Climate Resilient Farming Communities through Innovative Risk Transfer Mechanisms: Integrated Financial Package-cum-Weather Index-based Insurance (WIBI) An Experience in Southern Philippines

A presentation by

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> CCAP is Outcome 3.4 Demo Project of



Implemented by:



A UN-GOP and Public-Private Partnership











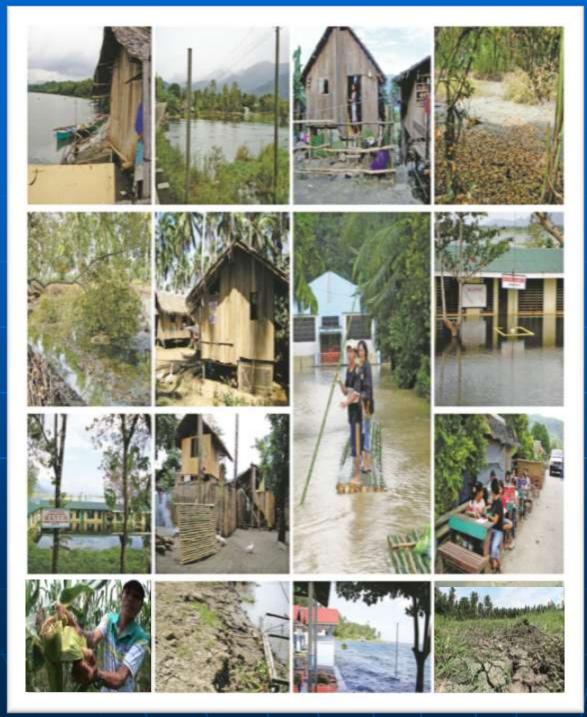
Other Collaborators:





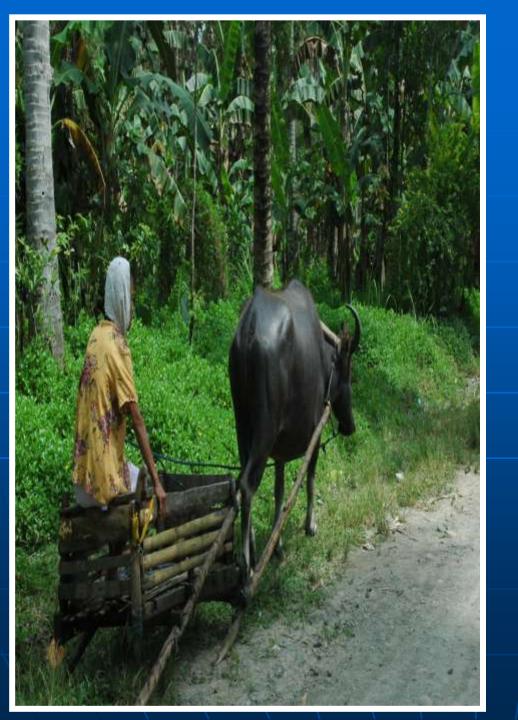






Climate-related disasters represent a major source of risks for the **POOR** in particular, the **FARMERS** who are dependent on "good weather" for their survival and livelihood!





Premises: Key Determinants of Adaptive **Capacity to CC 1-Economic** condition **2-Availability of** and access to **financial** & productive resources

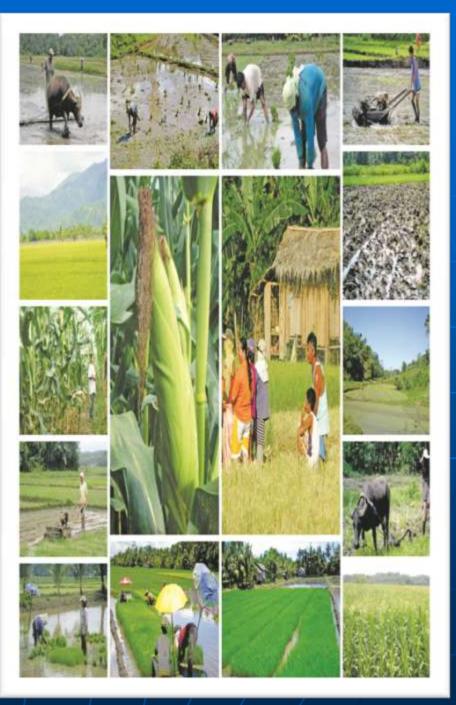




...measures to provide access to "market-based instruments" often fail as they do NOT address the CORE PROBLEM...

the POOR just could NOT afford them.





"Integrated Financial mechanisms that facilitate risk transfer & risk sharing (credit and insurance) are key "Agricultural **Solutions**⁷ for **Farming communities** enhancing their adaptive capacity thereby reduce their vulnerability, to climate change risks & impacts "





Agusan del Norte

"where water flows" allusion to the mighty Agusan River

1 city, 10 municipalities
167 barangays, 126 rural
273,024 hectares
314,027 population
57 % or 31,913 households
live below poverty line.
Majority are farming HHs
7 banks with MF function
operate in Agusan del Norte.



CCAP UTCHARAO SANTIAGO TUBAY CABADBARAN RT ROMUAL DEZ AGALLANES BUENAVIST/ NASIPIT

Agusan del Norte Farmers

Lack access to credit Information

Generally obtain financing from traders at very high interest

Lack acceptable collateral

Have unstable income & cash flow

Have low paying capacity-Low availment of insurance (crop and health)

With limited business knowledge and experience



3 Models of Innovative Integrated Financial Package : Credit delivery cum Savings, Social Protection Mechanisms, Capability-building Support for crop production and alternative livelihoods of Climate risks-vulnerable farming communities.



Test Run: 836 farmers (435 W/347M) Total loans released: Php15,130,500 -US\$ 350,000+ Rice/Corn Prodn-US\$262,000+ Corn 81 farmers/143.1 has. Rice 455 farmers/659.2 has. Alternative livelihood-US\$89,000+



NOT Financing as Usual: LGU, Coop & Rural Bank

- Low interest 0.83°
- Non-collateralized
- Less document requirements
- Simplified processing
- Production-cycle responsive releasing
- Coop/RB-w/ savings
 component

- Bundled with nonfinancial services
 - Financial literacy
 - Techno support (Envt-CC Briefings, FFS/IPM IPM/Organic Farming
 - Market info/Assistance
 - Insurance
 - health, crop, credit life









NOT Financing as Usual: Integrated Financial Package

Development /Implementation Experience

- Preparatory Studies- Baseline Study
 Vulnerability & Adaptation Assessment
 Farming Value Chain Mapping & Analysis,
 Market Research- DTI and other partners
- Establishing partnerships with financial service providersprivate & public [Peoples Bank of Caraga, Baug CARP Beneficiaries Multipurpose Coop and LGUs
- Orientations & Awareness raising on the financial packages by the FSPs





DTI- CCAP Focal Team



Insurance as Usual: Weather-Index based Insurance (WIBI) Package : Rice and Corn- Low and Excess Rainfall

- Affordable premiums³.0^{4%} ^{Rice} corn
 Faster payrout -No field assessments of damages -No need for filing of claims pay-out automatic upon breach of index
 - **Bundled with** support services:
 - WIBI literacy
 - Techno Training: Good **Agri Practices** & Pest **Control (FFS-IPM)**





NOT Insurance,as Usual: ILO-PCIC WIBI Weather-Index based Insurance Product

Development Experience

- Preparatory Studies- Baselines, V&A, Value Chain Mapping & Analysis, Market Research
- Partnerships- PCIC, DOST-PAGASA, DA, Municipal Agriculture Offices, PhilRice, Financial Service Providers
- Support from ILO-Microinsurance
 Innovation Facility
- Data Sources

30 year historical data Climate Scenarios and Projections Crop yield data from DA, MAO Farmers

Crop water requirements from DA/PhilRice

ILO-PCIC WIBI Product Devt Team







NOT Insurance as Usual: ILO-PCIC WIBI Weather-Index based Insurance Product

Implementation Experience (Cycle 1)

- WIBI Literacy- Mun. CCAP Focal Teams
- Sales, Mgt of Claims- PCIC & FSPs
- Climate Information System-
- DOST-PAGASA supported by
- DOST-Regional Office & LGUs
- Technology Support-LGUs/DA

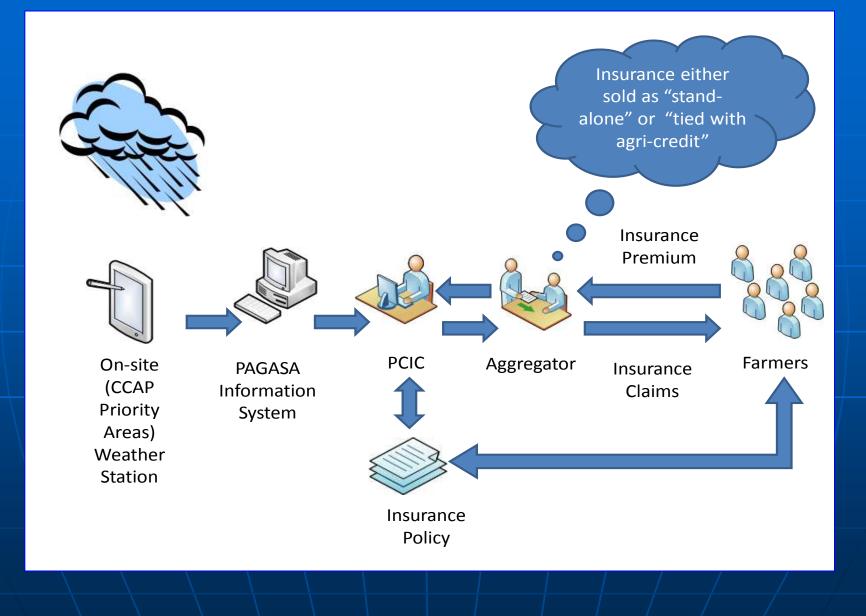
145 rice farmers enrolled 83women/62men
165 hectares
Insurance coverage-Php4.09M

56 farmers 27 women/29men received

Payout ~Php500T+ from PCIC for breach of low rainfall index







Financing + Insurance + Risk Reduction through Early Warning & Preparedness



- Weather Instruments/ EWDs installed
- Municipal/Barangays with operational EWS plans and trained monitors
- Local AWS Reference
 Stations
- Back-up Stations and EWDs



Lessons Learned

- Understand target group' characteristic and needs for financial and non-financial services through relevant analysis inc. V&A in order to for more effective design of diversified, affordable and sustainable packages
- Emphasis on offering savings products (voluntary or compulsory) to help farmers to better deal with emergencies including disasters and to be less loan dependent for their economic activities.
- Consider bundling financial services with nonfinancial services such as trainings (agricultural, business, financial education trainings) in order to make a package more attractive to the farmers & increase their opportunities to maximize farm outputs, diversify or engage in more productive activities.



Lessons Learned

 Integrate social protection mechanisms to include crop, credit life and health to strengthen confidence of farmers to engage in agriculture risk taking while protecting their crops and their families.

 Engage in Public and Private Partnership with LGUs, training institutes, insurance companies) to facilitate the effective and sustainable provision of financial (insurance) and/or non-financial (agricultural and entrepreneurship training) services.

 Integrate risk reduction measures to financial packages for reduced exposure and more effective resilience-building work.



...seen as resulting as well in incomes from related jobs & industriespotentially GREEN JOBS

- Workers in the Organic
 Fertilizer Production Plants
- Workers in Hauling & trucking
- Local labourers for rural protective structures
- Fabricators of Weather/Early Warning devices (EWDs)
- EWD Monitors and recorders
- Training-Skills & Tooling







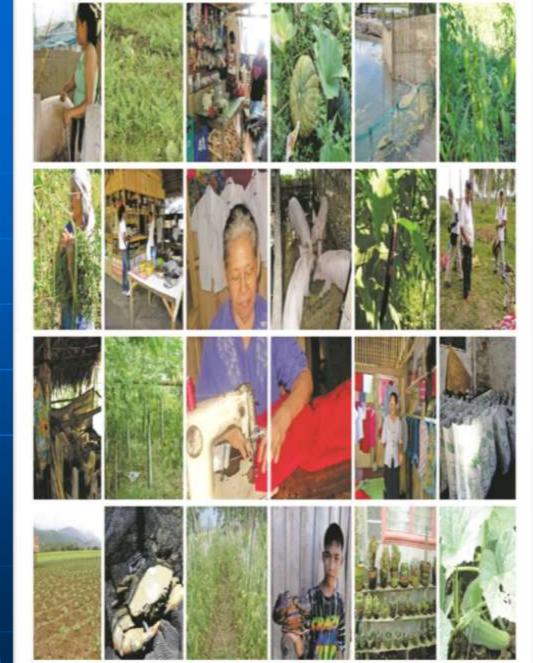












"demonstration that financial mechanisms build resilience as they:

Unlock
 productivity,

•allow farmers to undertake alternatives & "greener" economic activities

and

•plan out a more sustainable livelihood"



Innovative Integrated Financial Packages with Risk Reduction & Preparedness work to increase Adaptive Capacity, address Inequalities, minimize exposure and help ensure CC risks- resilient communities.



A resilient community can ANTICIPATE and PLAN for a sustainable future.

Thank you!



Adapting agriculture to climate change

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Edited by William Easterling, Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA, and accepted by the Editorial Board August 16, 2007 (received for review March 1, 2007)

The strong trends in climate change already evident, the likelihood of further changes occurring, and the increasing scale of potential climate impacts give urgency to addressing agricultural adaptation more coherently. There are many potential adaptation options available for marginal change of existing agricultural systems, often variations of existing climate risk management. We show that implementation of these options is likely to have substantial benefits under moderate climate change for some cropping systems. However, there are limits to their effectiveness under more severe climate changes. Hence, more systemic changes in resource allocation need to be considered, such as targeted diversification of production systems and livelihoods. We argue that achieving increased adaptation action will necessitate integration of climate change-related issues with other risk factors, such as climate variability and market risk, and with other policy domains, such as sustainable development. Dealing with the many barriers to effective adaptation will require a comprehensive and dynamic policy approach covering a range of scales and issues, for example, from the understanding by farmers of change in risk profiles to the establishment of efficient markets that facilitate response strategies. Science, too, has to adapt. Multidisciplinary problems require multidisciplinary solutions, i.e., a focus on integrated rather than disciplinary science and a strengthening of the interface with decision makers. A crucial component of this approach is the implementation of adaptation assessment frameworks that are relevant, robust, and easily operated by all stakeholders, practitioners, policymakers, and scientists.

adaptation | greenhouse | cropping | grazing | forestry

griculture is the major land use across the globe. Currently \approx 1.2–1.5 billion hectares are under crops, with another 3.5 billion hectares being grazed. Another 4 billion hectares of forest are used by humans to differing degrees, whereas, away from land, global fisheries are used very intensively, often beyond capacity (1). To meet projected growth in human population and per capita food demand, historical increases in agricultural production will have to continue, eventually doubling current production (e.g., ref. 2). Agriculture is also a major economic, social, and cultural activity, and it provides a wide range of ecosystem services. Importantly, agriculture in its many different forms and locations remains highly sensitive to climate variations, the dominant source of the overall interannual variability of production in many regions and a continuing source of disruption to ecosystem services. For example, the El Niño Southern Oscillation phenomenon, with its associated cycles of droughts and flooding events, explains between 15% and 35% of global yield variation in wheat, oilseeds, and coarse grains (3). This existing sensitivity explains why a changing climate will have subsequent impacts on agriculture. Hence, it has become critical to identify and evaluate options for adapting to climate change in coming decades. Here we use the term "adaptation" to include the actions of adjusting practices, processes, and capital in response to the actuality or threat of climate change, as well as responses in the decision environment, such as changes in social and institutional structures or altered technical options that can affect the potential or capacity for these actions to be realized (4).

We argue there is a strong rationale for an increasing focus on adaptation of agriculture to climate change. This need arises from several considerations:

- 1. Past emissions of greenhouse gases have already committed the globe to further warming of ≈0.1°C per decade for several decades (5), making some level of impact, and necessary adaptation responses, already unavoidable.
- 2. The emissions of the major greenhouse gases are continuing to increase (6), with the resultant changes in atmospheric CO₂ concentration, global temperature, and sea level observed today already at the high end of those implied by the scenarios considered by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) (7). Furthermore, some climate change impacts are happening faster than previously considered likely (5). If these trends continue, then more proactive and rapid adaptation will be needed.
- 3. There is currently a lack of progress in developing global emission-reduction agreements beyond the Kyoto Protocol, leading to concerns about the level of future emissions and hence climate changes and associated impacts.
- 4. The high end of the scenario range for climate change has increased over time (5, 8, 9), and these potentially higher global temperatures may have nonlinear and increasingly negative impacts on existing agricultural activities (1).
- 5. Climate changes may also provide opportunities for agricultural investment, rewarding early action taken to capitalize on these options (10).

There is an immense diversity of agricultural practices because of the range of climate and other environmental variables; cultural, institutional, and economic factors; and their interactions. This means there is a correspondingly large array of possible adaptation options. The objectives of this paper are first to outline these options for cropping and livestock systems, forestry, and fisheries, using the literature on crop yields as an example to assess the benefits of adaptation; and second, to suggest some general pathways that can help move from technical assessment of adaptation options to more practical action. Accordingly, we identify some preconditions for more effective uptake of adaptations; develop an adaptation framework to engage all decision makers (farmers, agribusiness, and policymakers) that builds on the existing substantial knowledge of

Author contributions: S.M.H. and N.C. analyzed data; and S.M.H., J.-F.S., F.N.T., M.D., and H.M. wrote the paper.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

This article is a PNAS Direct Submission. W.E. is a guest editor invited by the Editorial Board. Abbreviation: IPCC, Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change.

