

pour le débat

URBAN FABRIC

N° 02/09 JUNE 2009

POST-2012 CLIMATE CHANGE AGREEMENT

Fitting Commitments by Cities

Political, Economic, Technical and Legal Aspects

Benoit Lefèvre, Matthieu Wemaere (IDDRI)

RÔLE CLÉ DES VILLES On assiste à une prise de conscience croissante du rôle que les territoires urbains peuvent et doivent jouer dans la lutte contre le changement climatique et la réduction des gaz à effet de serre. Parallèlement, il y a une montée en puissance d'un lobby des autorités locales vis-à-vis des États.

UNE INCLUSION PERTINENTE L'inclusion des autorités locales dans la lutte contre le changement climatique apparaît pertinente pour deux raisons principales : la densité et la structure spatiale des villes sont des déterminants clés des consommations énergétiques (bâtiment et transport) ; les opportunités d'abattement des émissions de CO₂ nécessitent une coordination locale pour minimiser les coûts de transaction.

ENGAGE, EMPOWER AND RESOURCE Cette formule, forgée lors du Sommet C40 de Séoul (mai 2009), appelle à des engagements clairs et quantifiés ; à une augmentation des pouvoirs et des compétences attribuées aux autorités locales ; à des ressources financières considérables.

FEUILLE DE ROUTE Cet article identifie les éléments clés à considérer pour la mise en place d'une feuille de route permettant l'inclusion des villes dans un accord post-Kyoto. Les aspects politiques, économiques, techniques et légaux de cette inclusion sont explorés, en soulignant les questions en jeu.

CRUCIAL ROLE There is a growing awareness of the crucial role that urban territories must and can play in reducing greenhouse gas emissions, along with a growing power of a lobby dedicated to supporting the voices of urban territories vis-à-vis national states.

LOCAL RELEVANCY The local level of organization and policy is relevant for two main reasons: density and spatial organization are key factors that influence energy consumption in transport and building; some of the major potentials for emission abatement need local coordination to overcome transaction costs.

ENGAGE, EMPOWER AND RESOURCE This formula, forged during the C40 Seoul Summit (May 2009), calls for clear and quantified commitments with a timetable for delivery; additional power and competencies for cities to increase their capacity to act; and substantial financial resources.

ROADMAP This paper identifies key elements that need to be taken into account when developing a roadmap that seeks empowerment of local governments in the UN post-2012 framework. It explores political, economic, technical and legal aspects, along with respective main issues to be addressed.

Fitting Commitments by Cities into a Post-2012 Climate Change Agreement

Political, Economic, Technical and Legal Aspects

Benoit Lefèvre, Matthieu Wemaere

Introduction	3
Political aspects of commitments by cities in a post-2012 climate change agreement	4
Interlocutor's identification issue	4
Time line issue	4
Economic aspects of commitments by cities in a post-2012 climate change agreement	5
Required distinctions and key questions	5
Shifting to sustainable trajectories of urban development	5
Building a coherent policy framework	6
Disentangling urban fabric processes	6
Marginal Abatement Cost Curves (MACCs) for cost-effectiveness	9
How to enable cities to engage in climate protection?	10
How to involve business?	10
Technical aspects of commitments by cities in a post-2012 climate change agreement	11
Legal aspects of commitments of cities in a post-2012 climate change agreement	11
Acknowledgement records of commitments of cities	12
Possible institutionalisations of the contributions made by cities into a post-2012 climate change agreement	12

This article has been written within the framework of "EU and Global Climate Change Policy and the Increasing Role of Cities" CEPS Task Force, chaired by Laurence Tubiana (Iddri, Sciences Po).

Introduction

We can currently distinguish three significant and promising interrelated processes regarding the large and complex area of “Cities and Climate Change” issues:

- a growing awareness of the crucial role that urban territories must and can play in reducing greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions,
- the emergence and consolidation of various urban territory networks providing benchmarking, exchange of best practices and decentralized cooperation,
- the growing power of a (still heterogeneous) lobby dedicated to supporting the voices of urban territories vis-à-vis national states. The objective was summarized during the most recent C40 meeting in Seoul by the formula “Engage, Empower and Resources”, which calls for clear and quantified commitments with a timetable for delivery; additional power and competencies for cities to increase their capacity to act; and substantial financial resources.

