention
4. Adaptation Fund - falls under the Kyoto Protocol

In this chapter, we will mainly focus on the main role of the Global Environment Facility (GEF), while funds under the UNFCCC Financial Mechanism will be discussed in the next chapter.

Brief history of the GEF

It is important to note that the financial mechanism of the UNFCCC provides funds on a grant or concessional basis.

The establishment of the GEF was partly due to a UNDP – WRI (World Resources Institute) study that brought forth proposals on establishing an international fund for the global environment. The GEF became a pilot facility of the UNFCCC in 1990, where it was being tested for the first time. In 1992, it became an interim operational entity of the financial mechanism for UNFCCC and Convention for Biological Diversity (CBD). At COP 4, it was confirmed as an operational entity of the UNFCCC.

Linkage between UNFCCC and GEF

Since GEF was a facility for both UNFCCC and CBD, there was need to establish a legal linkage between UNFCCC and GEF. This linkage led to the restructuring of the GEF into:

- A Trustee – participants' assembly that would convene every three years
- A Council
- A Secretariat
- The Implementing Agencies
- Scientific and Technical Advisory Panel (STAP)

Main objectives of the GEF

The main objective of the GEF was to provide funding to countries interested in either starting up projects or introducing environmental components to existing projects. The main areas of concern for the GEF were:

- Depletion of the Ozone layer
- Green House Gas emissions
- Biodiversity
- Pollution of international waters

Onset of problems

From the very beginning, the GEF was beset by numerous problems, mainly attributed to its fundamentally flawed design. One of the main challenges was the introduction of the ill-fated Resource Allocation Framework, which in essence watered down and even annihilated some of the objectives of the GEF. Political bickering began when the GEF was launched. Before this, developing countries were calling for a Green Fund, and what they got in response was the GEF, which they perceived as a pre-emptive project of the developed countries. Also, the transparency and participation in the GEF activities was questioned, as developed countries, which contributed more to the GEF, took control of its operations and locked out other parties, mainly from the developed countries.

Since the World Bank and UNDP set out to run the fund, there were concerns that these two institutions did not have sufficient capacity to address serious environmental matters. The details of the linkage between the GEF and UNFCCC were not clear, and they were the main cause of the weak nature of GEF. The main weakness was in tweaking the GEF, which was addressing more than one Convention, to address the issues of UNFCCC COP climate change.

The financial resources allocated to the GEF under the Convention are grossly inadequate, and this has been made worse by the global financial turmoil of the last couple of years.

Changes in context

Because we are talking about money matters, it is important to note that the global financial scenario now and in the '80s and '90s is pretty different. The effects of the global financial recession of the last couple of years are still lingering, affecting the flow of funds into the UNFCCC financial mechanism.

Also, there are many more ways in which funds are being channelled to address climate change issues, such as the Clean Development Mechanism, innovative green energy as well as carbon-friendly technologies. Most of these channels are market-based.

Efforts to strengthen the UNFCCC Financial Mechanism

- **Establishment of level of ambition**

The GEF was weathering an onslaught from all directions, and the calls for its restructuring led to some few changes. The Bali Action Plan, for example, established the level of ambition, as well as the level of resources, for funding climate change activities in developing countries.

- **Standing Committee**

At COP 16, Parties decided to establish a Standing Committee to assist the COP in exercising its functions with regards to the financial mechanism of the Convention.

- **Long-term Finance**

At COP 17 (Durban Platform), parties decided to make Global Climate Fund (GCF) an operational entity of the financial mechanism of the Convention; this was in accordance with Article II of the Convention. COP 18 (Doha, Qatar), will aim to conclude the arrangements between COP and GCF. The main emphasis will be on enhancing accountability.

Conclusion

Thus, it is apparent that the GEF was poorly conceived, and the window of getting a more functional fund is closing. In the next post, we will examine the special funds we had mentioned earlier on in great detail, as well as the outlook of the future of the UNFCCC financial mechanism. See you then!

Part 6: Where is the Money?

In the previous chapter, we discussed how the Global Environment Facility (GEF) works. In this chapter, we will look at the Special Funds which have been established to address the effects of climate change, with some of them being managed by the GEF. The Funds we are going to discuss are:

- Special Climate Change Fund (SCCF)
- Least Developed Countries Fund (LDCF)
- Adaptation Fund
- Green Climate Fund (GCF)

1. Special Climate Change Fund (SCCF)

The Climate Change Convention established the SCCF in 2001, and its main task was to finance projects relating to adaptation, industry, agriculture, forestry, waste management, technology transfer and capacity building, energy, economic diversification and transport.

This was quite an extensive mandate, and the GEF was tasked with managing this Fund. For a start, the GEF Council established a programming document that actually laid out the operational basis for funding under the SCCF. During COP17 in Durban, South Africa, the GEF was tasked with clarifying the concept of additional funds to the SCCF, as well as to raise awareness on the need for donor countries to provide adequate resources to make this Fund functional, especially in supporting projects initiated by country Parties.