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This article contains supporting information online at www.pnas.org/cgi/content/full/ 0701890104/DC1.

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agricultural systems; and outline how science itself needs to adapt to remain relevant in this issue.

Results

Adaptation: What Is in It for Us? The purpose of undertaking agricultural adaptation is to effectively manage potential climate risks over the coming decades as climate changes. Adaptation research undertaken now can help inform decisions by farmers, agrobusiness, and policy makers with implications over a range of timeframes from short-term tactical to long-term strategic (1). However, it is particularly important to align the scales (spatial, temporal, and sectoral) and reliability of the information with the scale and nature of the decision. For example, short-term climate adaptation by farmers may be accomplished by taking into account local climate trends if there is a strong correspondence between these trends and projected climate changes, or it may be via climate forecasting at scales from daily to interannual. However, farmers may find limited utility in long-term projections of climate, given the high uncertainties at the finer spatial and temporal scales at which their decisions are made (11). In contrast, the general trends at larger time and spatial scales able to be more reliably projected with current climate models may be quite useful for input into policy and investment analyses, provided potentially critical factors are incorporated such as changes in climate extremes (12). A significant benefit from adaptation research may be to understand how short-term response strategies may link to long-term options to ensure that, at a minimum, management and/or policy decisions implemented over the next one to three decades do not undermine the ability to cope with potentially larger impacts later in the century. In the sections below, we try to identify other key benefits from an increased focus on climate change adaptation.

Keeping Policy Relevant. At the current relatively early stage of the debate, it is understandable that climate change adaptation is largely being dealt with in isolation from other issues (although see ref. 13). However, over time, this situation needs to evolve so that climate change is linked with a much broader set of policies. In particular, there is a need for linkage with existing policies on climate risk such as those on drought or structural adjustment, which otherwise may become poorly targeted. Climate change will require these policies to become more dynamic, to cope with the high level of uncertainty in the timing and magnitude of potential climate changes and the rapidly evolving knowledge base. Furthermore, climate change adaptation policies will interact with, depend on, or perhaps even be just a subset of policies on sustainable development and natural resource management, such as those necessary to regulate genetically modified organisms, protect human and animal health, and foster governance and political rights, among many others. This process is often referred to as the "mainstreaming" of climate change adaptation into policies intended to enhance broad resilience to risk or to promote sustainable development (4, 14). The critical issues of how climate change and adaptation may affect food security and trade and the risk of malnourishment are dealt with in a companion paper (13).

Informing Mitigation Targets. Importantly, identifying and evaluating possible adaptation strategies are of fundamental value to determine a set of dynamic climate policy options that lead to the "avoidance of dangerous anthropogenic interference" component (Article 2) of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (65). This is because maximizing societal welfare under future climate risk will likely involve a mix of both mitigation and adaptation; the percentage contribution of each strategy will depend on monetary and nonmonetary cost/benefit analyses. For example, we would expect the size and cost of the adaptation task to be lower if there is effective, but perhaps costly, mitigation and higher if there is no mitigation. Similarly, the benefits of adaptation will be a function of the nature of climate change and the scale of

impact. Consequently, inadequate consideration of adaptation options could result in the vulnerability to climate change being significantly overstated, giving rise to more severe mitigation targets. Additionally, mitigation policies can affect the range of adaptation options that practitioners have at their disposal (e.g., subsidizing biofuel production strongly influences the market for agricultural produce). Another perspective is that implementing effective adaptation can "buy time" until an effective mitigation response can be mounted. Hence adaptation analyses may be used to inform both the magnitude and timing of mitigation. Achievement of this complex task of effectively integrating mitigation impacts and adaptation to inform public policy development remains a significant challenge for the scientific community, although some studies are now emerging (15). This interaction of science and policy needs to evolve as the scientific knowledge base changes and may also focus attention on the importance of integrative rather than disciplinary science within the science–policy interface (16).

Informing Investment. Adaptation analyses can also help inform governments and industry of the investment or disinvestment decisions they need to make now or in the near future in relation to climate-sensitive aspects of their portfolios (e.g., ref. 1). In particular, this applies to long-term investments such as plant and animal breeding programs; building capacity in the scientific and user communities; developing quarantine systems; establishing perennial crops and forest plantations; purchasing or selling land; or building (or decommissioning) major infrastructure such as dams and water distribution systems, flood mitigation works, and storage and transport facilities. Climate risks are, of course, only one consideration within more complex decision-making processes (10). For example, in Western Australia, increased risk of drought under global warming was integrated with projections of population growth, economic development, and social norms in relation to water use, resulting in the construction of a major new dam and development of other new water sources (17).

Rewarding Early Adopters. Participatory research into climate change adaptation options can help agricultural decision makers realize that acting on the existing trends in climate now is likely to be to their advantage (e.g., ref. 18). For example, in northeast Australia, crop management that has continuously adjusted to the progressive reduction in frost risk experienced over the past several decades can almost double gross margins when compared with management based on either the long-term risk or management that does not consider frost risk (19). Participatory engagement with decision makers, by bringing their practical knowledge into the assessment, can also identify a more comprehensive range of adaptations than are typically explored by scientists, as well as being able to assess the practicality of options and contribute to more realistic assessment of the costs and benefits involved in management or policy change (19).

Focusing on Climate Risk Management. Finally, it should be recognized that "adaptation" is an ongoing process that is part of good risk management, whereby drivers of risk are identified, and their likely impacts on systems under alternative management are assessed. In this respect, adaptation to climate change is similar to adaptation to climate variability, changes in market forces (cost/ price ratios, consumer demands, etc.), or institutional or other factors. Differences may be in the rate of realized climate change, compared with how fast we are able to implement needed solutions. Isolating climate change from other drivers of risk may be helpful, especially during the initial stages of assessment when awareness of the relative importance of this risk factor is still low. Operationally, however, translating adaptation options into adaptation actions requires consideration of a more comprehensive risk management framework. This would allow exploration of quantified scenarios dealing with all of the key sources of risk, providing more effective

SUSTAINABILITY SCIENCE

AGRICULTURAL SCIENCES

		Temperature change, °C		
Adaptation benefit	Rainfall change	Less than 2°C	2–4°C	Greater than 4°C
Yield change, %	Rainfall increase Rainfall decrease	$\begin{array}{c} 26.9 \pm 6.0 \\ 9.0 \pm 5.3 \end{array}$	18.7 ± 4.7 11.1 ± 2.6	17.4 ± 4.0 15.0 (na)

Values are means and standard errors [not applicable (na): n = 1]. The mean benefit of adapting was not significantly different for temperate and tropical systems (17.9% vs. 18.6%, P = 0.86). Data sources are listed in figure 5.2 of Easterling et al. (1).

decision making and learning for farmers, policymakers, and researchers: an increase in "climate knowledge" (20).

Changing Management Unit Decisions

Changes in practices at the management unit level will be a key component in adapting agriculture to climate change (1). Consequently, we outline here a range of such adaptations for cropping, livestock, forestry, and fishery systems. However, adaptations at this level can be strongly influenced by policy decisions to establish or strengthen conditions favorable for effective adaptation activities through investment in new technologies and infrastructure (4), which are dealt with below.

Cropping Systems. Many management-level adaptation options are largely extensions or intensifications of existing climate risk management or production enhancement activities in response to a potential change in the climate risk profile (1). For cropping systems, there are many potential ways to alter management to deal with projected climatic and atmospheric changes (including refs. 21-26). These adaptations include:

- Altering inputs such as varieties/species to those with more appropriate thermal time and vernalization requirements and/or with increased resistance to heat shock and drought, altering fertilizer rates to maintain grain or fruit quality consistent with the prevailing climate, altering amounts and timing of irrigation and other water management.
- Wider use of technologies to "harvest" water, conserve soil moisture (e.g., crop residue retention), and use and transport water more effectively where rainfall decreases.
- Managing water to prevent water logging, erosion, and nutrient leaching where rainfall increases.
- Altering the timing or location of cropping activities.
- Diversifying income through altering integration with other farming activities such as livestock raising.
- Improving the effectiveness of pest, disease, and weed management practices through wider use of integrated pest and pathogen management, development, and use of varieties and species resistant to pests and diseases and maintaining or improving quarantine capabilities and monitoring programs.
- · Using climate forecasting to reduce production risk.

If widely adopted, these adaptations singly or in combination have substantial potential to offset negative climate change impacts and to take advantage of positive ones. For example, in a modeling study for Modena, Italy (23), simple and feasible adaptations altered significant negative impacts on sorghum (-48% to -58%)to neutral to marginally positive ones (0 to +12%). In that case, the adaptations were to alter varieties and planting times to avoid drought and heat stress during the hotter and drier summer months predicted under climate change. When summarized across many adaptation studies, there is a tendency for most of the benefits of adapting the existing systems to be gained under moderate warming $(<2^{\circ}C)$ then to level off with increasing temperature changes (Table 1; ref. 27). Additionally, the yield benefits tend to be greater under scenarios of increased than decreased rainfall (Table 1), reflecting that there are many ways of more effectively using more abundant resources, whereas there are fewer and less-effective options for significantly ameliorating risks when conditions become more limiting.

The figures in Table 1 are from a synthesis of climate change impact simulations for the recent Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change review (1), spanning the major cereal crops wheat, rice, and maize, and representing a wide range of agroclimatic zones and management options. This synthesis indicates that benefits of adaptation vary with crop (wheat vs. rice vs. maize) and with temperature and rainfall changes (Table 1; ref. 1). For wheat, the potential benefits of management adaptations are similar in temperate and tropical systems (17.9% vs. 18.6%; Table 1). The benefits for rice and maize are smaller than for wheat, with a 10% yield benefit when compared with yields when no adaptation is used (1). These improvements to yield translate to damage avoidance of up to 1-2°C in temperate regions and up to 1.5-3°C in tropical regions, potentially delaying negative impacts by up to several decades (1), providing valuable time for mitigation efforts to work.

There are several significant caveats that need to be applied in relation to the above positive results on impacts and adaptation. In particular, the simulation models used in the component studies do not yet adequately represent potential impacts of change in pest and disease effects or air pollution, and there remains uncertainty as to the effectiveness of the representations of CO_2 responses (2). Additionally, many of these studies changed neither the variability of the climate nor the frequency of climate extremes, both of which can significantly affect yield (2). There is also often the assumption of full capacity to implement the adaptations, whereas this may not be the case, particularly in regions where subsistence agriculture is predominantly practiced (28). Last, some of the studies were of irrigated production systems where the implications of possible reductions in irrigation water availability are not included (29). Collectively, these factors could reduce the beneficial effects, such as those associated with elevated CO₂, and increase the negative effects, such as those from increased temperatures and rainfall reductions. This would reduce the amount of time that adaptation would delay significant negative impacts, i.e., adaptation would "buy less time" than is indicated above. On the other hand, the adaptations assessed were only a small subset of those feasible, usually focusing on marginal change in practices to maintain the existing system such as changing varieties, planting times, and use of conservation tillage. Inclusion of a broader range of adaptations, including more significant and systemic change in resource allocations, would presumably increase the benefits, particularly if those adaptations included alternative land use and livelihood options. For instance, so-called Ricardian studies (30) that implicitly incorporate such adaptation routinely find impacts of climate change that are lower than those assessed using crop models. The balance between these opposing tendencies is currently unclear; more comprehensive analyses to identify the limits of adaptation are warranted.

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Livestock Systems. Adaptations in field-based livestock include additional care to continuously match stock rates with pasture production, altered rotation of pastures, modification of times of grazing, and timing of reproduction, alteration of forage and animal species/breeds, altered integration within mixed livestock/crop systems including using adapted forage crops, reassessing fertilizer applications, care to ensure adequate water supplies, and use of supplementary feeds and concentrates (31–33). It is important to note, however, that there are often limitations to these adaptations; for example, more heat-tolerant livestock breeds often have lower levels of productivity.

In intensive livestock industries, there may be reduced need for winter housing and for feed concentrates in cold climates, whereas in warmer climates there might be increased need for management and infrastructure to ameliorate heat-stressrelated reductions in productivity, fertility, and increased mortality. Furthermore, the capacity to implement infrastructural adaptations could be low in many tropical regions, whereas in the midlatitudes, the risk of reduction in water availability for agriculture (29) may limit adaptations that use water for cooling.

Forestry. A large number of adaptation strategies have been suggested for planted forests, including changes in management intensity, hardwood/softwood species mix, timber growth, harvesting patterns within and between regions, rotation periods, salvaging dead timber, shifting to species or areas more productive under the new climatic conditions, landscape planning to minimize fire and insect damage, adjusting to altered wood size and quality, and adjusting fire management systems (34–36). Adaptation strategies to control insect damage can include prescribed burning for reducing forest vulnerability to increased insect outbreaks, nonchemical insect control (e.g., baculoviruses), and adjusting harvesting schedules, so that those stands most vulnerable to insect defoliation would be harvested preferentially. Under moderate climate changes, these proactive measures may potentially reduce the negative economic consequences of climate change (37). However, as with other primary industry sectors, there is likely to be a gap between potential adaptations and realized actions. For example, large areas of forests, especially in developing countries, receive minimal direct human management (38), limiting adaptation opportunities. Even in more intensively managed forests where adaptation activities may be feasible (37), the long time lags between planting and harvesting trees will complicate decisions, because adaptation may take place at multiple times during a forestry rotation.

Fisheries. Marine ecosystems are, in some respects, less geographically constrained than terrestrial systems. The rates at which planktonic ecosystems have shifted their distribution have been very rapid over the past three decades, and this can be regarded as natural adaptation to a changing physical environment (39). Most fishing communities depend on stocks that fluctuate because of interannual and decadal climate variability and consequently have developed considerable coping capacity (40). With the exception of aquaculture and some freshwater fisheries, the exploitation of natural fish populations, which are common property resources, precludes the kind of management adaptations to climate change of the kind suggested for the crop, livestock, and forest sectors. Adaptation options thus center on altering catch size and effort and improving the environment where breeding occurs. Three-quarters of world marine fish stocks are currently exploited at levels close to or above their productive capacity (41). Reductions in the level of fishing are therefore required in many cases, independently of climate change stresses, to sustain yields of fish stocks. Such reductions may at the same time improve resilience of fish stocks to climate change (42). The scope for management-level adaptation is increasingly restricted as new regulations governing exploitation of fisheries and marine ecosystems come into force. Scenarios of increased level of displacement and migration are likely to put a strain on communal-level fisheries management and resource access systems and weaken local institutions and services. Despite their adaptive value for the sustainable exploitation of natural resource systems, human migrations negatively affect economic development (43).

Changing the Decision Environment

Adaptation at the management unit level, based on current decision environments, may not fully cope with climate changes. Hence, deliberate measures, planned ahead of time at local, regional, national, and international levels, may be needed to facilitate a broader range of responses. Many options for policy-based adaptation to climate change have been identified for agriculture, forests, and fisheries (18, 44-47). These can involve adaptation activities such as developing infrastructure, capacity building in the broader user community and institutions, and in general modifications to the decision-making environment under which management-level adaptation activities typically occur (4). The process of "mainstreaming" adaptation into policy planning in the face of risk and vulnerability at large is an important component of adaptation planning (14). However, there are formidable environmental, economic, informational, social, attitudinal, and behavioral barriers to the implementation of adaptation (4). The following is a suggested approach to beginning to deal with these barriers, building adaptive capacity and changing the decision environment to promote adaptation actions (18).

- 1. To change their management, enterprise managers need to be convinced that projected climate changes are real and are likely to continue (48, 49). This will be facilitated by policies that maintain climate monitoring and by communicating this information effectively, including targeted support of surveillance of pests, diseases, and other factors directly affected by climate.
- 2. Managers need to be confident that the projected changes will significantly impact on their enterprise (50). Policies that support the research, systems analysis, extension capacity, industry, and regional networks that provide this information could thus be strengthened. This includes modeling techniques that allow scaling up knowledge from gene to cell to organisms and eventually to the management systems and national policy scales.
- 3. Technical and other options necessary to respond to the projected changes need to be available. Where existing technical options are inadequate, investment in new technical or management strategies may be required (e.g., improved crop, forage, livestock, forest, and fisheries germplasm), including biotechnology. In some cases, old approaches can be revived that may be suited to new climate challenges (51).
- 4. Where climate impacts may lead to major land use change, there may be demands to support transitions such as industry relocation and migration of people. This may be achieved through direct financial and material support, creating alternative livelihood options with reduced dependence on agriculture, supporting community partnerships in developing food and forage banks, enhancing capacity to develop social capital and share information, retraining, providing food aid and employment to the more vulnerable, and developing contingency plans (e.g., refs. 20 and 52). Effective planning for and management of such transitions may result in less habitat loss, less risk of carbon loss (e.g., ref. 53), and also lower environmental costs compared with unmanaged reactive transitions (54).
- New infrastructure, policies, and institutions could be developed to support new management and land use arrangements. Options include addressing climate change in devel-

opment programs; enhancing investment in irrigation infrastructure and efficient water use technologies; ensuring appropriate transport and storage infrastructure; revising land tenure arrangements, including attention to property rights; and establishing accessible, efficient markets for products and inputs (seed, fertilizer, labor, etc.) and for financial services, including insurance (55).