The local level of organization and policy is indeed relevant for three main reasons. First, density and spatial organization are key factors that influence energy consumption in transport and buildings (the two key sectors that need to be tackled urgently). Second, some of the major potentials for emission abatement need local coordination to overcome transaction costs. Finally, pervasive climate policies must involve other actors than states, enterprises and individuals, and the intermediate institutions have a particular role to play.

The current post-Kyoto negotiation is crystallizing these three processes and there are now multiple city and/or urban region networks that are lobbying for an acknowledgement of the role of local governments in achieving stringent CO₂ emission reduction, within a post-2012 climate change agreement.

Regarding climate change negotiation, these networks essentially advocate three objectives:

- “to be recognized”: an international acknowledgement of the critical role of local governments in achieving stringent CO₂ emission reduction,
- “to have a seat at the decision-making table”: their participation (or consultation) in climate-related policy design,
- “to be supported in their actions”: the deployment of a set of policies and instruments to support their efforts (capacity building, carbon finance, technology transfer, etc.).

This international acknowledgement of the role of local government is often quoted as a necessary step to give legitimacy to local authorities in their negotiations with national governments.

However, as the post-2012 climate change negotiation is already a highly complicated process, the inclusion of infra-national governments into the agreement needs to constitute a “solution” rather than a “new problem”. There is a consensus to recognize that a roadmap

is needed to build this “solution”. The purpose is not to open the door to local government in post-Kyoto negotiations or to give them access to international climate instruments, but rather to accelerate GHG emission abatement.

At this stage, it is not at all clear how these (bottom-up) local initiatives relate to national, European Union (EU) and especially global climate change policy and actions. While cities can be a driver for accelerated action, in some cases, additional incentives will need to be provided. While businesses are generally keen to be involved, there is concern over double-regulation. Will city-level policy reinforce national (and/or EU) policy or will it add an additional layer of regulation, creating inefficiencies and rent-seeking behaviour? Finally, a key issue that is gradually developing concerns the institutional set-up within the EU and the UN, i.e. how can local and city level activities be linked institutionally to the post-2012 climate change framework?

The objective of this paper is to offer a framework to consider “How commitments by cities can fit into a post-2012 climate change agreement?” This paper identifies key elements that need to be taken into account when developing a roadmap that seeks empowerment of local governments in the UN post-2012 framework on climate change. Four aspects of this question will be explored: political, economic, technical and legal. The main issues to be addressed regarding each of these four aspects will be highlighted.

Political aspects of commitments by cities in a post-2012 climate change agreement

Interlocutor's identification issue

Recently, we have seen a proliferation of city and/or urban regional networks that are lobbying for international acknowledgement of the crucial role of local governments in achieving stringent CO₂ emission reduction.

- At the city level: Energie-Cités, LGA, Climate Alliance for European Cities, AIMF, C40, Metropolis, ICLEI, EuroCities, WMCCC, CGLU, etc.
- At regional level: FOGAR, AER, AIRE, CRPM, NRG4SD, IT4ALL, Climate Group, Encore, OLAGI, Northern Forum, AIRE, etc.

Given this situation it is particularly difficult for national and supra-national authorities to establish a productive dialogue to go ahead on these issues. The first political issue is therefore to identify the relevant interlocutor(s) to establish a constructive dialogue between representatives of urban territories and national and international authorities. Three facets of this issue must be taken into account:

- Which level of “local government” is relevant to tackle territorial issues? Where is the strongest capacity to act: urban regions or cities?
- Which level of infra-national government has the political and institutional legitimacy to hold discussions with national counterparts?
- Considering the large differences of both the institutional frameworks between states and also between the capacities of cities to take action according to their size, their rank within the national urban hierarchy and their wealth, how can a dialogue be established that works at both national and international levels (EU, UN, etc.)?

Time line issue

For a new topic to be discussed in Copenhagen (December 2009), it is required that at least one party officially makes the proposition for inclusion in the negotiating text through its submission to the Ad-hoc Working Group on Long-term Cooperative Action under the Convention (AWG-LCA).

The submission of Senegal (April 22nd, 2009) and of Uruguay (April 17th, 2009) called for the recognition of “regional governments”. Therefore, the current negotiating text that

has been discussed in Bonn (1-12 June 2009) makes references to “local, sub national, and regional levels” as “appropriate levels” to “ensure that adaptation action is implemented” (cf E. Institutional arrangements §45 item d). There is currently no mention of the role of infra-national level of government in the other three parts of the negotiating text (Shared Vision, Mitigation and Financing, Technology and Capacity Building).