2. Least Developed Countries Fund (LDCF)

This Fund is also managed by the GEF, and this mandate was provided for in COP7. The main aim of establishing this Fund was to assist least developed countries to implement their National Adaptation Programmes of Action (NAPA). Thereafter, at COP11, Parties agreed upon the provisions that would see the full-cost funding and co-financing of this Fund.

At COP17, the GEF was directed to make clear project baselines as well as how Parties can prepare applications for funding for the NAPAs. But then, it is important to note that there were other elements in the LDC work programme other than NAPAs. In this regard, the Least Developed Countries Expert Group (LEG) was given the task of specifying these aspects of this Fund to the COP; this would in turn enable the COP to advise the GEF on how to proceed.

During COP18 in Doha, Qatar, UN agencies, GEF and other international organizations will have the opportunity to provide information on how they can establish further support for the other LDC work programme elements, apart from NAPA.

3. Adaptation Fund

The Adaptation Fund was established to finance concrete projects of developing countries which are Parties to the Kyoto Protocol, and which are most vulnerable to climate change. A share of Clean Development Mechanism (CDM) proceeds finances this Fund, as well as finances from other sources. The Adaptation Fund Board (AFB) manages and supervises this Fund. The AFB meets at least twice a year, and it has 16 members.

The World Bank is the trustee of the Adaptation Fund, but this is on an interim basis. Parties invited the GEF to provide secretariat services to the Adaptation Fund Board, also on an interim basis. In 2011, a review on the aforementioned interim arrangements began, and the AFB finally submitted it to COP17.

The Subsidiary Body for Implementation (SBI) provides advice to the COP on all matters; thus, the SBI was tasked with coming up with a draft decision that would be presented to COP18 for adoption.

4. Green Climate Fund (GCF)

The GCF was established during COP16 in Cancun, Mexico, as an operating entity of the financial mechanism. The Global Climate Fund Board was appointed to govern this Fund. The main aim of establishing the GCF was to support projects, programmes, policies and other activities in developing country Parties.

The World Bank was also appointed as the interim trustee of the Global Climate Fund. This arrangement was however subject to review three years after the operationalization of the Green Climate Fund.

A Transitional Committee (TC) was also formed at COP16 and given the mandate of designing the Green Climate Fund. The membership of this committee is drawn from 40 members (15 from developed countries and 25 from developing countries). At COP17 in Durban, South Africa, the TC had come up with a governing instrument for GCF; the COP then adopted it. The UNFCCC secretariat and the GEF secretariat were also required to set up an interim secretariat until an independent secretariat of the GCF is established.

At COP18 in Doha, Qatar, the arrangements between the COP and GCF will be finalized so that there is greater transparency and accountability on the activities of the latter; also, the COP is tasked with providing guidance to the GCF Board. The host country of the GCF will be decided at COP18, as well as the GCF Board Members.

Tasks of the GCF Board:

- To expedite the operationalization of the GCF
- To select the trustee of the GCF through a transparent and competitive bidding process
- To provide annual reports of its activities to the COP

Conclusion

This marks the end of this post, although it is laden with plenty of details; but then, it is prudent that you understand how these Funds work so that you can wrap your head around the politics involved in running them. The next chapter will delve into the structure of the COP so that you will have a thorough understanding of its inner workings.

Part 7: Structure of the COP

Finally, we are on the home stretch, and this chapter will mark the end of the COP series that has been dissecting the nitty gritty of the UNFCCC process.

This chapter will cover two important sub-topics:

- The structure of the COP (Conference of Parties)
- The timeline of the UNFCCC COP

1. Structure of COP

There is no doubt that COP has been the buzzword of the annual climate change talks, and it is important to unravel this enigma. Simply stated, COP is the highest decision-making body of the Climate Change Convention. The COP also meets annually, and this year's meeting will be in Doha, Qatar, and has been dubbed 'COP18', since it is the eighteenth Conference of Parties.

Main Objective

The main objective of the COP is to review the Conventions implementation.

Devolution

COP has been devolved to two subsidiary bodies, and they are the 'heart' of COP. There are two permanent subsidiary bodies under COP, namely Subsidiary Body for Scientific Technological Advice (SBSTA) and Subsidiary Body for Implementation (SBI).

a. Subsidiary Body for Scientific Technological Advice (SBSTA)

The main aim of SBSTA is to provide COP with advice on scientific, technological and methodological matters. This entails:

- To promote development and transfer of environmentally friendly technologies
- Conducting technical work to improve the guidelines for preparing national communications and emission inventories

The SBSTA is the link between the expert scientific bodies such as IPCC and the COP (which mainly focuses on policy issues)

b. Subsidiary Body for Implementation (SBI)

This body gives advice to the COP on all matters concerning the implementation of the Constitution. This is mainly in assessing progress through National Communications and Emission Inventories.

The SBI also assesses the financial assistance which is usually provided to no-Annex I countries, as well as providing advice on budgetary and administrative matters.

It is important to note that there are areas where the SBSTA and SBI usually intersect in mandate, and this includes:

- Capacity building
- Vulnerability of developing countries to climate change and response measures
- The Kyoto Protocol Mechanism

The SBSTA and the SBI usually meet at least twice a year in parallel.