6. Importantly, policy must maintain the capacity to make continuing adjustments and improvements in adaptation by "learning by doing" via targeted monitoring of adaptations to climate change and their costs, benefits, and effects (56).

Many adaptation-planning frameworks have been developed in the last decade, with contributions from both social and physical scientists attempting comprehensive coverage of planned adaptations, in the process describing many useful tools and methods (e.g., refs. 57 and 58). There has been significant discussion on the balance between the focus on underpinning biophysical processes or on the socioeconomic aspects critical to policy making (e.g., refs. 59 and 60). The consensus appears to be that products developed under such theoretical frameworks should be closely aligned to the needs of agricultural decision makers, and that different levels of engagement should be considered. Involving stakeholders from project inception is critical if adaptation research is to be reflected in changed decisions and altered strategies and actions (20). We suggest that a participatory approach that cycles systematically between the biophysical and the socioeconomic aspects [supporting information (SI) Fig. 1; ref. 61] could most effectively harness the substantial scientific knowledge of many agricultural systems, while retaining a focus on the values important to stakeholders, achieving relevance, credibility, and legitimacy (62). The inclusion of an adaptive loop in such frameworks is critical to developing flexible, dynamic policy and management that can accommodate climate surprises or changes in the underlying knowledge base.

Discussion

The increasing urgency for developing effective adaptation responses to climate change suggests several research areas: enhancing existing climate risk management, more effective representation of the processes by which key climate drivers impact on agriculture, assessing the effectiveness of adaptation options, understanding likely adoption rates and how to improve these, and developing more resilient agricultural systems.

Agriculture in many regions remains sensitive to climate variability, and the capacity to manage this risk is variable (e.g., ref. 32). Given that climate change will be expressed via changes in variability at several temporal ranges, enhancing the capacity to manage climate risk is a core adaptation strategy (e.g., refs. 10 and 48). Developing this capacity involves increasing the "climate knowledge" of decision makers so they become more cognizant of climate impacts on their systems and of how to use management options to intervene, thereby reducing negative impacts and using opportunities. It also means moving the rhetorical focus from adaptation to climate change to management of climate risk, integrating climate change into a broader research domain.

There has been widespread adoption of statistical climate forecasting in agricultural management decisions, although many issues of forecast reliability, communication, and delivery remain (e.g., ref. 20). If the relationships between local weather and broad-scale climate phenomena (e.g., the Walker Circulation, regional sea surface temperatures, or the Madden–Julian Oscillation) remain largely stable, the continued use of statistical climate forecasts provides a key way for agriculture to proactively "track" climate changes (48). This also maintains coherence between the time scales of the management unit decision and of climate information. Additionally, process-based forecasts using coupled oceanatmosphere models hold out the prospect of improved forecasts at a range of time scales that will automatically incorporate climate changes (e.g., ref. 63). These models have significantly improved their utility in recent years (64). Continued development of this modeling capability and the translation of the results to decision makers are likely to be warranted to enhance adaptation to climate risk (20). There are many region- or situation-specific climate risk management options (e.g., transhumance) that may also have adaptation value.

There is substantial room for improvement in the capacity to assess how combinations of various factors, such as CO_2 , temperature and rainfall, pests and diseases, and air pollution, affect agricultural systems (2). Robust estimates of baseline impacts are necessary before reliable assessments of the costs and benefits of adaptations can be made. Improved knowledge is required to enable prediction of the magnitude and often even the direction of future climate change impacts on agriculture, as well as to better define risk thresholds and potential for surprises (2).

The results of adaptation will be a function of both the likely technical effectiveness of adaptations (e.g., Table 1) and their adoption rate. However, there is a paucity of studies that have assessed these two components in a thorough way, especially for higher levels of climate change and for more vulnerable systems (4). There is a particular need to expand the number of studies that engage with stakeholders in a structured way to assess adoption rates. These could focus on the acceptability of adaptation options in terms of factors important to stakeholders and their perceptions of synergies and barriers. Particular interest may be in question as to (i) the costs and benefits of adaptation when both market and nonmarket values are taken into account, (ii) the feasibility and costs of simultaneously reducing greenhouse gas emissions and adapting to climate change, (iii) the effect of limitations in capital and other resources such as irrigation water, energy, and fertilizer and pesticides (because of environmental concerns), and (iv) adoption rates in highly impacted areas if food prices decline as a result of positive climate change impacts and/or land-use intensification in temperate regions, or if demand for biofuels increases competition for land.

Finally, assessing climate risk and devising response strategies must be done in the face of many uncertainties in the underlying socioeconomic, political, and technological drivers and how these will affect climate, as well as fundamental uncertainties in characterizing the climate system (5, 11). However, uncertainty is often used as an excuse for inaction and can be inappropriately interpreted as a case of "no knowledge." Scientists need to become better at quantifying and communicating uncertainties, whereas decision makers need to accept that fuzzy knowledge is better than no knowledge at all (16). Given these circumstances, response strategies need to focus on developing more resilient agricultural systems (including socioeconomic and cultural/institutional structures), to cope with a broad range of possible changes. Enhanced resilience is likely to come with various types of costs or overheads that are often overlooked but that need evaluation. Additionally, given the above uncertainties, there is a need for directed change in management, science, and policy that in turn is monitored, analyzed, and learned from, to iteratively and effectively adjust to actual climate changes that will be experienced in coming decades. Consequently, adapting agriculture to climate change will be much more systemic than simply a farm-level activity.

Conclusions

There is increasing urgency for a stronger focus on adapting agriculture to future climate change. There are many potential adaptation options available at the management level, often variations of existing climate risk management. However, there are as yet relatively few studies that assess both the likely effectiveness and adoption rates of possible response strategies. A synthesis of studies for cropping systems indicates first that the potential benefits of adaptation in temperate and tropical wheat-growing systems are similar and substantial (averaging 18%), even though the likely adoption rates may differ; and second, that most of the benefits of marginal adaptations within existing systems accrue with moderate climate change, and there are limits to their effectiveness under more severe climate changes. Hence, more systemic changes in resource allocation, including livelihood diversification, need to be considered. We argue that increased adaptation action will require integration of climate change risk with a more inclusive risk management framework, taking into account climate variability, market dynamics, and specific policy domains. Many barriers to adaptation exist; overcoming them will require a comprehensive and dynamic policy approach, covering a range of scales and issues, from individual farmer awareness to the establishment of more efficient markets. A crucial part of this approach is an adaptation

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assessment framework that can equitably engage farmers, agribusiness, and policymakers, leveraging off the substantial collective knowledge of agricultural systems, yet focusing on values of importance to stakeholders. To be effective, science must adapt, too, by continuing to review research needs and enhancing the central core integrative science in the communication and management tools developed with decision makers.

We thank Keith Brander, John Morton, and Andrei Kirilenko for their input in the IPCC process; Bill Easterling and Pramod Aggarwal, who ably coordinated the IPCC chapter on food, fiber, and forestry; Steven Crimp for constructive comments on an earlier draft of the manuscript; and two anonymous reviewers for useful suggestions.

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APEC SYMPOSIUM ON CLIMATE CHANGE "Adaptation Strategies with Mitigation Potential for Food and Water Security"

Resolution

Whereas the members of the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) play a highly significant part of the world's agricultural production;

Whereas the agriculture of the economies of the APEC remain sensitive to climate variability and climate change and thus threaten the food security of its members but also that of the association and of the world;

Whereas APEC Symposium on "Climate Change Adaptation Strategies with Mitigation Potential for Food and Water Security" held in Manila, Philippines from 6-8 February 2012 reveal the following facts:

- 1. Member economies realize that climate change is one of the greatest ecological, economic, and social challenges facing them that threaten the food security of the respective economies.
- 2. Member economies' comprehensive climate change strategy on agriculture is, building upon resiliency in agriculture, to shape adaptation strategies with mitigation potential;
- 3. Member economies recognize that adaptation to climate change in agriculture needs to be addressed with a thorough understanding of its positive interaction with mitigation.
- Member economies responding to climate change in agriculture, to ensure food security, are generally anchored on four important policy instruments: (1) research and development, (2) information, education, and extension, (3) regulations, and (4) financial mechanism.

- 5. Member economies have rich and unique experiences and variable capacities on the application of policy instruments in response to climate change.
- 6. Member economies have great potential in strengthening their collective capacity of APEC if systematically shared with one another.

Therefore it is hereby resolved that we, the participants of the APEC Symposium, in our individual and professional capacities, do hereby make the following recommendations:

- That APEC and multilateral agencies such as the World Bank, the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, the Asian Development Bank and other multilateral organizations to support follow-up activities to this symposium to further address issue of adaptation strategies with mitigation potential towards food and water security;
- Encourage APEC to launch an Adaptation & Mitigation Initiative in Agriculture (AAMIA) to follow-up collective action to ensure a systematic response, collective action and a continuing focus on the issue;
- 3. That the Asia Pacific Adaptation Network (APAN) expands knowledge generated by this symposium on climate change adaptation strategies with mitigation potential and help disseminate this information, create public awareness and promote cooperation.

It is also hereby resolved that we thank the Philippines for hosting the symposium, and the Kingdom of Thailand and Chinese Taipei for their co-sponsorship.

Signed this 8th day of February 2012, Manila, Philippines during the APEC Symposium on "Climate Change Adaptation Strategies with Mitigation Potential for Food and Water Security:"

1. Mr. Takeyaudin Haji Mohmad Brunei Darussalam

2. Mr. Izzanuddin Haji Bujang Brunei Darussalam

4. Mr. Daniel Barrera

- Chile
- 5. Dr. Huu-Sheng Lur Chinese-Taipei

24nn-struy Lux

- 6. Dr. Churng-faung Lee Chinese-Taipei
- 7. Mr. Takehiko Sakata Japan
- Mr.Christopher John Biai Malaysia
- Mario Bin Valeriano Malaysia
- Ms. Fan Xiaoli People's Republic of China
- 11. Mr. Songcai You People's Republic of China

12. Dr. Segfredo R. Serrano Philippines

13. Hon. Rosalina L. Bistoyong Philippines

Hon. Joel S. Rudinas 4

15. Mr. Milton Pascua Philippines

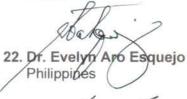
16. Ms. Afficia G. Ilaga Philippines

17. Dr. Eufemio T. Rasco Philippines

18. Dr. Libertado C. Cruz Philippines

19 Dr. Silvino Q. Tejada Philippines

- 20. Ms. Shiela M. Encabo Philippines
- 21. Atty. Nathaniel C. Santos Philippines



23. Mr. Carlos L. Magnaye Philippines

- 24. Mr. Mikhal C. De Dios Philippines
- 25. Dr. Ricardo Orge Philippines

- 26. Mr. Dennis dela Torre
 - Philippines
- 27. Mr. Jose Ira Archimedes Borromeo Philippines
- 28. Ms. Marita Carlos Philippines
- 29. Dr. Jinho Kim Republic of Korea
- 30. Dr. Kyongseok Oh
- . 31. Dr. Kalaya Boonyanuwat Thailand

Kalaya Boony annuat.

32. Dr. Jirapa Inthisang Thailand

Thailand	Fm aurs.
33. Mr. Nguyen V Viet Nam	u Hoan y lo ou
34. Mr. Pham Ho Viet Nam	ng Hien

35. Mr. Perfecto Corpuz The United States of America

Philip Shull 36. Mr.

- The United States of America
- 37. Mr. William Verzani The United States of America
- 38. Dr. Reiner Wassmann International Rice Research Institute

39. Dr. Esteban Godilano

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Philippines

41. Ms. Lurraine Villacorta Philippines

42. Dr. Eliseo R. Ponce Philippines

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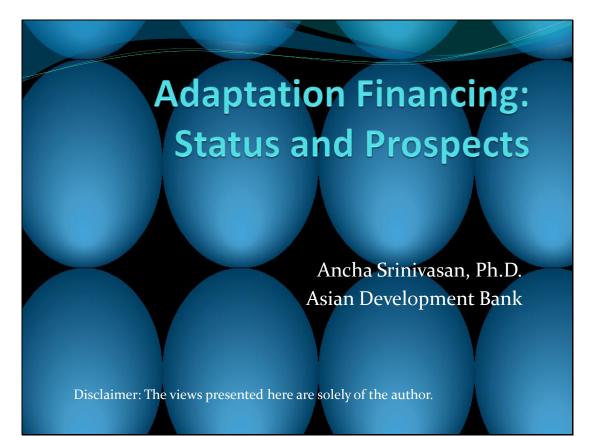
- 43. Mr. Raul Montemayor Philippines
- 44. Dr. Puja Sawhney India
- 45. Mr. Mozaharul Alam Bangladesh

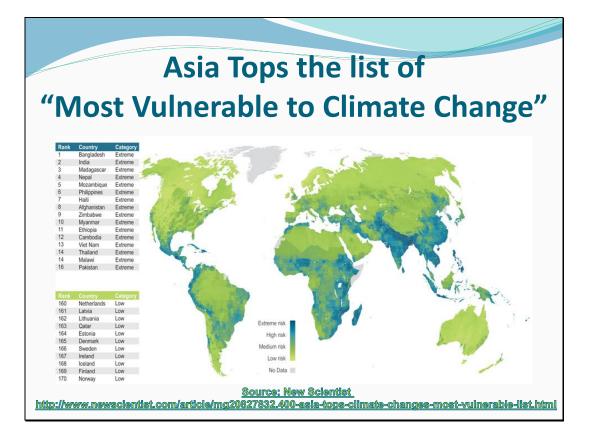
46. Dr. Le Thi Thu Huong Vietnam

47. Mr. Victorino E. Aquitania Philippines

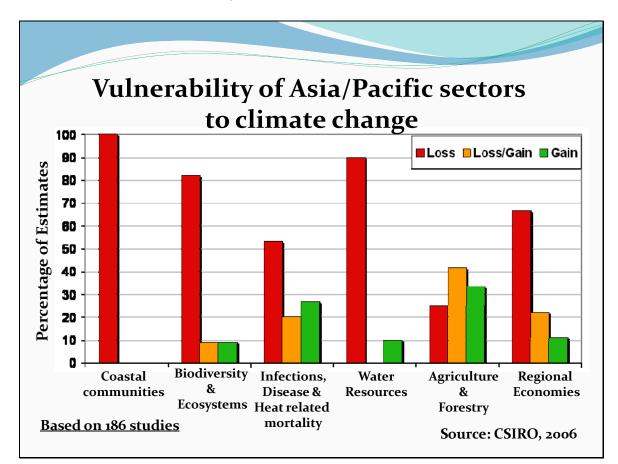
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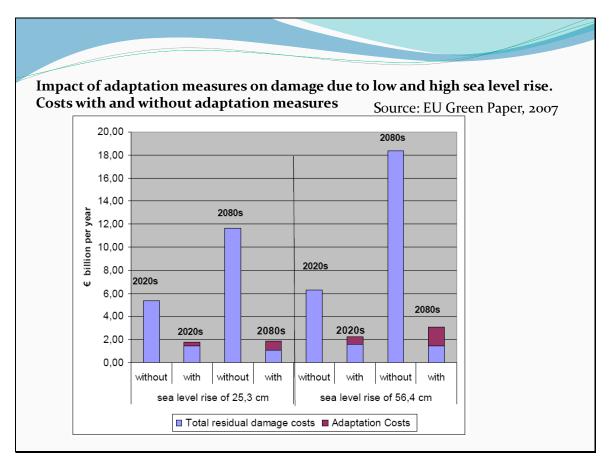
48. Ms. Amalia Cabusao Philippines Paper from **"APEC SYMPOSIUM ON CLIMATE CHANGE**: Adaptation Strategies with Mitigation Potential for Food and Water Security", APEC#212-AT-04.2, © 2012 APEC Secretariat



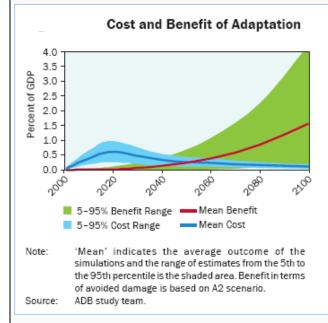


Paper from **"APEC SYMPOSIUM ON CLIMATE CHANGE**: Adaptation Strategies with Mitigation Potential for Food and Water Security", APEC#212-AT-04.2, © 2012 APEC Secretariat





Proactive Adaptation



Scaling up adaptation

<u>Water:</u> improving water management and flood control

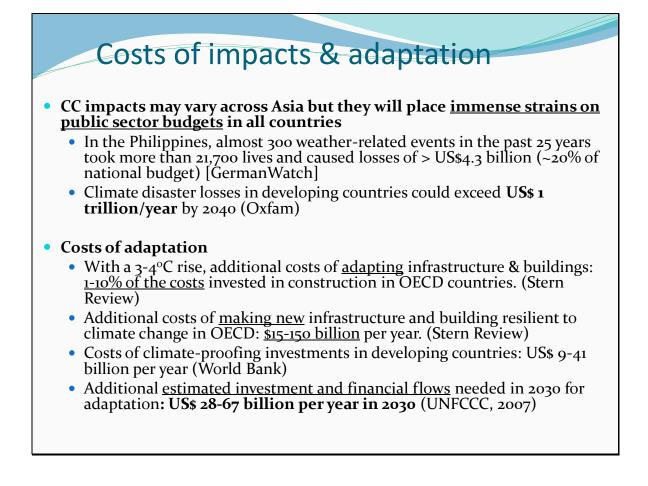
<u>Agriculture:</u> more efficient irrigation/new crop variety