According to article 17 of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), the text of any proposed protocol shall be communicated to the Parties by the Secretariat at least 6 months before the session where it will be discussed for adoption. According to this procedural rule, also known as the “6 months rule”, which also applies to any proposed amendments to the UNFCCC (article 15 §2 UNFCCC) or the Kyoto Protocol (article 21 §3 KP), the deadline for submitting a text expired on 7th June 2009.

However, let us remember that a roadmap seeking the empowerment of local governments in the UN post-2012 framework on climate change should not be confined by the negotiation timetable. It must define “how to start” and “where to go”, and then discuss the path and the different steps that can be taken to reach this goal. The Copenhagen meeting will hopefully be an important milestone along this road, but it will remain only one step. We also need to look beyond Copenhagen.

Economic aspects of commitments by cities in a post-2012 climate change agreement

Required distinctions and key questions

Regarding economic aspects of “how commitments by cities can fit into a post-2012 climate change agreement”, there is a need to differentiate between:

- Cities of capped countries and cities of non-capped countries. There are differences between these two groups in terms of the untapped potential of GHG emission abatement and the natures of support that can be provided.
- Investment cost (for retrofitting or new construction) and maintenance and operation costs. There are differences between both the nature of potential financial resources and of required incentives.
- Medium-sized cities and mega-cities, which neither have the same capacities to access climate instruments such as adaptation funds or carbon finance; nor to implement CO₂ emission reduction actions.

Once these differences have been taken into account, there are three key questions to consider when developing a roadmap that seeks the empowerment of local governments in the UN’s post-2012 framework on climate change:

- What and where is the potential of significant urban GHG emission reduction?
- What will be the costs, the amounts and their types, relating to these GHG emission reductions?
- What will be the requirements of local authorities (green technologies, funding, capacity building, etc) to engage in these GHG emission reductions?

Shifting to sustainable trajectories of urban development

It is acknowledged that, whilst cities are systems with complex interrelationships and feedback between their multiple elements, a project-based approach is not sufficient to tackle the potential of urban CO₂ emission abatements. We are facing the challenge of altering trajectories of urban development, of moving towards sustainable trajectories.

Three conclusions can be drawn from this observation:

- Local climate action plans have to combine consistently incremental changes – such as very low emission vehicles and buildings – together with systemic innovations in urban design, spatial organization, networks and transport systems.

- Therefore, a coherent and systemic approach, addressing both incremental and systemic changes, is needed to tackle the issues of transition in the urban trajectory.
- Support provided to cities should be specific to each step of the trajectory's transition and the required combination of policies and incentives will necessarily evolve during this transition.

Indeed, because we are facing a transition challenge – shifting from current to sustainable trajectories of urban development – the nature and volume of the required support varies for each stage of the transition, and this support must be adapted to the specificities of each city. Therefore, the required support should be a specific combination of financial resources, green technology transfer and capacity building.

Building a coherent policy framework

As climate policies and measures would only be a piece of a broader set of incentives and financial instruments, building a coherent framework remains the big issue.

Indeed, one crucial challenge is to coordinate climate policies with other fields of public action, at both the local level (land-use planning, transport planning, energy deployment, etc.) and national and international levels (energy policies, industrial policies, recovery plans, regional policies etc.). Without doubt, to be effective, climate policies targeting cities must be part of a coherent policy framework.

Consequently, the questions are:

- What blend of policies and incentives will be required to foster urban GHG emission reductions?
- How will this mixture of policies and instruments evolve in relation with the successive stages of the transition towards sustainable trajectories of urban development?

Disentangling urban fabric processes

It is necessary to untangle and understand urban fabric¹ processes to ensure that international and national policies match local needs. The aim is to shed light on urban fabric mechanisms and the conditions needed to achieve a change of direction. In doing so, a shared understanding of the issues will be facilitated, putting these issues into a global perspective and framing the discussion on the required policies for fostering urban CO₂ emission reduction. In addition, it is important to take into account both the necessity of a coherent framework for different fields of public actions, and also the link between a city's capacity to act and specific national institutional contexts.