2. COP Timeline

The journey to COP 18 and climate change process in general has been long, and it traces its roots to the UN Conference on Environment and Development held in May 1992 in Rio de Janeiro Brazil. The convention came into full force in 1994, and it established the Conference of the Parties (COP), the highest decision making process in the convention. Let us get a snapshot of the COP timeline:

COP 1: Establishing the Basics

The 1st COP (COP 1) was held in Berlin in 1995, and it aimed at addressing the member states' capacity in implementing the Body for Scientific and Technological Advice (SBSTA) and the Subsidiary Body for Implementation (SBI). The 'Berlin Mandate' was the result of this meeting, with its main task being to draft a protocol or legal instrument to compel Parties to address climate change.

COP 2: Geneva Declaration

COP 2 was held in Geneva in 1996 and it focused on stressing the need to accelerate talks on how to strengthen Climate Change Convention.

COP 3: Kyoto Protocol

COP 3 was held in Kyoto in 1997 where the Kyoto Protocol was adopted. The protocol was instrumental in efforts aimed at curbing greenhouse gas emissions, and it came up with mechanisms such as emission trading, Clean Development Mechanism (CDM) and joint implementation.

COP 4: Plan of Action

COP 4 was held in Buenos Aires, Argentina in 1998 and aimed at strengthening the provisions of Kyoto Protocol through the adoption of a 2-year action plan.

COP 5: Finalizing the Kyoto Protocol

COP 5 was held in Bonn, Germany in 1999, and it set a timetable for completing work on the Kyoto Protocol.

COP 6: Kyoto Protocol Operation Rulebook

The first session of COP 6 took place in The Hague, Netherlands in the year 2000. The negotiations took a political turn with the US and EU, carbon credit and matters compliance taking the center stage. The second session of COP 6 was held in Bonn, Germany and focused on flexible mechanisms, carbon sinks, compliance matters and funding the climate change process.

COP 7: Marrakech Accords

The COP 7 was held in Marrakech, Morocco in 2001 and it finalized on the Buenos Aires Action Plan and ratification of Kyoto Protocol. The convention also adopted the Marrakech Accords.

COP 8: New Delhi Work Program

COP 8 was held in New Delhi India in 2002, and adopted the Delhi Ministerial Declaration and New Delhi Work Program.

COP 9: Adaptation Fund

COP 9 took place in Milan, Italy in 2003 and adopted among others the Adaptation Fund to support developing countries in adapting better mechanisms in curbing climate change.

COP 10: Post-Kyoto Mechanisms

COP 10 was held in Buenos Aires, Argentina in 2004, and it aimed at promoting climate change mitigation and adaptation of cleaner mechanisms as well as post-Kyoto mechanisms.

COP 11: Montreal Action Plan

In 2005, COP 11 was held in Montreal Canada. It also marked the first meeting of the parties (MOP-1) to Kyoto Protocol. The conference produced the Montreal Action Plan.

COP 12: Nairobi Conference

Closer home, the COP 12 was held in 2006 in Nairobi, where a 5 year plan was adapted.

COP 13: Bali Action Plan

Year 2007 saw COP 13 being held in Bali, Indonesia where the post 2012 framework and Bali Action Plan were developed.

COP 14: Poznan Climate Change Conference

In 2008, COP 14 was held in Poznan, Poland. In the conference, the delegates proposed the modality for financing the poor nations in curbing climate change.

COP 15: Copenhagen Accord

COP 15 was held in Copenhagen Denmark in 2009, with an aim of establishing a global climate change agreement to succeed Kyoto Protocol. This, however, was not realized.

COP 16: Cancun Agreements

In 2010, COP 16 was held in Cancun Mexico.

COP 17: Durban Platform

COP 17 was held in Durban South Africa. A highlight of this conference was the creation of the Green Climate Fund.

COP 18

Between November 26 and December 7, 2012, COP 18 will happen in Doha, Qatar, and it will seek to renew commitments on the Kyoto Protocol.

Conclusion

We hope that you have enjoyed this series on Peeling Back the COP, and that you have also learnt a lot; for those who are experts in this field, it is our hope that these posts have refreshed your knowledge.

Final Conclusion

It is our sincere hope that you have enjoyed going through this booklet, as well as learning a new thing or two; for veterans in this field, we hope that you have refreshed your memory on the same.

We will be glad to hear from you concerning this booklet; you can drop us an email at cop.pocketbook@gmail.com

Team Awesome

The following awesome people made sure that this project happened:

1. Kennedy Liti Mbeva – African Youth Initiative on Climate Change – Kenya
2. Reuben Makomere – African Youth Initiative on Climate Change – Kenya
3. Charles Kyeti – African Youth Initiative on Climate Change – Kenya.
4. Kenny Wahome – African Youth Initiative on Climate Change - Kenya
5. Ntiokam Divine – Children of the Earth and UN CSD Education Caucus Youth Leader.

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Unity



Strength