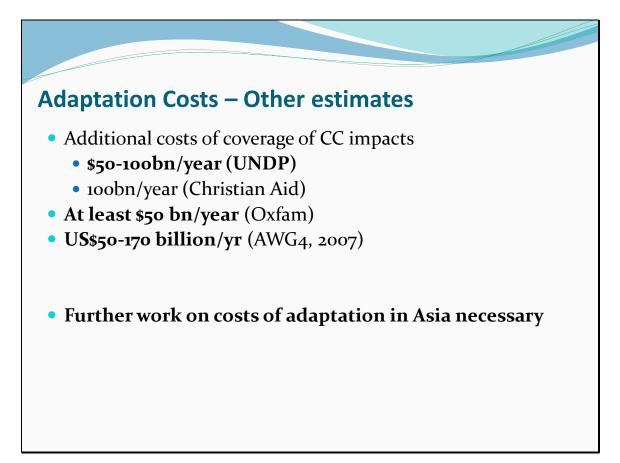
<u>Forestry:</u> safeguarding forests/planting new forests

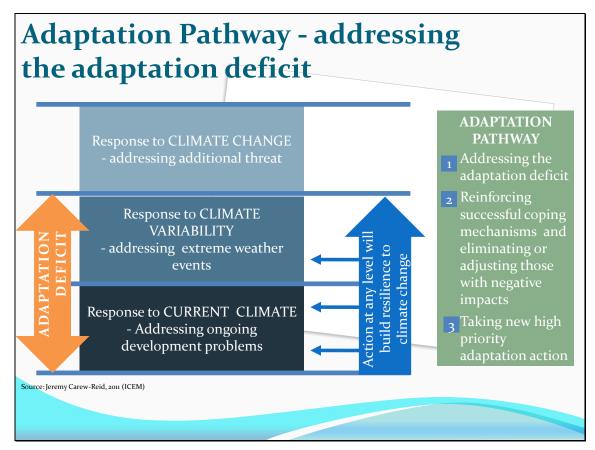
<u>Coastal resources</u>: mangrove conservation/ protective sea walls

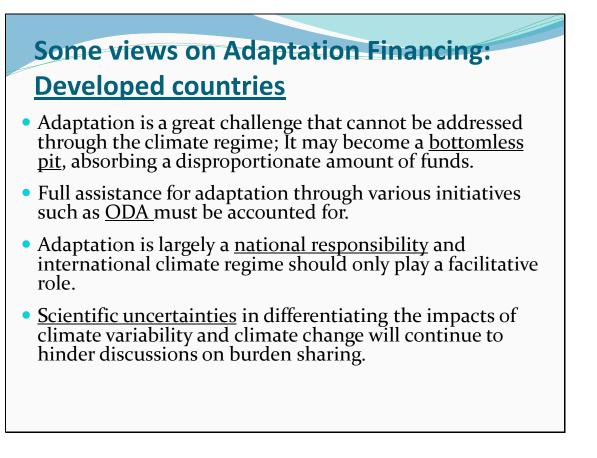
<u>Health</u>: better surveillance/ disease prevention

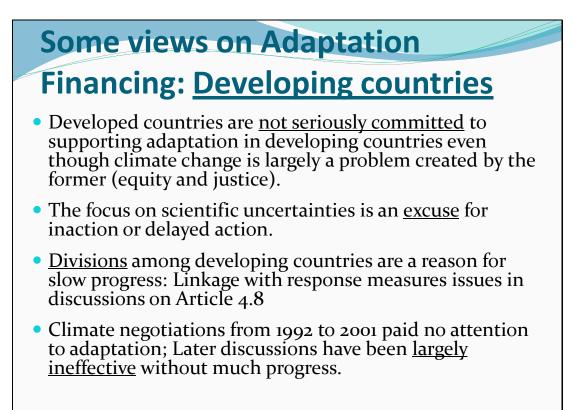
Infrastructure: climate proofing

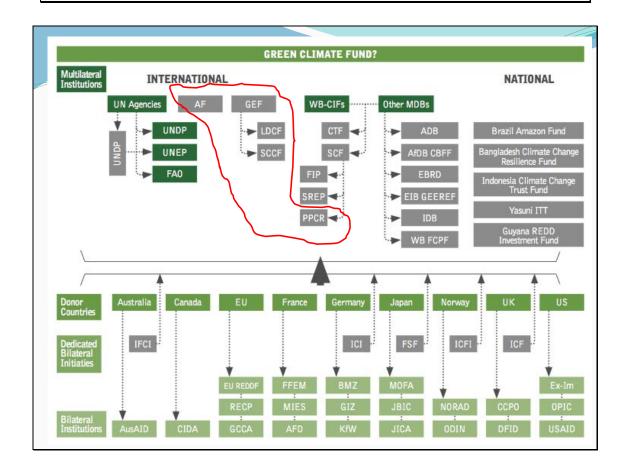


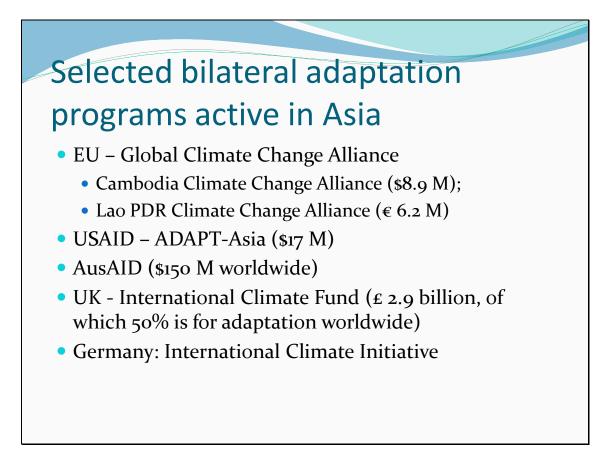


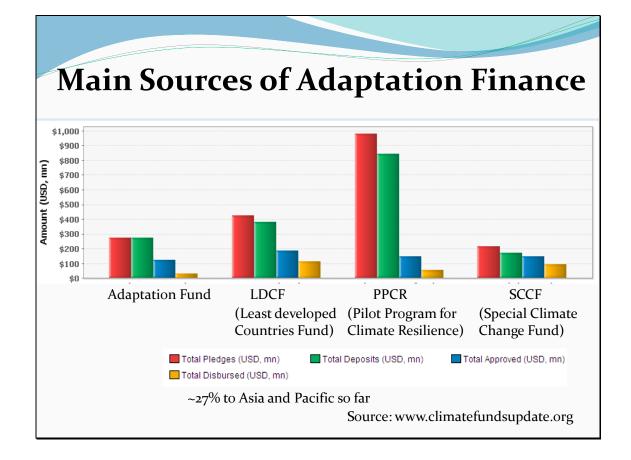


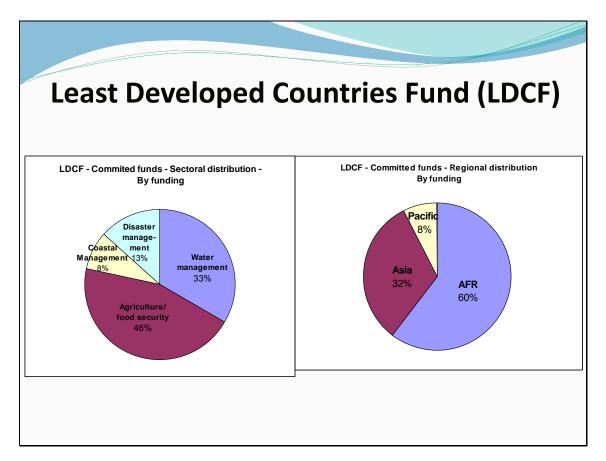


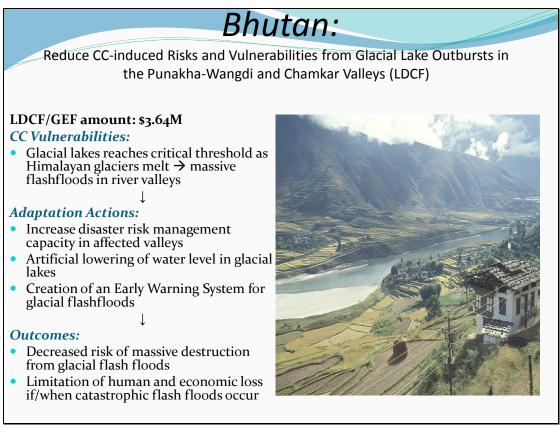


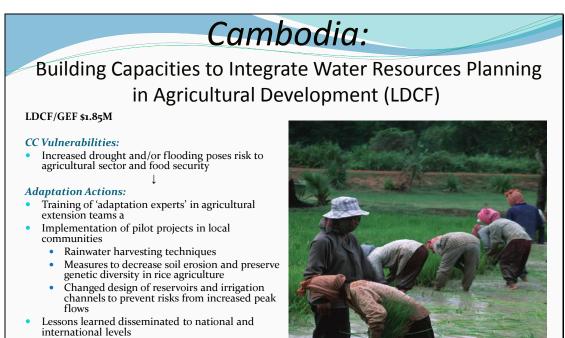








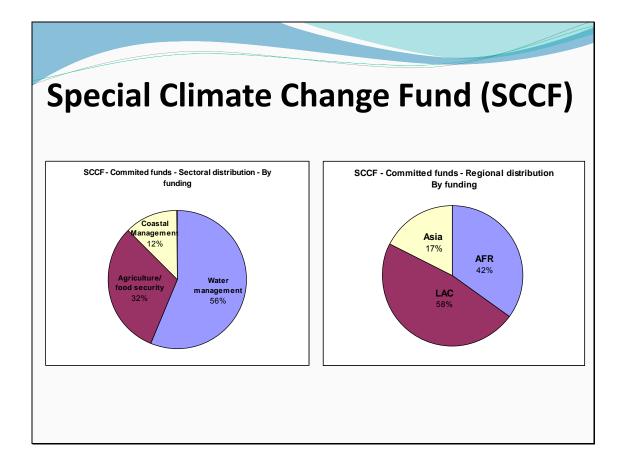




Outcomes:

- Increased food security and sustainable agricultural development
- Reduced risks of climate induced disasters





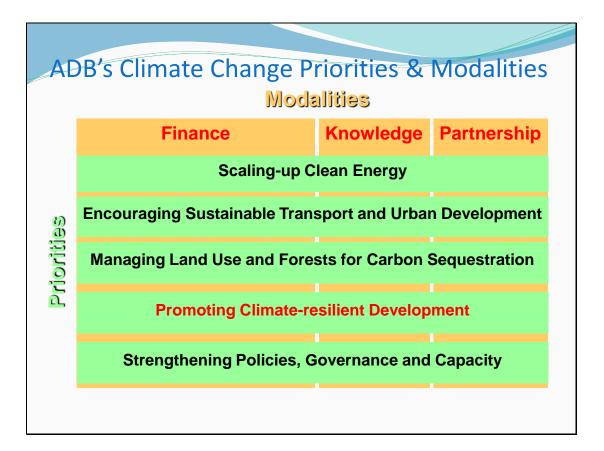


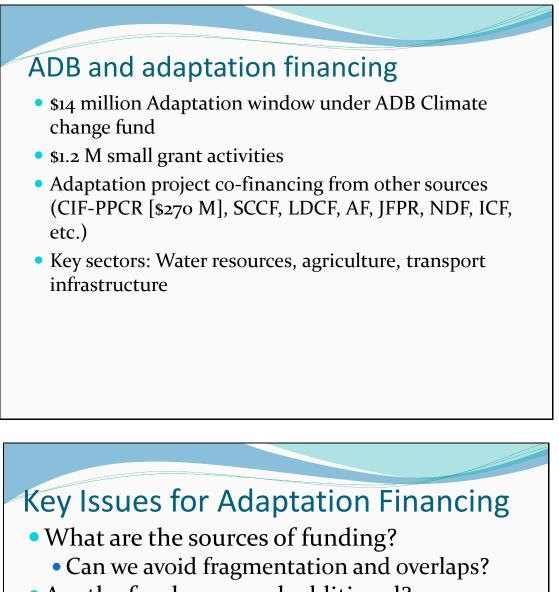
• Reduced risks of climate induced disasters on rural infrastructure



	Provinces/	PP	CR Requ	est	Expected co-
Project	Sites	Grant (50 M)	Credit (55 M)	Total (105 M)	financing (\$ Million)
1. Climate risk management and rehabilitation of irrigation schemes	Kampong Thom, Banteay Meanchey, and Siem Reap	7.00	12.00	19.00	63.00
2. Flood and drought management	Pursat and Kratie	6.00	8.00	14.00	35.00 (79.50 for GMS)
3. Promoting climate-resilient agriculture	Koh Kong and Mondulkiri	8.00	0.00	8.00	20.40 (76.77 for GMS)
4. Climate proofing of agricultural infrastructure and business-focused adaptation	Banteay Meanchey, Kampong Cham, Kampong Thom, and Siem Reap	5.00	10.00	15.00	60.00

Project	Provinces/	PPCR Request			Expected co-
	Sites	Grant (50 M)	Credit (55 M)	Total (105 M)	financing (\$ Million)
5. Climate proofing of roads	Prey Veng, Svay Rieng, Kampong Chhnang and Kampong Speu	7.00	10.00	17.00	61.00
6. Climate proofing of infrastructure in the Southern Economic Corridor	Poipet, Battambang, Neak Leung and Bavet	5.00	10.00	15.00	20.0 (290.20 for GMS
7. Flood-resilient infrastructure development	Sisophon, Siem Reap, Kampong Thom, Battambang Pursat, Kampong Cham	5.00	5.00	10.00	40.00
8. Cluster Technical Assistance	National	7.00	0.00	7.00	TBI

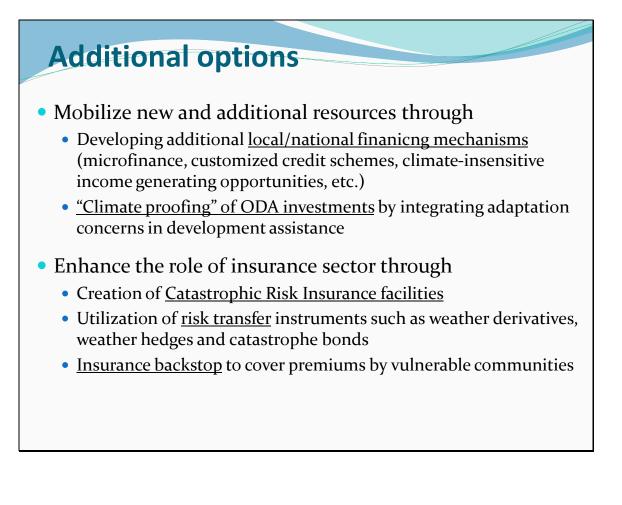


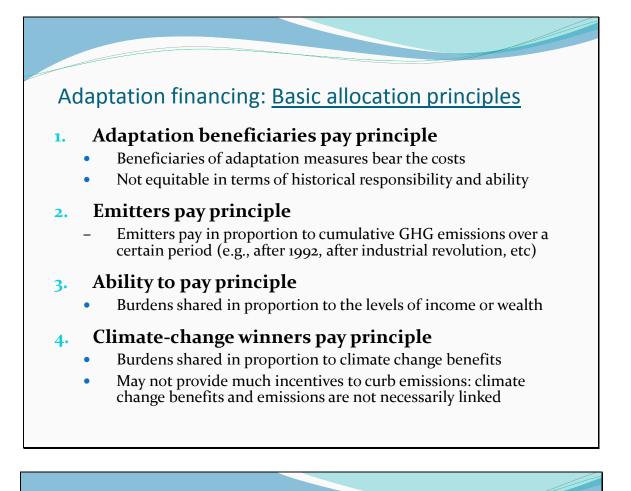


- Are the funds new and additional?
- Type of access (direct access?)
- Governance
 - Management
 - allocation procedures
- Grants versus loans
- Adequacy, Predictability, Sustainability
- Absorptive Capacity

Options for Enhancing Resource Flows for Adaptation

- Increased attention to adaptation by <u>regional & international</u> <u>financial institutions</u>
- Development of <u>market mechanisms</u> to facilitate adaptation (adaptation credits, adaptation vouchers, payment for ecosystem services, corporate social responsibility, etc.)
- <u>Enhanced synergies</u> among climate, disaster risk and development assistance communities
- North-South and South-South public and private investments including strengthening of linkages between <u>adaptation and</u> <u>voluntary carbon markets</u>
- Creating a <u>region-wide adaptation facilities</u>





<u>Classification of existing adaptation funds</u> and new proposals according to allocation principles

I. Existing funds

Name of fund	Source of funding /Distinct features	Principles
1. Special Climate Change Fund (SCCF)	Voluntary contributions from 13 developed countries	Ability to pay principle (voluntary contributions)
2. Least Developed Countries Fund (LDCF)	Voluntary contributions from 17 developed countries	Ability to pay principle (voluntary contributions)
3. Strategic Priority on Adaptation (SPA)	Agreement among 32 donor countries, plus voluntary supplementary contributions	Based on GEF rules (GEF Trust Fund)
4. Adaptation Fund	2% share of proceeds from CDM	Climate-change winners pay principle