There are various tools available to disentangle urban fabric processes. For example, two such methods are presented here:

- Tools that allow breaking down the drivers of CO₂ emissions, the categories of project to reduce them, and highlight the responsibilities of each stakeholder;
- Tools that allow the assessment of the local capacity to act, which influences the policy options available to local authorities, and the way in which they can be implemented.

Transportation and ASIF framework

For example, regarding urban transportation CO₂ emissions, the ASIF framework (IEA; Schipper et al., 2001) was developed to break down the drivers of CO₂ emissions due to transportation and so the categories of project to reduce them.

ASIF describes the four basic components that drive transportation energy consumption and emissions :

Emissions = [A. Activity (pkm=trips x km)] X [S. mode Share (% pkm)] X [I. fuel Intensity (quantity per Km)] X [F. Fuel mix (emission per quantity)]

1. We defined the urban fabric as all economic, political, legal and sociological processes whose interactions determine the development of the urban and peri-urban surroundings.

It highlights that there are multiple factors influencing each of the ASIF components, with many affecting more than one component:

$A = f$ [population, demographics (age, gender, etc), income (trip rates and distance tends to rise with income), economy and its composition, urban form and size (spatial distribution of actors), etc.]

$S = f$ [income (influence value of time and thus demand for speed, comfort and privacy, vehicle ownership, etc), motorization rate, infrastructure provision (affect the willingness to choose NMT options, availability of certain fixed-transit options, modal attractiveness through effects on reliability), service provision (quality), relative costs (out of-pocket and perceived costs), urban form and size (spatial distribution of actors), etc]

$I = f$ [engine type, vehicle load, vehicle age, (government standards), Driving conditions (congestion levels), vehicle occupancy, urban design (street network type), etc]

$F = f$ [fuel type (Life Cycle Analysis [1]), engine type, vehicle technology, vehicle age, temperature, altitude, etc.]

ASIF allows the identification of the categories of project to tackle each component, but also how policy can have contradictory effects on other components:

- activity: land-use planning, tax system or other financial incentives interfering with location choices, etc,
- mode share: investment in zero/low-carbon transportation modes, inter-modality, etc,
- fuel intensity: low-carbon vehicles, feebate (fee and rebate), etc,
- fuel mix: low-carbon fuels.

Finally, it highlights the responsibilities and the key role of each stakeholder:

- activity: local / regional authorities,
- mode share: local / regional authorities, national / European supports,
- fuel intensity: national / European levels, negotiation with automakers,
- fuel mix: national / European levels, tax policies, agricultural policies, etc.

Building sector

The same approach can be developed for the building sector. The determinants of carbon emissions in residential and commercial buildings can be broken down into several factors put simply as follows:

$$Emission = A \times B \times I \times \sum \frac{F_i \cdot S_i}{\eta_i}$$

A: activity level, or total building area (which is determined by population growth, urbanisation rate and economic development and income increase),

B: behaviour of energy users (e.g. indoor temperature, use of air conditioning) which is also determined by income level and consumption culture and social values,

I: energy intensity of buildings – which is determined by building type (high or low-rise buildings), building design, energy efficiency (insulation, electric appliances) and urban morphology (the compacity of built environment),

A ratio taking into account the emission factor of the fuel (F), the share of fuel in the total fuel (S), and the fuel efficiency.

In the same way as urban transportation, the identification of carbon emission's drivers in the buildings sector highlights the categories of projects that need to be developed and the implications for all stakeholders.

Two comments on building sector issues:

- When designing climate policies targeting the building sector, there is a need to differentiate between existing and new constructions, in relation to the rate of urbanization of a city and/or a country. Priorities are not the same everywhere.
- These issues need to be tackled by an integrated approach with (renewable) energy pro-

duction capacity deployment.

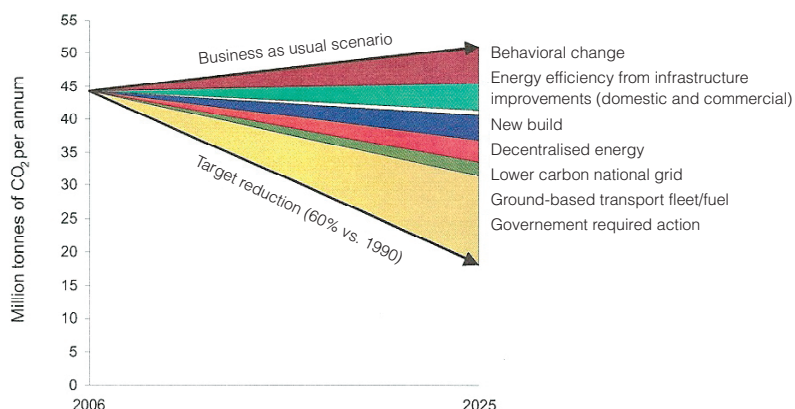
Local capacity to act: wedge analysis and map of stakeholders' influences²

Because local energy policy can have so many core drivers – economics, environment, etc. – the local capacity to act on climate issues may vary depending on the topic. For instance, cities with direct control of the local electric or gas utility can have significant input into pricing policies or the fuels used to generate power. That same city, however, may have much more limited control over public transport planning or whether households or commercial buildings invest in energy efficient heating and cooling systems. In a world where local authorities seek increasingly to take steps to mitigate their city's contribution to global climate change, local capacity to act is a critical concept.

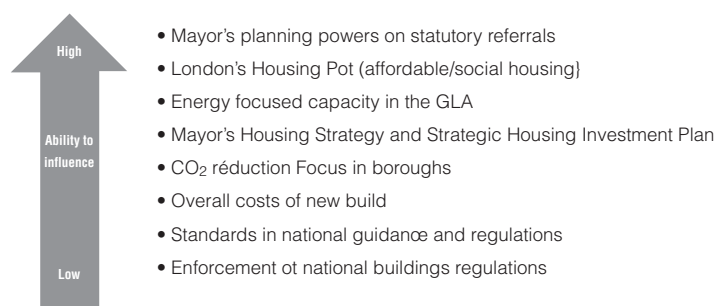
Local capacity to act influences both policy options that local authorities consider, and the options they ultimately select. It cuts directly to the heart of whether a local authority can deliver on its ideas or plans, or whether it is primarily subject to decisions or actions by other stakeholders, such as regional, state or national government, the private sector, or individual households.

Assessing capacity to act can be challenging, but some cities are forging ahead. For instance, the Greater London Authority has assigned responsibility for different initiatives proposed in its climate action plan that it hopes will reduce citywide greenhouse gas emissions by 60% by 2025. The Plan specifically notes that local policy powers are capable of delivering a mere fraction of the total target (GLA Climate change plan): *“Under all scenarios considered in this action plan, the Mayor and the [Greater London Authority] alone cannot deliver more than 15% of the necessary reductions. Responsibility for tackling climate change must be shared between the Mayor, the London boroughs (5-10% of requirement),*

2. This section is taken for a large part from Steve Hammer, 2008, Introduction and Methodological Note, Working Paper, Columbia University.



Source: GLA Climate change plan



Source: GLA Climate change plan

London's companies and public sector organizations (35-40 per cent), Londoners (5-10%) and national government (30%)”.

The GLA's calculation comes from an in-house assessment of where the Mayor has significant policy control, and where these powers are weaker. For instance, looking at the GLA's ability to influence the emissions associated with buildings around London, the Mayor's team developed an influence 'hierarchy' examining different factors that could potentially affect buildings related emissions, and the mayor's influence over these factors.

As presented below for the transportation sector of Bogota (Colombia), another way to assess the local capacity to act is to map the nature and strength of all stakeholders' influences.