Proposal	Source of funding/Distinct Features
5. International Air Travel Adaptation Levy (IATAL) (Muller and Hepburn 2006)	Levy on aviation emissions (polluter pays) Levy can be proportional to ticket prices (partially based on <u>ability to pay</u> principle)
6. TERI's alternative perspective on adaptation financing (TERI 2005)	Special compensatory financing based on fairness and polluter pays principle
7. ICCTF proposal on funding (ICCTF 2005)	Contributions must be linked to current and historical responsibility for emissions
8. Adaptation credits and vouchers (Schellnhuber and Cornell 2003)	Creating a market for "adaptation credits" or "vouchers" which can be traded among parties
9. Carbon tax (Zhu, Ullrich, and Höhne 2004)	Tax on energy sources which emit CO ₂ or on burning of fossil fuels in proportion to C content

III. Proposals based on emitters pay and ability to pay principles

Proposal	Source of funding/Distinct Features
10. Specialised funds	A share of proceeds from a levy on fossil fuel sales in Annex I countries
(Tuvalu 2005)	
11. UNFCCC Impact Response Instrument	Establish UNFCCC Disaster Relief Fund to be financed by contributions from
•	industrialized countries
(Muller 2002)	
12. Risk management schemes (Parry et al 2005)	Mandatory contributions from industrialized countries in proportion to GHG emissions and GNP
13. Greenhouse Development Rights (EcoEquity and Christian Aid 2006)	Share burdens determined by responsibility and capacity indicator (RCI)
14. Adaptation Financing Index by Oxfam (Oxfam 2007)	Burdens shared by selected countries based on historical emissions and the value of human development index

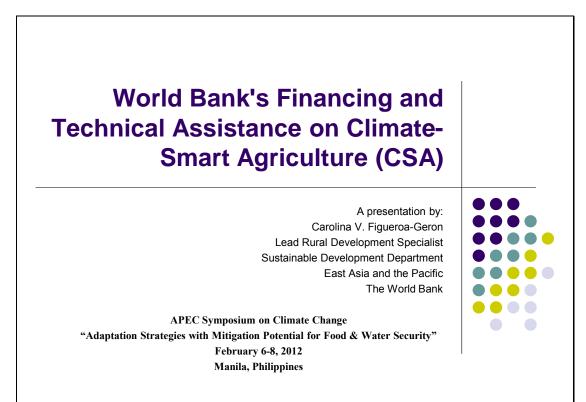
IV. Proposals bas	ed on other principle	S

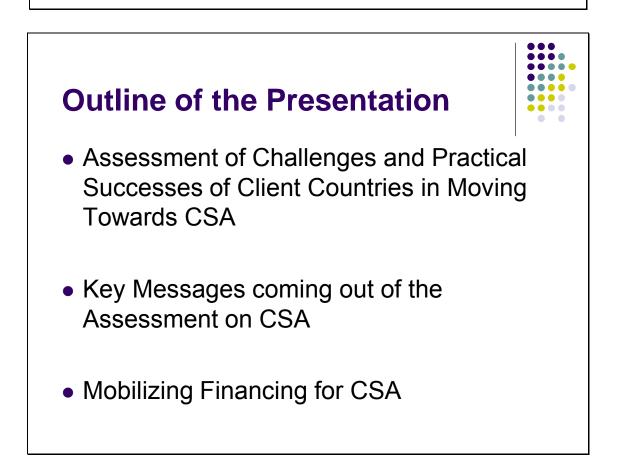
Proposal	Source of funding /Distinct features	Principles
15. Two-track approach for adaptation funding (Bouwer and Aerts 2006)	Fixed percentage of GDP for Annex I countries	Ability to pay principle only
16. Enhancing the base of adaptation fund (unpublished)	Broadening the tax base for adaptation levy from CDM to JI and emission trading	Climate-change winners pay principle
17. Brazilian proposal on burden-sharing approach (Filho et al 1997)	Up to 10% of the Clean Development Fund could be used to finance adaptation	Climate-change winners pay principle
18. Risk transfer instruments (UNEP-FI 2005)	Risk of climate damages is spread through private insurance	Modalities of implementation not specified

	of selected proposals
Proposal	Fund raising mechanisms
International Air Travel Adaptation Levy (IATAL)	800m international air travelers per year
	• US\$10 on each ticket could raise up to US\$ billion annually
Carbon tax (Zhu, Ullrich, and Höhne 2004)	US\$1/ton CO2 in Annex I countries
	• Up to US\$14 billion annually (Authors' calculation)
Two-track approach for adaptation funding (Bouwer and Aerts 2006)	• Fixed percentage of GDP for Annex I countries
	• 0.03% of GDP produces a total of approximately US\$10.9 billion (Authors' calculation)
Specialised funds	• A share of proceeds from a levy on fossil fuel
(Tuvalu 2005)	sales in Annex I countries – effectively same as carbon tax
Risk management	Mandatory contributions from industrialized
schemes (Parry et al	countries in proportion to their GHG emissions and
2005)	GNP: Carbon tax + payment based on GDP

Adaptation Financing - Conclusions

- Adaptation is critical and costly in the short term. None of the proposals are likely to raise sufficient amounts, especially if contributions are voluntary.
- Both <u>emitters pay and ability to pay principles</u> have a potential to raise sufficient amount of funds; Private sector can be involved more effectively if <u>climate-</u> <u>change winners pay</u> and emitters pay principles are employed.
- Future focus should be on adaptation metrics, private sector involvement, and promoting synergies between adaptation and disaster risk financing.







Assessment of Challenges and Practical Successes of Client Countries on CSA

Globally,

a number of countries have made impressive progress in integrating climate-smart agriculture into their broader development and growth programs.....

Policy & Program initiatives include:

- Soil and moisture conservation, esp in drought-prone areas
- Agri water mgt and watershed mgt
- Addressing sea surges, salinity and coastal area flooding
- Better management of risks associated with livestock and fisheries (eg., Mongolia)
- Addressing deforestation
- Including agriculture and NRM as core of their low carbon growth strategies
- Including CSA as a core element in broader green growth agenda (eg., Ethiopia, China)

Assessment of Challenges and Practical Successes of Client Countries on CSA



- Programs which have been successful have been implemented to scale, over a substantial period of time, adapting and taking on new lessons as they progress (eg., Philippines' Mindanao Rural Dev. Program, China, Bangladesh, Mexico, Burkina, Ethiopia)
 - Strong local farmer ownership and participation
 - Interventions often delivered within decentralized government structures
 - Integrated landscape approaches key to success, along with support measures for managing weather risks, diversifying HH incomes, improving market linkages

Assessment of Challenges and Practical Successes of Client Countries on CSA



- Food-insecure countries face the greatest challenges of all (eg. African countries)
 - coping mechanisms through social protection and local/community-level initiatives in soil and water conservation to promote resiliency
 - support to early warning systems,
 - enhancing on-farm productivity and value added

Assessment of Challenges and Practical Successes of Client Countries on CSA

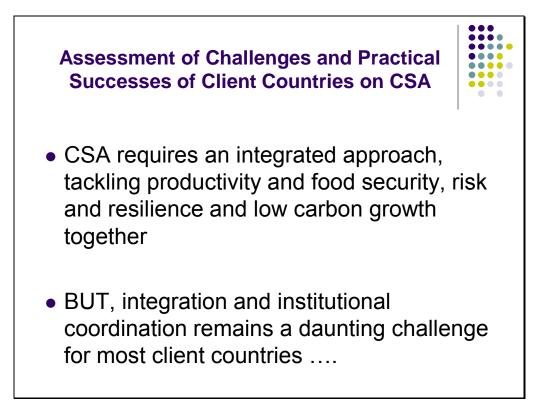


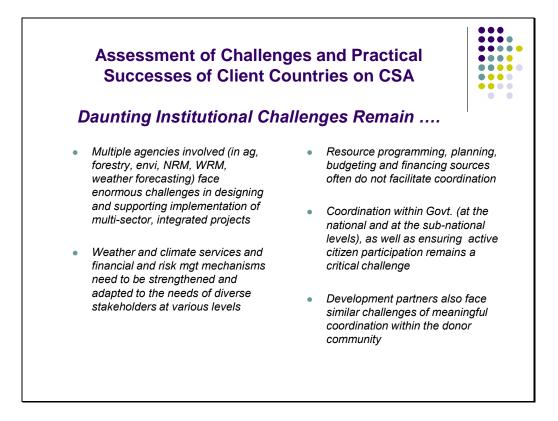
Barriers to large-scale adoption of CSA still remain, especially due to the need to overcome aversion to short- term costs associated with such a transition ...

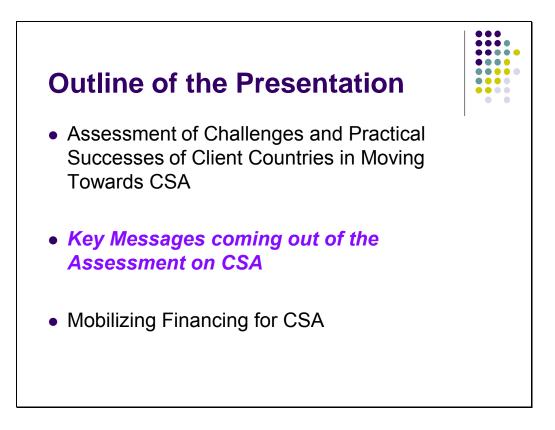
Assessment of Challenges and Practical Successes of Client Countries on CSA

- The private sector plays a key role in CSA, especially where the enabling environment (at both the policy and institutional fronts) has been favorable
 - Example: recent regulatory reform in Brazil which has improved incentive framework for CSA and environmentally responsible investment in agriculture & forest mgt.
 - Example: rapid transition to aquaculture in Vietnam in the lowlying Mekong delta areas which are exposed to salt water intrusion













- Sustainable intensification and productivity enhancement are key elements of CSA & would need to be combined with broader agricultural landscape restoration (eg., China, Mexico and Vietnam)
- Successful programs need long-term commitment and strong local ownership, through bottom-up approaches adapted to local circumstances, & scaled up to have impact mixed with elements of social protection and risk reduction measures (eg., Kenya, Philippines, Burkina, China, ECA)

Key Messages Coming out of the Assessment on CSA

- The quality of public policies and support measures is as important as the quantity – those which focus on research, soil & water conservation, weather & climate services, land tenure, technology and value chain development ARE more effective for long term sustainability and benefits to farmers, RATHER THAN commodity or input support (except where input use is very low) (eg., Brazil, Kenya, Vietnam)
- Aligning strategies and policies with enabling measures, incentives and institutional support mechanisms is key to the success of climate-smart agriculture. These need to be adapted to country circumstances and provide incentives for responsible private sector investments (eg., China, Brazil, Uzbekistan, Niger)

Key Messages Coming out of the Assessment on CSA



- Water management is critical and measures to enhance agri water productivity is most effective if combined with measures to support broader economic diversification (eg., Morocco, Yemen, China, Bangladesh, Vietnam)
- In countries most highly exposed to climate variability and change, disaster mgt and a climate-resilient, diverse agricultural sector are closely linked (Bangladesh, Albania, Vietnam, Ghana)

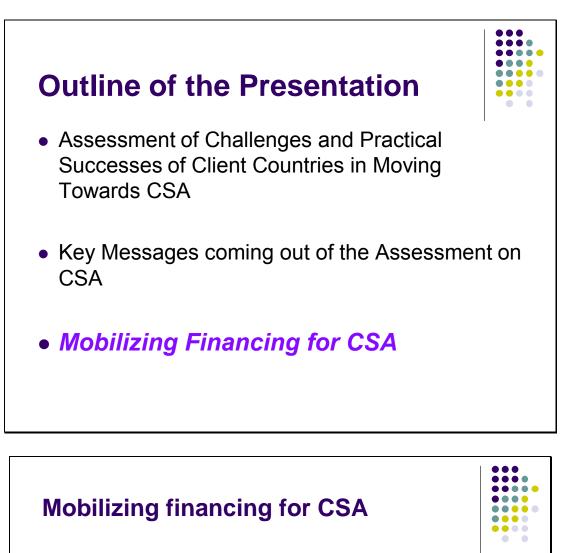
Key Messages Coming out of the Assessment on CSA

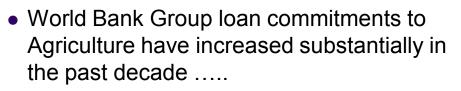
- Integration of strategies and financing mechanisms for the productivity, adaptation and mitigation agendas remains a challenge for achieving CSA, within countries, within development partners and financing organizations
 - Different institutional structures and different funding channels for ag, envi, water, forestry, weather & climate services
 - Food security, adaptation and mitigation benefits are often addressed separately, rather than jointly, in order to achieve CSA
 - New funds for food security & CSA will be most effective if blended with ongoing support programs in order to maximize synergies
 - Carbon finance projects worked better when combined with other development financing



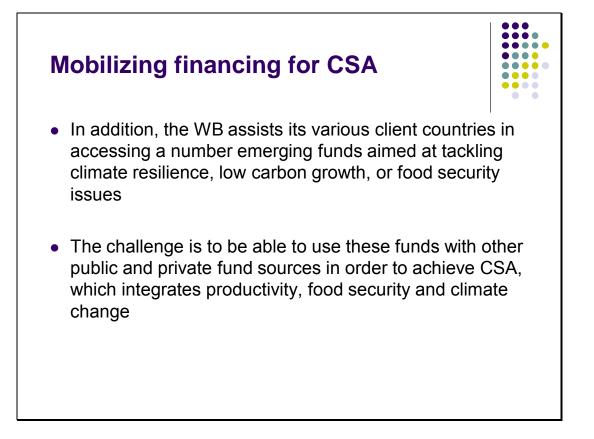


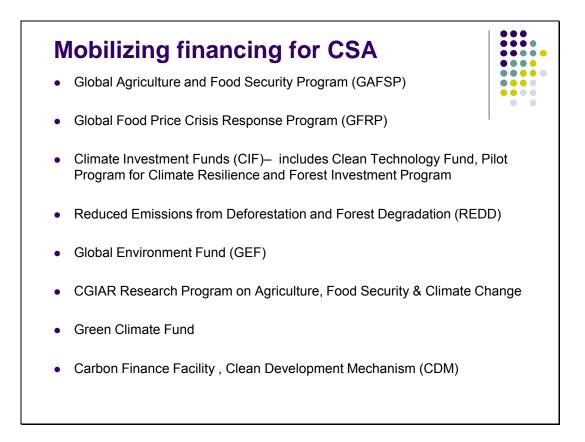
- CSA must play a key role in GHG emissions reduction, strategies to facilitate this are being developed in some countries
 - Holistic approach of Uruguay in combining measures to support resilience and reduced emissions is contributing to reduced GHG
 - Agriculture and forestry form part of the low carbon growth strategies (of China, Brazil and Mexico), combining adaptation & mitigation benefits
 - Low income countries have focused on adaptation, rather than mitigation, but are increasingly adopting integrated approaches – improving agricultural land use practices and reducing deforestation forms part of the core agenda in order to promote agricultural resilience and for long-term soil fertility and productivity (Ethiopia, Ghana, Burkina, Niger, Kenya)



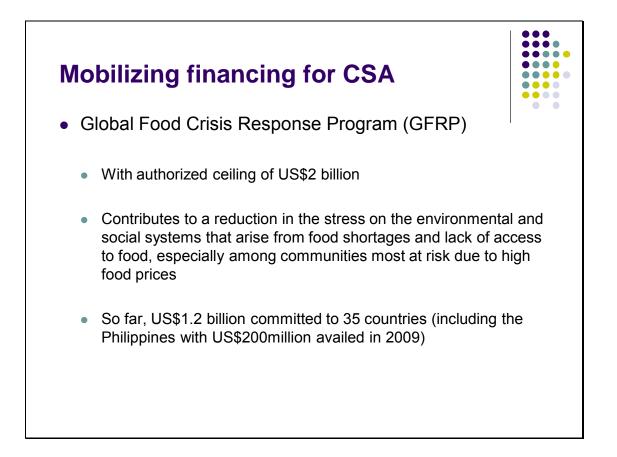


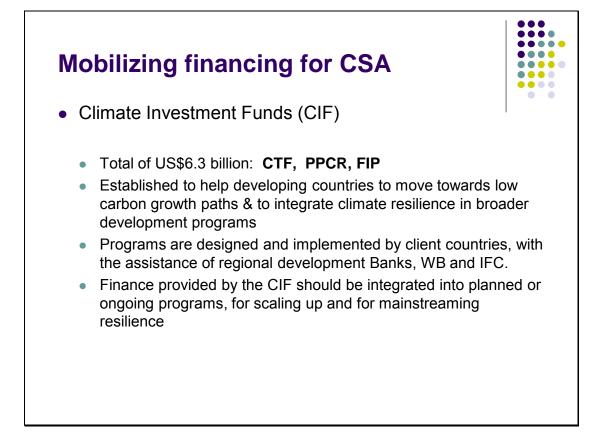
- Average of US\$2.5 billion per year in 2000-2005
- Average of US\$4.1 billion per year 2006-2008
- US\$7.3 billion in 2009 (inc. due to the 2008 food price crisis)
- US\$4.1 billion in 2010
- US\$3.6 billion in 2011