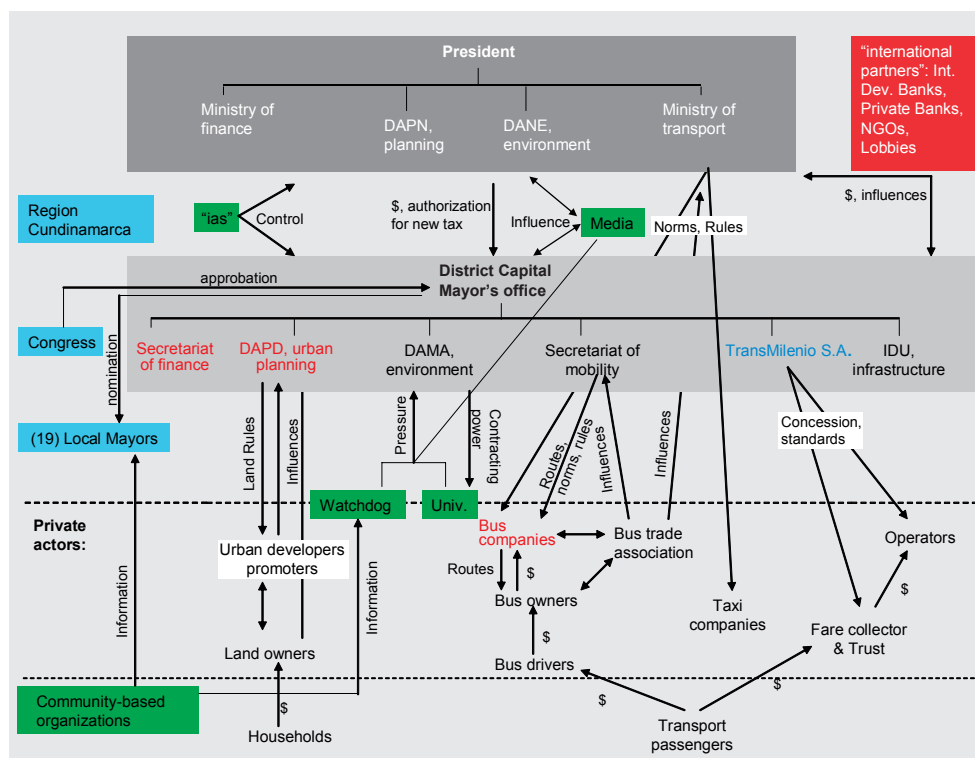
The review of local capacity to act can therefore be seen as a fundamental precursor to each city's ultimate policy recommendations. It is impossible to speak generically about a municipality's capacity to act, because the key attributes of a local authority – its institutional structures, its responsibilities, and its powers of taxation – are all derived from state or national government allocations of authority.

Marginal Abatement Cost Curves (MACCs) for cost-effectiveness

While the requirement for cost-effectiveness should probably be proportional to the environmental ambition, few Local Climate Action Plans today consider the economic dimension of the problem.

Until now, the issue of cost-effectiveness has been successfully applied to international negotiations (European Emissions Trading Scheme – EU-ETS) and to national policies. Energy-economy or sectoral energy models have made it possible to simulate different policies and especially to build sets of Marginal Abatement Cost Curves (MACCs). These mechanisms are highly efficient tools for analysing different aspects of climate policies, particularly seeking to reduce the global cost through a certain levelling of the marginal costs of sectoral initiatives.

As for the analysis of international negotiations, the development of MACCs of urban situation is certainly one of the simplest and most powerful solutions. They can provide the



required support to develop a methodology for defining and prioritising the actions to be launched based on technical-economic criteria, and then organising the different actions required in order to build a cost-effective programme.

Today, the challenge for the design of cost-effective Local Climate Action Plans is to develop the capability of combining the systemic and the incremental approaches.

How to enable cities to engage in climate protection?

Because we are facing a transition challenge – shifting from current trajectories of urban development to sustainable trajectories – the nature of costs related to urban GHG emission abatement vary along the transition, and cannot only be tackled through additional funding. Consequently, both the nature and the amount of required support vary according to each stage of the transition, and the support provided must be adapted to the specificities of each city. Therefore, the required support should be a specific and evolving combination of financial resources, green technology transfer and capacity building.

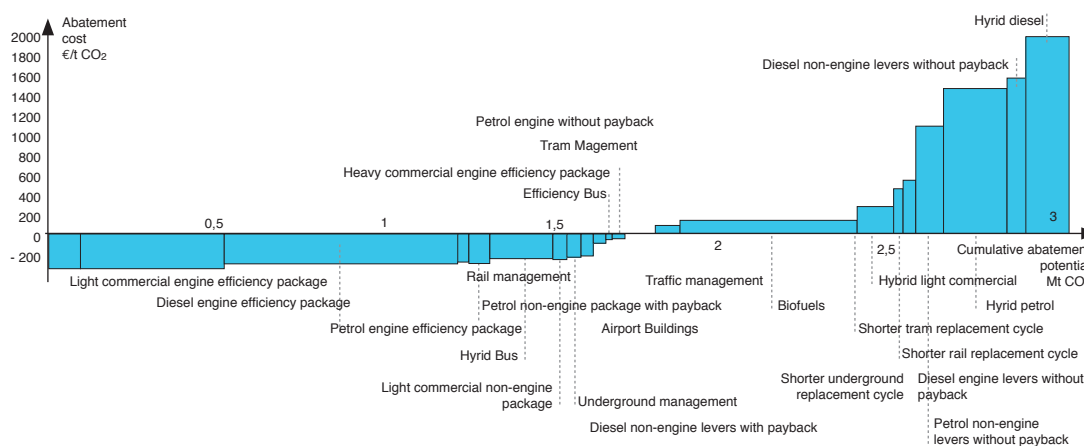
Before reaching for international climate instruments, such as (adaptation) funds, carbon markets or revenue from auctioning CO₂ quotas, it seems relevant to first mobilize resources from the private sector. Businesses - financial institutions including development banks, industries, equipment providers - are generally interested in participating in the urban GHG emission abatement effort, but there is a need to build the capacities of cities to enable these resources to be utilized. Among the many barriers, two issues in particular can be stressed: the fragmentation of the urban GHG reduction project which results in transaction costs that are superior to the benefits and concern over debt, which prevents cities from borrowing money.

How to involve business?

Two issues need to be stressed regarding business involvement.

Avoidance of double-regulation. In a similar way to the EU and its member states, many national or sub-national authorities have put in place a list of policies to reduce greenhouse gas emissions including, for example, market-based instruments such as the European ETS, targets, regulations or subsidies. Additional constraints at the communal level risk exposing companies to double-regulation. Double-regulation undermines the efficiency of climate change policy by increasing costs. A key challenge is therefore to identify the space where cities can add value and to set-up a coherent framework.

Transport-Greenhouse gas abatement cost curve curve for London
(2025, decision maker perspective)



Integrated public bids. To ensure transparency, equity and to increase competition on public markets, public bids tend to be extremely segmented. Urban service providers and consultant offices have therefore adapted their responses to these segmented public bids. This constitutes a counter-productive trend for environmental issues. Indeed, the necessary shift of the urban development trajectory requires a comprehensive approach, integrating at least building, energy and transport issues. Finally, the issues of business involvement and access to international climate instruments require a prior clarification of two key technical aspects, as presented below.

Technical aspects of commitments by cities in a post-2012 climate change agreement

There is an urgent need for harmonized methodologies of CO₂ emission inventory and standardized for “measurable, reportable and verifiable” (MRV) procedures, at least in terms of a core set of parameters. This is a precondition for designing and implementing actions to involve businesses and to access international climate instruments.

A robust MRV framework for mitigation actions and support will greatly contribute to equitable and environmentally effective mitigation efforts in the post-2012 climate regime. As such, MRV should be regarded as a medium of accountability and credibility, recognizing efforts as well as political credit.

The UNFCCC and the Kyoto Protocol contain useful provisions on MRV, but this attainment should be expanded through the “agreed outcome” and by implementing measures in order to provide additional MRV requirements and guidance, in particular for the verification of policies and measures, technology transfer and capacity building.

Regarding methodologies of CO₂ emission inventory, the perimeter issue is highly debated: should emissions take into account the emissions of community institutions?; on the territory of the community?; for the activities on the territory of the community? Should the perimeter include the emissions of intensive industries and in particular ETS-capped industries? Answers to these questions should consider the social dimension (postmodern cities) and consistency with the national level.

MRV of actions and MRV of support for actions have different objectives but are linked to each other. MRV requirements may vary by country, by action type and by whether support is requested or provided, also through market-based mechanisms. MRV should cover mitigation outcomes in terms of results and/or procedures. In effect, GHG mitigation actions in countries can have different variables (and related metrics) to indicate progress towards achieving full implementation, and not all actions will result in direct, immediately measurable emission reductions.

Different works have been engaged on this issue: from Iddri, CDC, CERNA, LEPII, Veolia Institute, Wuppertal, JRC, etc. Above all, these works have shown that pilots are needed to build a bottom-up consensus, to establish harmonized and standardized methodologies for inventory and MRV procedures. For instance, regarding the perimeter issue of GHG inventory, we know that we need an open and flexible framework for the definition of the emission perimeter. Therefore, limiting it to the local authority’s own direct GHG is not a solution; and neither is including the total indirect (grey) emissions of a territory (at least in the first phase); inclusion of industries should probably remain a local choice because of its social dimension.