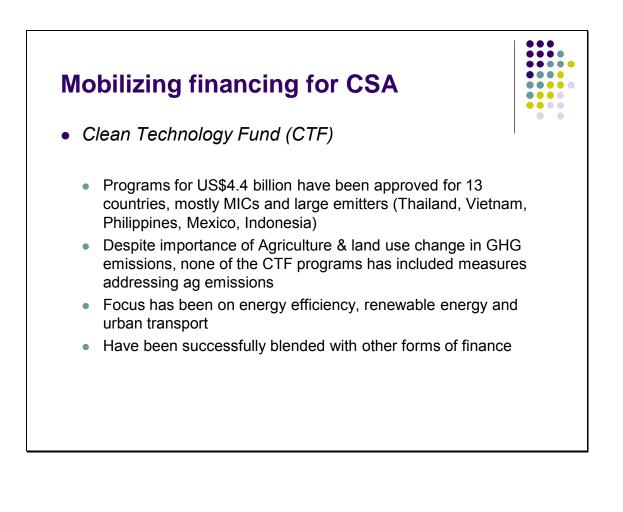


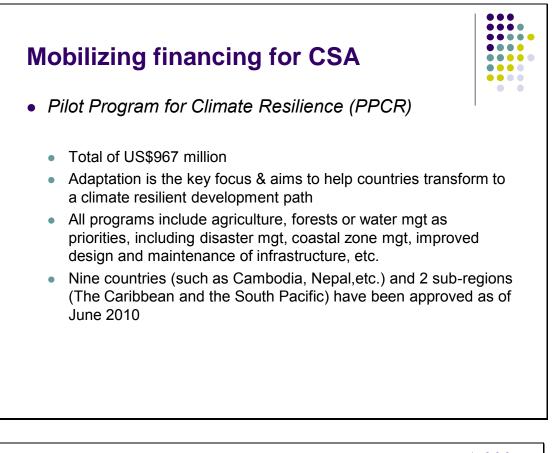






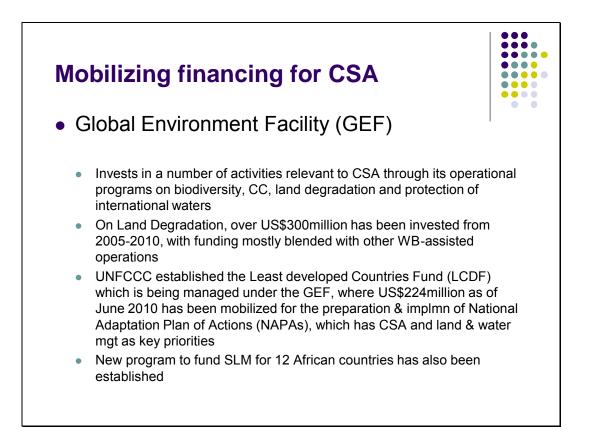


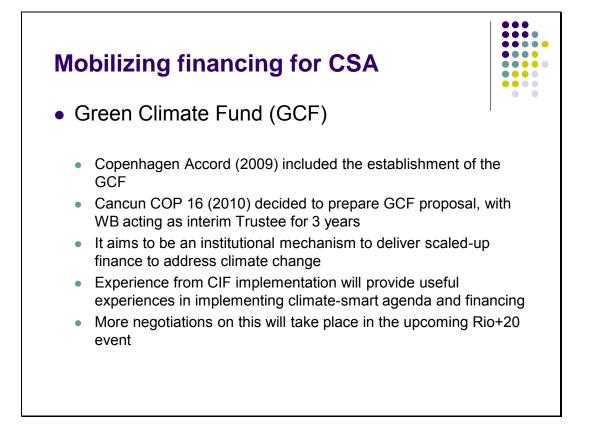




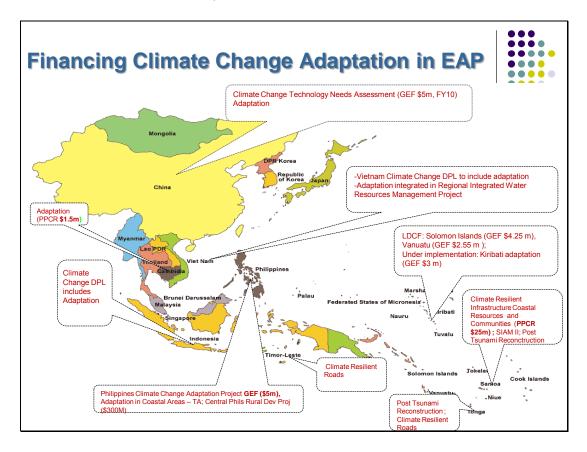


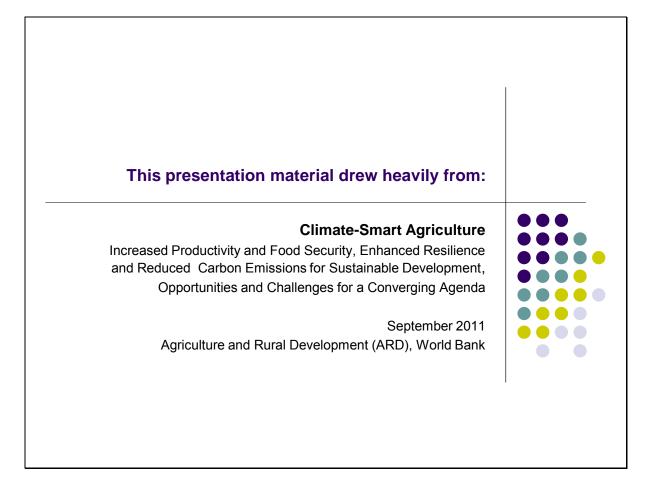




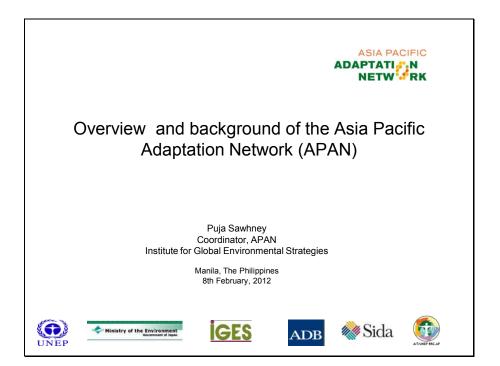


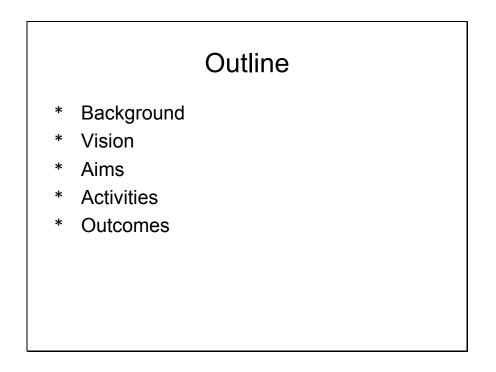


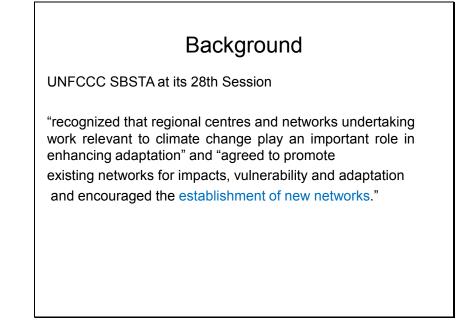


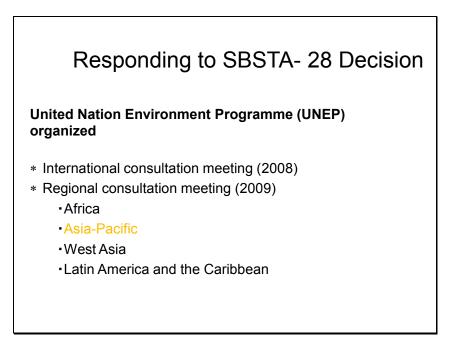


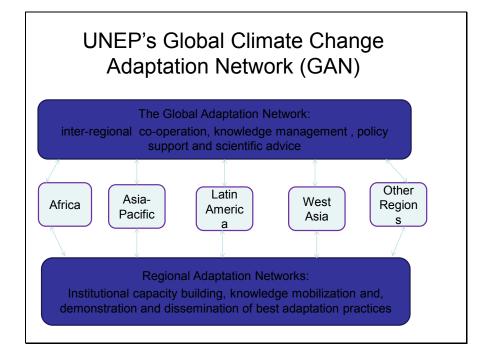


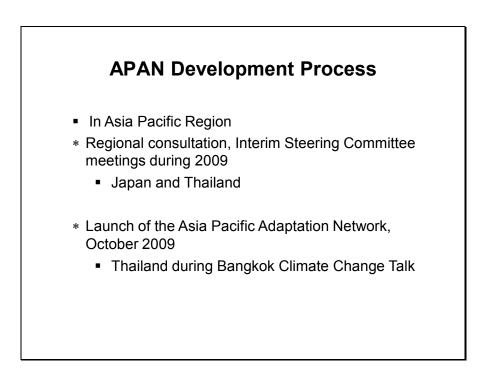


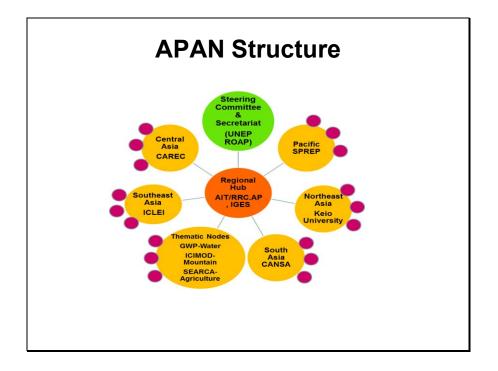












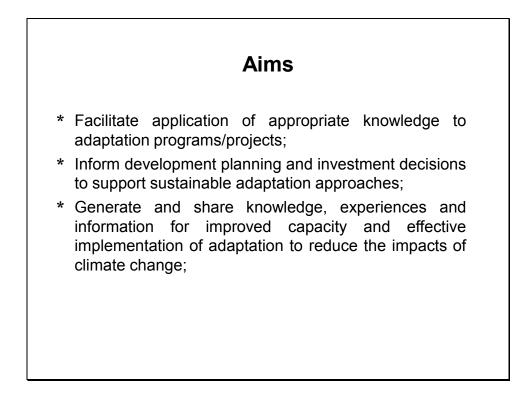
Process of selection of Sub regional/ Thematic Nodes

- * Open call for expression of interest
- * More than 30 applications received
- * First shortlisting was conducted by UNEP and the APAN regional hub
- * Further shortlisting and final selection by the APAN Steering Committee
- * 5 sub regional nodes and 3 thematic nodes selected

Sub Regions		
Southeast Asia	Local Governments for Sustainability (ICLEI)	
South Asia	Climate Action Network for South Asia (CANSA)	
Central Asia	Central Asia Regional Economic Cooperation (CAREC)	
Pacific	Secretariat of the Pacific Regional Environmen Programme (SPREP)	
Northeast Asia	Keio university	

Thematic Nodes	Thematic Area
Global Water Partnership (GWP)	Water
International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development (ICIMOD)	Mountains
Southeast Asia Regional Centre for Graduate Study and Research in Agriculture (SEARCA)	Agriculture



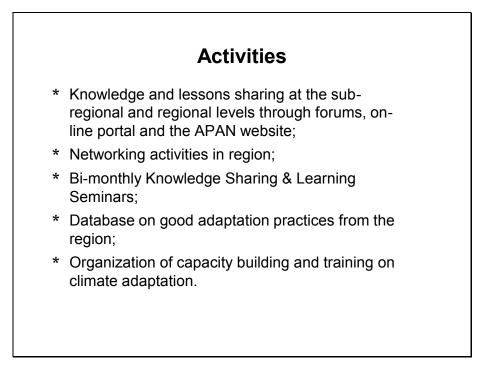


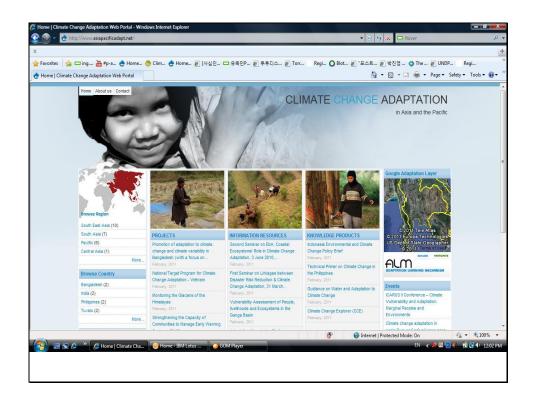
Aims

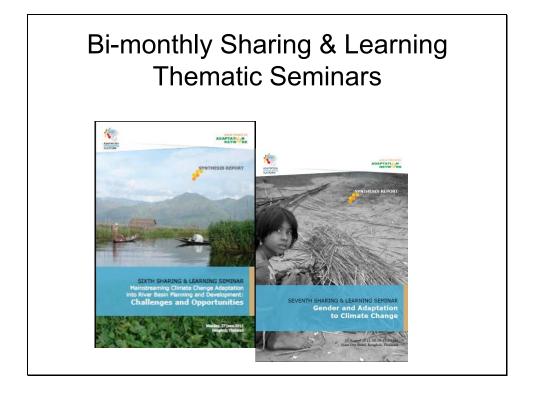
- * Assist developing countries to access adaptation finance mechanisms; and
- * Strengthen the capacity of national and local planners, communities, institutions and development partners in adaptation.

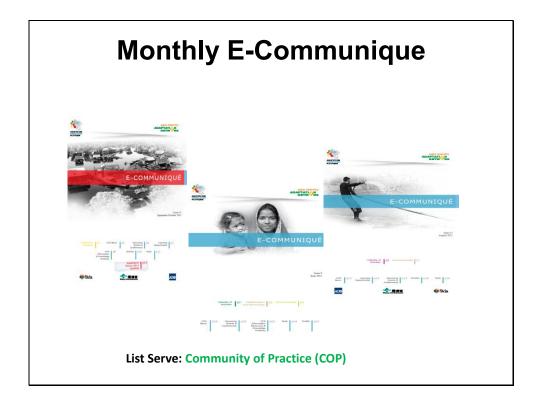
Activities

- * Identification of gaps and needs in current adaptation knowledge including technology;
- * Development of tools and methods for good adaptation practices;
- * Provision of synthesis reports / or policy briefs;
- * Scientific capacity development for vulnerability assessments, adaptation planning, science-based decision making strategies;





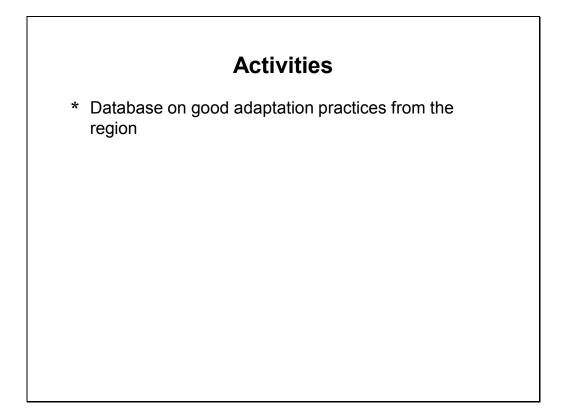


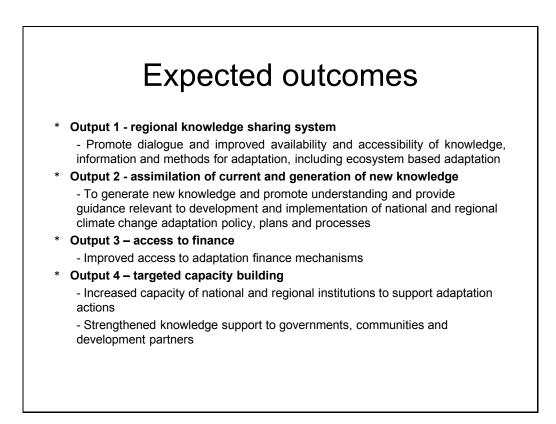


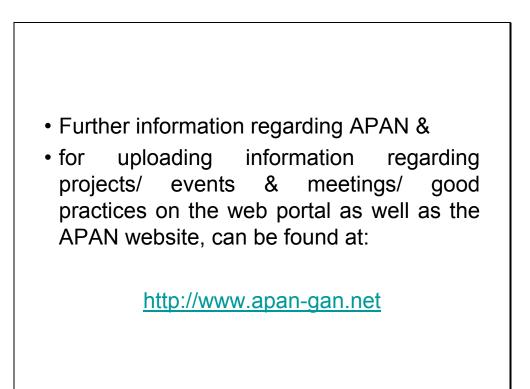


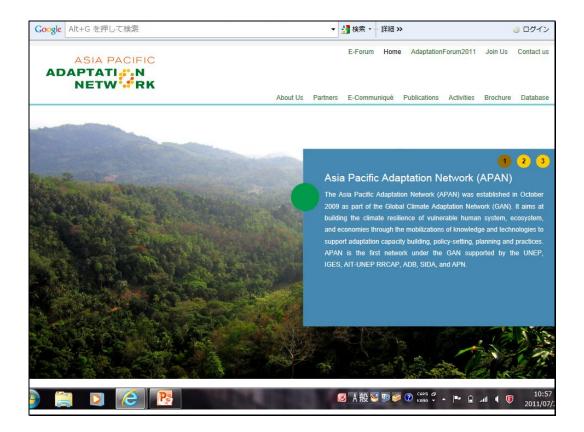






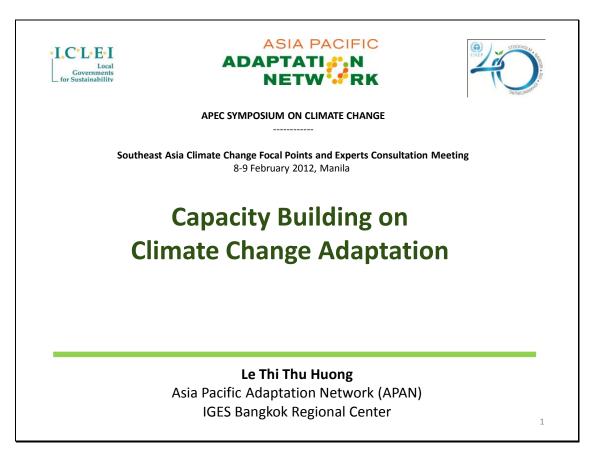


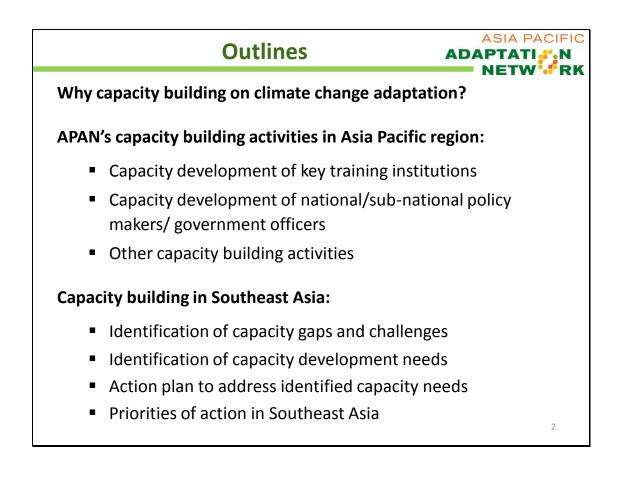




Thank you for your attention!

sawhney@iges.or.jp





Why capacity building?