Legal aspects of commitments of cities in a post-2012 climate change agreement

What could be the legal nature and scope of commitments by cities towards a post-2012 climate change agreement?

Acknowledgement records of commitments of cities

UNFCCC and the Kyoto protocol are multilateral treaties involving States as Contracting Parties. Therefore, AWG-LCA and the Kyoto Protocol are Party-driven processes. However, under the Kyoto Protocol, cities can participate in Clean Development Mechanism (CDM) projects or programmes of activities.

- International Records: To date, there is no multilateral treaty placing binding obligations directly upon cities. Only under the auspices of UNESCO, a treaty relating to commitments to fight against racism recognizes cities' voluntary commitments that can be achieved through "partnerships" (collaboration).
- Regional (EU): There is the Madrid Convention / Strasbourg Protocol on cross-border cooperation, but its implementation is subordinated to inter-state agreements.
- And of course, there is the Covenant of Mayors.

As mentioned above, thanks to the submissions of Senegal and of Uruguay, the current negotiating text that has been discussed in Bonn (1-12 June 2009) makes references to "local, sub national, and regional levels" as the "appropriate level" to "ensure that adaptation action is implemented" (cf E Institutional arrangements §45 item d). Until now, there is no more precision and there is no mention of the role of the infra-national government level in the other three parts of the negotiating text (Shared Vision, Mitigation and Financing, Technology and Capacity Building).

Possible institutionalisations of the contributions made by cities into a post-2012 climate change agreement

Different aspects must be stressed here.

Possible nature of city involvement. City commitment can be mandatory with official emission reduction targets³ (i.e., cap for cities, urban sectors, etc.), or voluntary as in the Covenant of Mayors. Compromises can be found. These targets can either be quantitative or procedure and policy's implementations. As mentioned earlier, targets need to be set in accordance with the capacity to act. Targets can be differentiated according to sectors where cities have jurisdiction. In any event, commitments by cities must be coordinated with national ones. Finally, there is a risk of adverse selection for mayors between short term and long term action.

Possible scope of city involvement. This concerns the question of the perimeter of actions that can be included in city's involvement in both "urban territory" or "prerogatives" cases.

Possible acknowledgement of cities' commitments acknowledgement. This can be found within the text or in specific paragraphs of the following: in the preamble of the Copenhagen agreement, which addresses the need to involve all stakeholders, and cities in particular; in NAMA's section of the Copenhagen agreement; in a ministerial declaration adopted by the COP in Copenhagen; integrate Covenant of Mayors into the AIJ scheme (cf. decision 5 / CP.1 1995)

Possible types of access to international climate instruments. Could cities access international climate instruments directly (including carbon finance, technology transfer and capacity building), or would they have to systematically go through national channels? This presents a possible role for an improved CDM (in particular through programmes of activities). ■

3. It is worth noting the Californian example, where regional targets for the urban transportation sector are determined at the state level, following on from negotiations with local representatives grouped in a regional planning board.

IDDRI



SciencesPo.

FOUNDED IN PARIS IN 2001,

the Institute for Sustainable Development and International Relations (IDDRI) is born from three assumptions: the global changes resulting from human activities are unsustainable over the long-term; a complete transformation of development models is needed; this is possible if coherent policies are soon implemented at the global level to bring about changes in lifestyles.

IDDRI is an independent institute which aims to bridge the gap between research and decision-making; it uses scientific research to shed light on political issues which have an impact on sustainable development and on key challenges to the transformation of development models. By coordinating dialogue between stakeholders whose interests are often at odds and mobilising

teams of researchers through an extensive international network, IDDRI promotes a common understanding of concerns, while at the same time putting them into a global perspective.

IDDRI issues a range of own publications. With its *Idées pour le débat* collection, it quickly circulates texts which are the responsibility of their authors; *Synthèses* summarize the ideas of scientific debates or issues under discussion in international forums and examine controversies; *Analyses* go deeper into a specific topic. IDDRI also develops scientific and editorial partnerships, among others *A Planet for Live. Sustainable Development in Action* is the result of collaboration with the French Development Agency (AFD) and editorial partnership with Les Presses de Sciences Po.

To learn more on IDDRI publications and activities, visit www.iddri.org