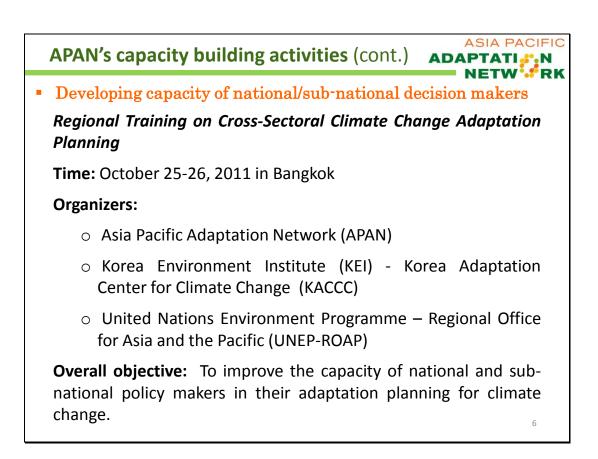
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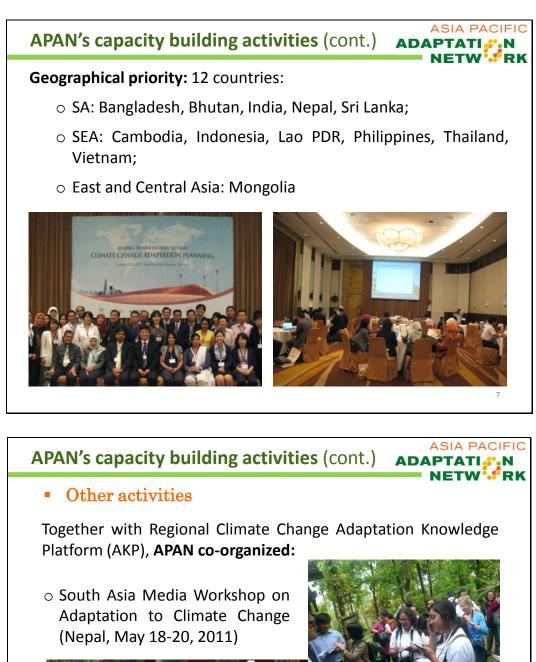
- Though there is no regional level research carried out on the availability of human resource capacity for adaptation, the country level research indicates that there is a need to build the human resource capacity for adaptation.
- The Nairobi Work Program (NWP), several National Communications, and National Adaptation Plan of Action (NAPAs) have indicated the need for additional human resource capacity to help adapt to climate change impacts.
- We need adaptive capacity to deal with climate hazards

Adaptive capacity varies across Asia and the Pacific, based on social system, economic capacity and the level of environmental disruptions.

ASIA PACIFIC APAN's capacity building activities ADAPTATI N Developing capacity of key training institutions **APN funded project:** "Scientific capacity development of trainers and policy-makers for climate change adaptation planning in the Asia and Pacific" Countries: Bangladesh, Cambodia, Lao PDR, Mongolia, Nepal Sector: Agriculture and water related to agriculture **Objectives:** \circ To undertake appraisal of training needs in terms of knowledge and skill areas for effective adaptation (including the needs of personnel and gaps in training programs) \circ To design training modules for imparting knowledge and skills for effective adaptation (in policy making process) 4







APAN's capacity building activities (cont.)

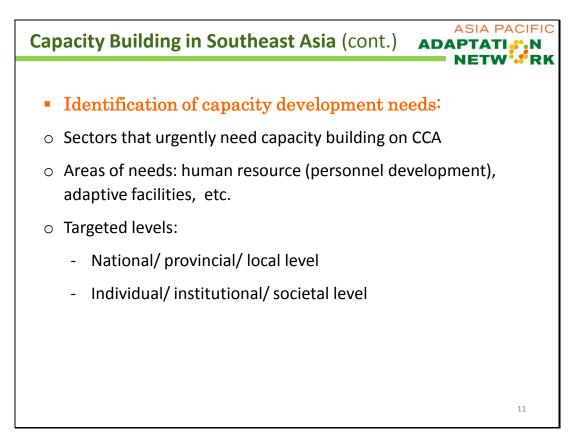
- Climate Change Adaptation Knowledge Management Workshop: Issues on Climate Change Adaptation (Mongolia, May 26-27, 2011)
- Media and Community Scenario Exercise Workshop: Quy Nhon in 2050 - Visioning Development Options in the context of Climate Change (Vietnam, July 13-15, 2011)

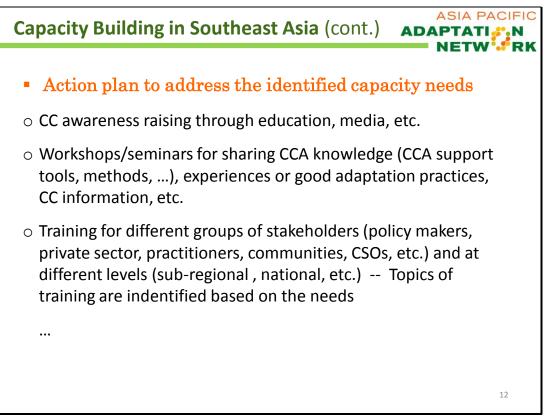




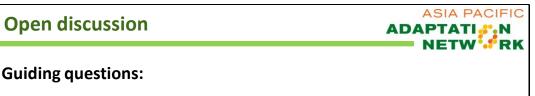
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Capacity Building in Southeast Asia Identification of capacity gaps and challenges at subregional and nation levels Institutional support: policy framework for capacity building in general and specifically for climate change adaptation (CCA) Existing human resources: number of CC experts, their knowledge and skill on CCA, etc. Current capacity building programmes: education, training (induction/on-job), etc. Facilities: CC knowledge center, training facilities, laboratories/ equipments, etc. for CCA researches





Capacity Building in Southeast Asia (cont.)		
 Priorities of action in Southeast Asia 		
Build capacity (knowledge and skill) of policy makers and government officials on CCA on regular basis through:		
 Training of trainers in key national-level training institutions which are active in training policy makers and government officials 		
 Improvement of sector-based training programmes: insert or bring CCA knowledge into the existing training programmes (induction and on-job training) 		
\rightarrow Core activities include:		
- Undertake training needs assessment in Southeast Asia countries		
- Develop training modules which include CCA knowledge and skill		
13		



1) Which sector(s)/ area(s) should be prioritized?

2) What subject matters should be chosen for training?

- 3) Which groups of people should be targeted for capacity building, e.g. training?
- 4) How to build the adaptive capacity of the targeted groups? (e.g. methods, frequency, timeframe, ...)

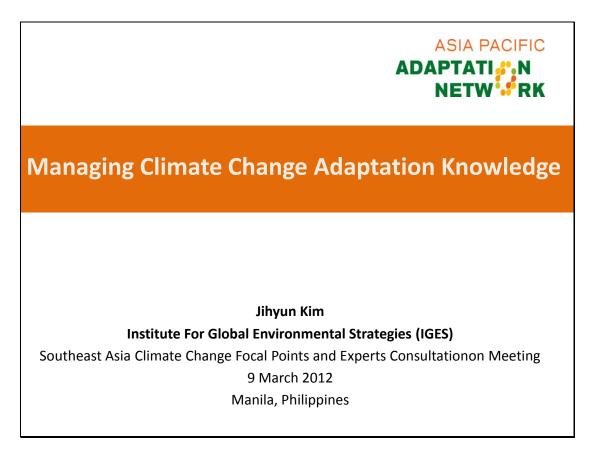
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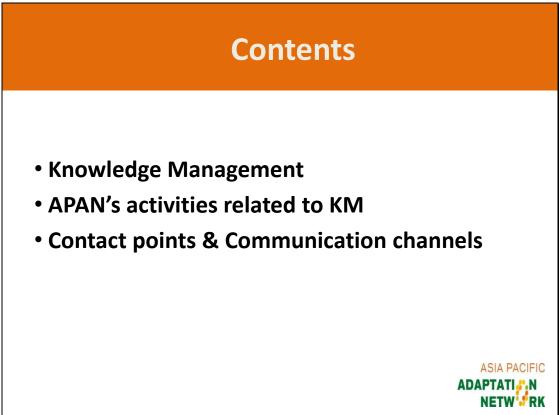
5) Which activities should be proposed at sub-regional level?

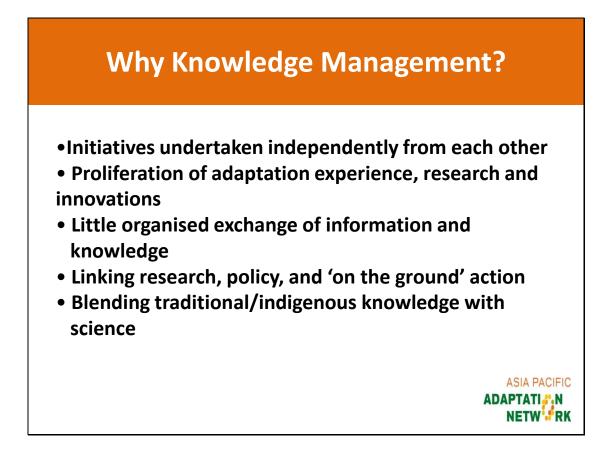
And at country level?

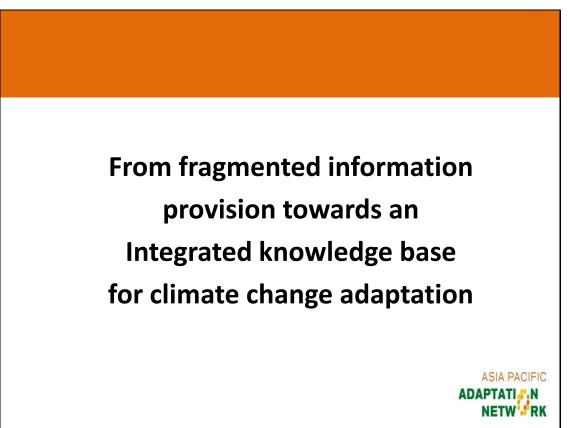
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E-Communiqué				
	 Calendar of activities Announcements CCA News CCA Events Learning Opportunities Knowledge Products Articles Tools 			

Bi-Monthly Thematic Seminars



- **Gender** and Adaptation to Climate Change (AIT and CARE International)
- Mainstreaming Climate Change Adaptation into **River Basin** Planning and Development (MRC)
- Reaching the Masses: Building Critical **Public Awareness** of Climate Change Adaptation (SENSA and Media Alliance)
- A Role for **Business** in Climate Change Adaptation (CSR Asia)



Workshops

•Climate Change Adaptation Knowledge Management Workshop: Issues on Climate Change Adaptation, 26-27 May 2011, Mongolia

South Asia Media Workshop on
 Adaptation to Climate Change, 18-20
 May 2011, Nepal

• The Knowledge Management Workshop on Harnessing Adaptation Knowledge in the Asia Pacific Region, 28 February 2011, Thailand



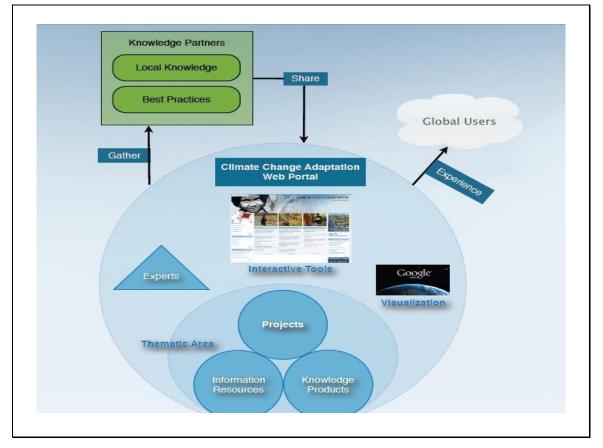
ASIA PACIFIC ADAPTATI NETW RK





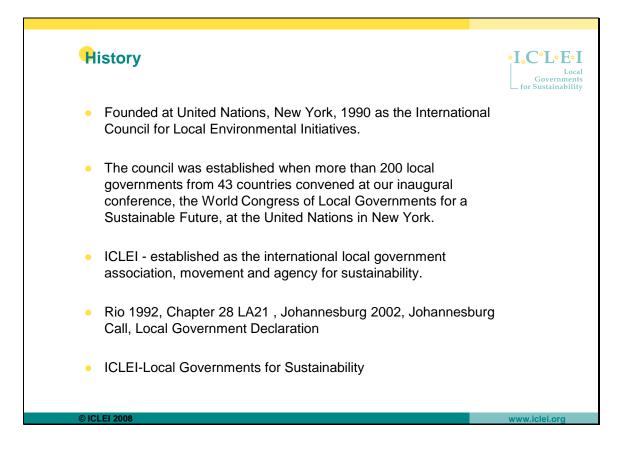
Knowledge Products 1 ICIMOD Network ADAPTATIC N ACAPTACIO ENGLACIO ADAPTATION NETWORK Workshop Proceedings Report 1 ADAPTATI N ADAPTATIC 18-20 May 2011 NG ADAPTATION KNOWL IN THE ASIA-PACIFIC RE REGIONAL CLIMATE CHANG SIA PACIFIC ADAPTATION ASIA PACIFIC **NETW**¹RK



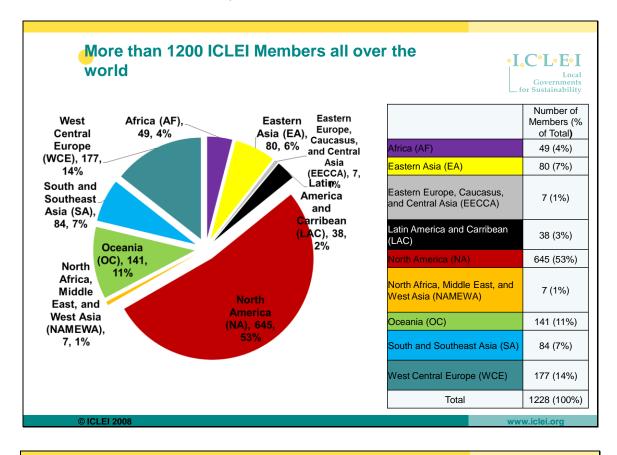












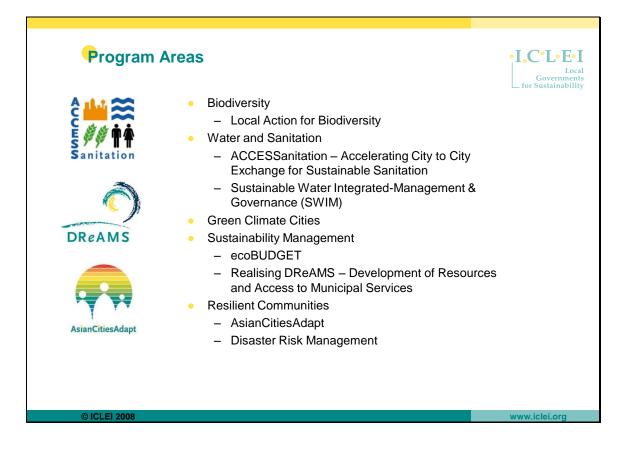
What does ICLEI do?

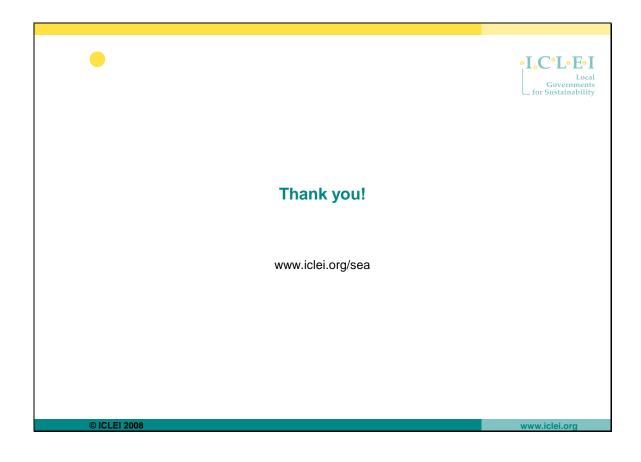
- Develops and runs a broad range of campaigns and programs that address local sustainability issues while protecting global common goods (such as air quality, climate, water), and link local action to internationally agreed goals and targets.
- Help local governments generate political awareness of key issues; establish plans of action towards defined, concrete, measurable targets; work towards meeting these targets through the implementation of projects; and evaluate local and cumulative progress toward sustainable development.
- Provides information, delivers training, organizes conferences, facilitates networking and city-to-city exchanges, carries out research and pilot projects, and offers technical services and consultancy.

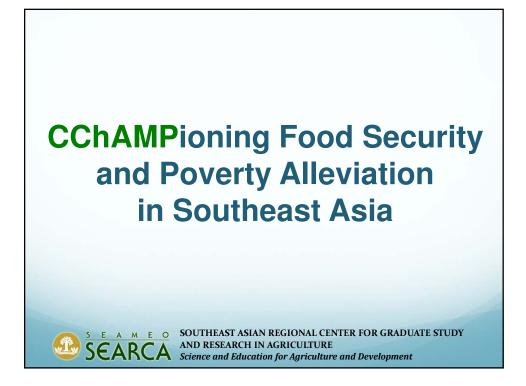
•I.C°L•E•I Local Governments for Sustainability

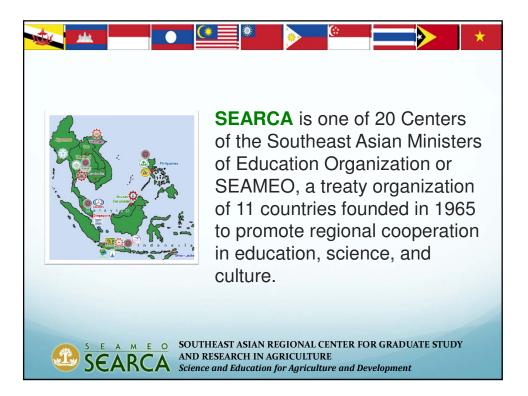


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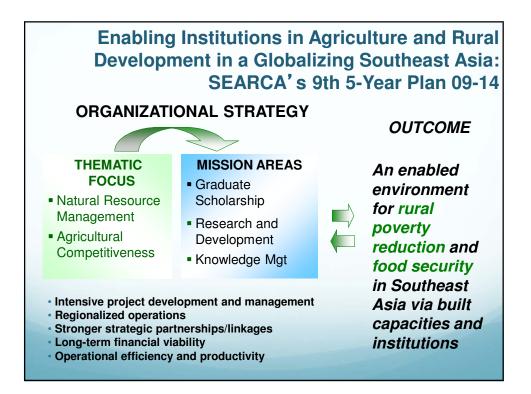


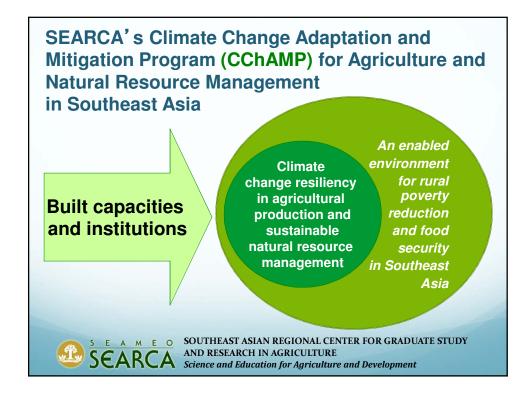


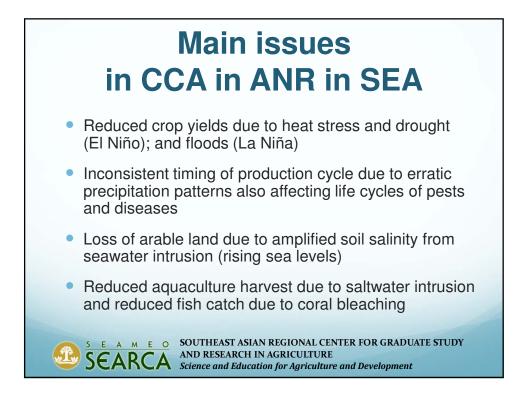




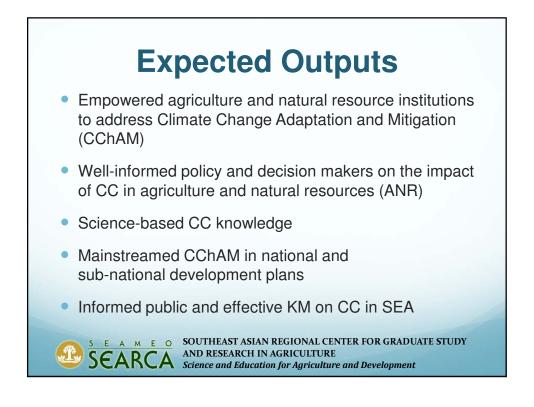








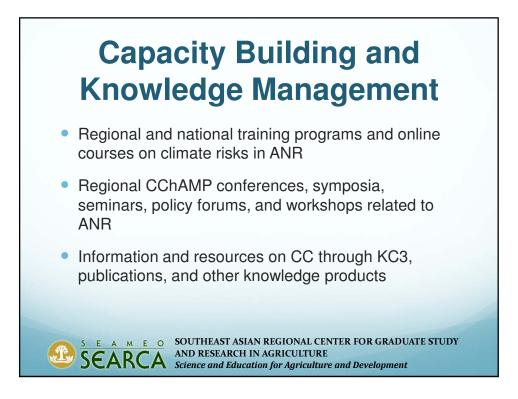




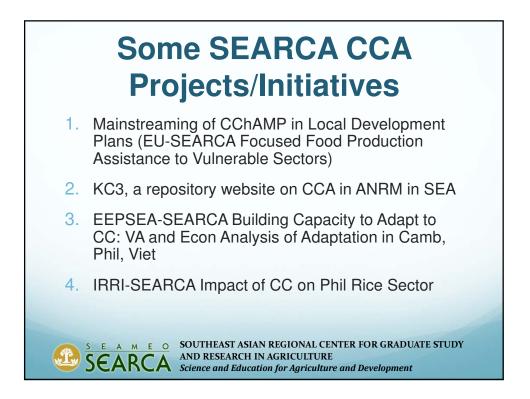




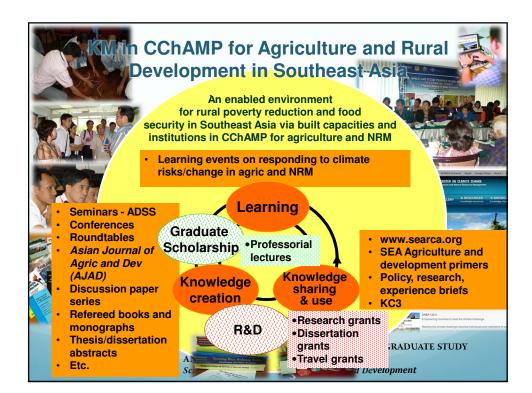


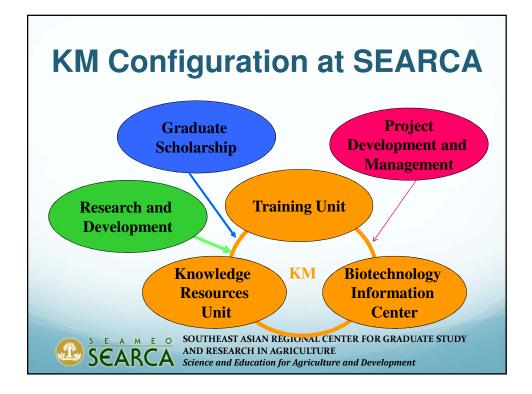
















KM in A/NRM for Responding to CC in SEA

1. Promoting a learning culture

- International Training on Responding to Changing Climate: Knowledge-based Strategies in Managing Risks in Agriculture and Environment
- Regional platform for K/L-sharing and solutions exchange
- Development of online offerings with mentoring on specific areas on CC adaptation: rice production, crop protection, soil conservation, aquaculture, local governance and communitybased DRM, climate monitoring, weather insurance, etc.

SEARCA SOUTHEAST ASIAN REGIONAL CENTER AND RESEARCH IN AGRICULTURE Science and Education for Agriculture and





KM in A/NRM for **Responding to CC in SEA**

3. Promoting knowledge

USE through capture, repackaging, re-use via the KC3

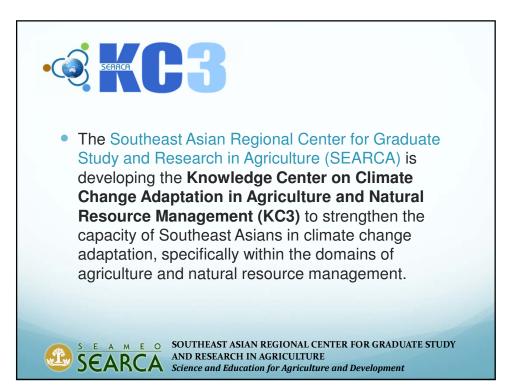
K-harvesting to develop knowledge/ learning materials for easier regional access to knowledge solutions via KC3 website





M E O SOUTHEAST ASIAN REGIONAL CENTER FOR GRADUATE STUDY Science and Education for Agriculture and Development

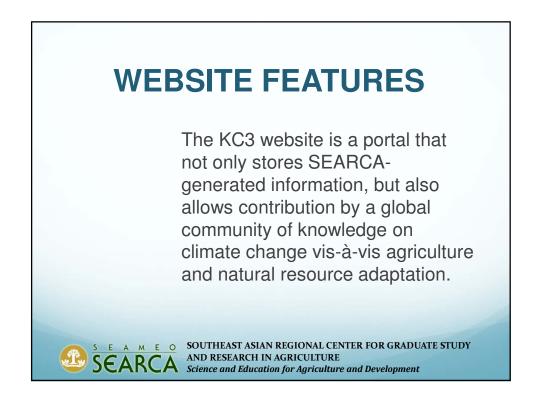












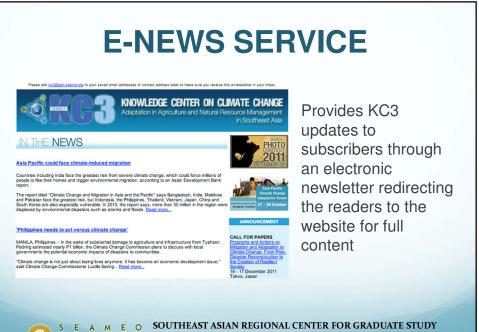
IN THE NEWS

Climate change adaptation and mitigation news and feature stories gathered from web feeds across Southeast Asia and from SEARCA's existing scholarly outputs, knowledge products, and learning events like seminars, workshops, conferences, training courses, roundtable discussions, and study tours implemented by SEARCA

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SEARC

SEARCA SOUTHEAST ASIAN REGIONAL CENTER FOR GRADUATE STUDY AND RESEARCH IN AGRICULTURE Science and Education for Agriculture and Development



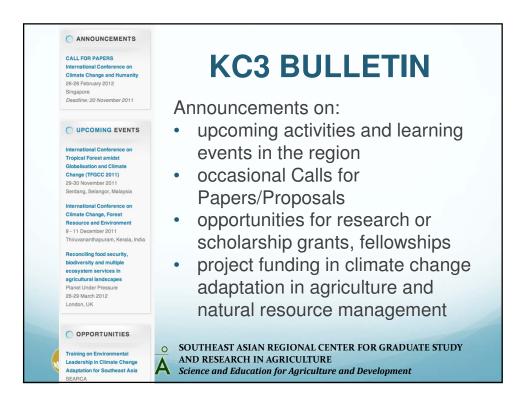
SOUTHEAST ASIAN REGIONAL CENTER FOR GRADUATE STUDY AND RESEARCH IN AGRICULTURE Science and Education for Agriculture and Development A repository of published reference materials and other knowledge products on climate change drawn from relevant online sources, local and international conferences, policy forums, and existing SEARCA publications related to climate change adaptation

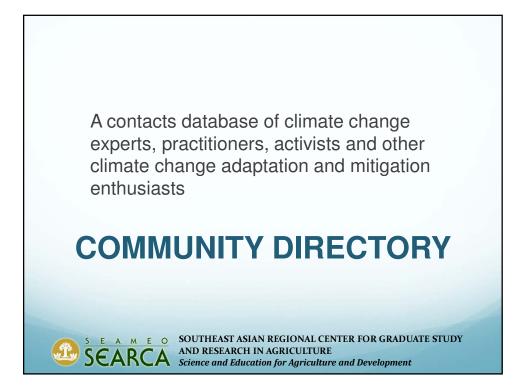
KNOWLEDGE RESOURCES











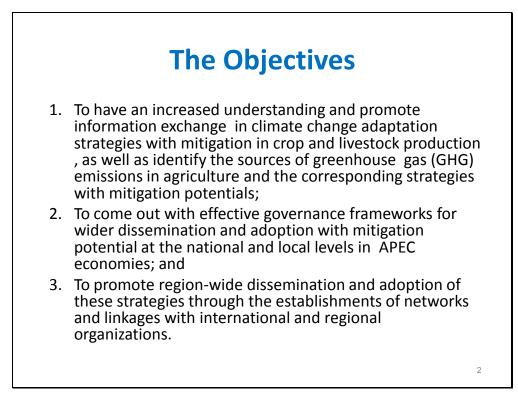
















TOPIC	Number	
1. R&D	4	
2. Framework for Planning	3	
3. IEC	6	
4. Regulations	1	
5. Financing	3	
TOTAL	17	





What have we learned? . . 3

Comprehensive climate change strategy in agriculture shall be aimed at building a more resilient food system to insure food & water security, helping to reduce GHG, and help shape a global solution



What have we learned?..4

Adaptation to climate change in agriculture needs to be addressed with a thorough understanding of its interaction with mitigation.

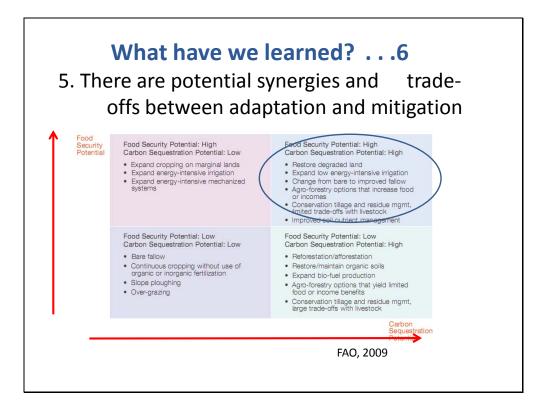


What have we learned?..5

Practices that reduce emissions may interact with adaptation and climate change impacts in numerous ways.



9



and mitig	gation in major practices						
Management	Details of the Practices						
Agronomy	Cover crops						
	Improved crop or fallow rotations						
	Improved crop varieties						
Nutrient	Organic fertilization (use of compost, animal and						
management	green manure)						
Tillage and residue management	Incorporation of crop residues, mulching						
	Reduced/minimum/zero tillage						
Water	Terraces, contour farming						
management	Water harvesting						
Agroforestry	Live barriers, fences						
	Trees on cropland FAO 201						



the classic barriers to technology adoption in their programs:

- <u>Tenure security</u>: lack of tenure security and limited property rights, may hinder adoption of adaptation/mitigation practices
- <u>Limited access to information, local experiences and</u> <u>capacity development</u>, e.g. very low levels of investment/support for agriculture research and extension
- <u>Up-front investment costs on the ground</u> can be high, while on-farm benefits not realized until medium-long term

What have we learned?

- Economies can take advantage of existing multilateral institutions in the areas of financing and IEC to develop and implement their respective programs
 - World Bank
 - Asian Development Bank
 - Food & Agriculture Organization
 - Asia Pacific Adaptation Network



Economy Papers

	EAST ASIA		SOUTH- EAST ASIA		USA		AUSTRALIA		TOTAL	
	Р	I	Р	I	Р	I	Р	I	Р	1
1. R&D		3	1	4		2		1	1	10
2. IEC		3				1				4
3. Regulations										
4. Financing										
TOTAL		6	1	4		3		1	1	5

Note: Some of the papers are classified in two or more topics

16

What we learned? . . 1-2

- Economies have understood the importance of adapting and mitigating climate change not just to address food & water security but also the consequences to the welfare of their people.
- Adaptation and mitigation activities and strategies vary from economy to economy because context/situations varies.

What we learned? . . 3-4

- 3. Experiences are rich and capacities varies from economy to economy.
- Much discussion has focused on R&D, little on IEC but practically none on the role of regulations in "climate smart agriculture".



- 5. There is now greater awareness of the potential synergies from cooperation and partnerships;
- In order to attain effective transition to climate smart agriculture (CSA), there is a need for adequate policy and institution support.



There are member economies with good experience on the effective use of regulatory instruments in promoting climate smart agriculture.



