

International forest policy

– an overview



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– an overview

Report from the Secretariat for International Forestry Issues, SIFI



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Foreword

Prior to the Rio conference in 1992, four conventions were discussed. Three of them came into effect: *Biodiversity*, *Climate* and *Desertification*. All three of them have forestry implications. The fourth one, on forestry, did not end up as a convention but good enough as “principles”, now being further developed in different ways. Consequently there is no legally binding forestry document to adhere to at global level. However, besides the three Rio conventions there are a number of other international agreements that indirectly influence forestry.

As we all know, at European level the Common Agriculture Policy regulates our agriculture to a great extent, but there is no such thing as a Common Forestry Policy. That means that to a very high degree Swedish legislation distinctly and directly regulates Swedish forestry. But indirectly, also at EU-level, several policy documents affect the forests and our forestry activities, and they are gradually increasing in numbers. The international forestry discussion is all along influenced by the development in the society. Globalisation contributes to development and wealth building, but also involves a risk of different unwanted effects. Such effects have to be discussed and sometimes regulated at international level.

Good knowledge about the ongoing forestry processes is important to the Swedish nation and to the different forestry organisations and companies in two ways. Decency urge us to follow the rules and regulations we ourselves have been involved in formulating, and also good knowledge about policies in place gives us better business opportunities, not being in doubt about the legalities. By active participation in the international forestry discussions we also might be able to influence the forestry thinking in other countries in a positive way and reach a long-range acceptance for our Swedish Forestry model.

This report is an updated version of the booklet *International conventions, agreements and processes related to forestry* published in 2002 by the Royal Academy and the Swedish Forest Agency. Dr. Lisa Holmgren was the author then, as well as this time. She has worked with international forestry agreements for several years and her PhD dealt with Forest policy. The report is produced by the Secretariat for International Forestry Issues (SIFI) at the Royal Academy. Financial support was given by the Ministry of Agriculture, the Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences (SLU), the Swedish Federation of Forest Owners, World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF), the Swedish Forest Industries, the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (Sida)/the Forest Initiative and the Royal Academy.

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1. Introduction

1.1 Purpose and structure of report

For Sweden as a forest nation, it is of key importance to know what is happening on the international political arena on issues related to forests and forestry. In recent years, this has become particularly evident in the framework of international climate cooperation where forest resources are identified as part of the solution to the climate problem. But forest issues are also discussed in a number of other global and regional political forums. Following the UN's Conference on Environment and Development in Rio de Janeiro in 1992, international forest policy cooperation has grown significantly in scope. Several international agreements relate to forest issues and a number of international organisations have forest-related matters on their agenda. Like other sectors, the forest sector is affected to a growing extent, both directly and indirectly, by decisions taken beyond Sweden's borders. This means that there is a growing need to understand what is happening on the international political arena with regard to forest issues. Parallel to this, the international "forest policy map" has become increasingly complex in recent years and in some respects hard to grasp.

The purpose of this report is to contribute to the understanding of international forest policy and how this affects Sweden and Swedish for-

estry. The report provides an overview of the most important international agreements and other political processes that, in various ways, are linked to forests and forestry. It mainly focuses on intergovernmental cooperation and has a Swedish perspective as its point of departure. The idea is that the report should provide a framework and serve as a gateway for those seeking further information; consequently, it contains references to websites and relevant policy documents.

The report is divided into four sections. By way of introduction, a brief background is given of the forest's role on the global political arena, an outline on developments in international forest policy and on Sweden's actions in general in international forest policy. The second part provides an outline of the most important international agreements relating to forests. A short description is given of the purpose and structure of each agreement, how it is connected to forests, its background and how the agreement affects Sweden and Swedish forest management. In a corresponding manner, the third part describes other areas of cooperation at global and European level as well as cooperation on forest issues in Sweden's vicinity. Forest policy at EU level is described in part 4.

1.2 Forests on the global political arena

Forests become a global political concern

Forests can be said to have become an inter-governmental concern since the establishment of the Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations (FAO) and its forestry department in 1945. However, it was not until the 1980s, when tropical deforestation became a widely recognised problem, that forests became a politically controversial issue globally. A number of reports had been published that drew attention to the link between diminishing areas of tropical forests and species extinction. The Brundtland Commission's report "Our Common Future" from 1987, which came to have a major impact on the agenda of the UN Conference on Environment and Development in Rio de Janeiro in 1992 (the Rio conference or UNCED), also devoted a relatively large amount of space to the need to preserve ecosystems and species as well as the causes of deforestation. This publicity was one of the reasons why tropical deforestation became an item on the global political agenda. After the announcement by UN in 1989 the forthcoming Rio conference, proposals were put forward from various quarters, for example from the then G7, on the development of a global forest convention. However, the proposal for a forest convention already met with strong opposition from the Group of 77 during the planning stage for the Rio conference. In contrast to the industrialised world's view of tropical forests as a common heritage and responsibility there was the developing countries' assertion of their sovereign right to natural resources within national boundaries and calls for financial compensation for the measures required to protect them. It proved to be impossible to negotiate a forest

convention. When the Rio conference opened in 1992 forests were one of the most contested and controversial topics on the agenda. Despite this the conference succeeded in agreeing on general principles for the management, conservation and sustainable development of all types of forest, the so-called Forest Principles. In addition, forest issues were addressed in a chapter of the global plan of action, Agenda 21, which became one of the results of the Rio conference.

The Rio conference and the controversy surrounding a forest convention created mistrust between developing countries and industrialised countries over forest issues. In comparison with issues relating to climate change and loss of biological diversity, which resulted in the adoption of global conventions at the Rio conference, forests became a politically less interesting issue from a global perspective when it emerged that a forest convention was not a viable approach. Nonetheless, the Rio conference launched a new era in the international policy dialogue on forests and forestry. Since the beginning of the 1990s, a variety of global and regional initiatives have been taken with the aim of achieving sustainable forest management and having Agenda 21, the concept of "sustainable development" and the UN's Forest Principles as a kind of normative base.

As a result of the fact that climate change has been given higher political priority in recent years, forests have once again returned to the political limelight. Now, however, it is not the link between dwindling areas of tropical forest and the loss of biological diversity that is the question on the political agenda, as was the case at the time of the Rio conference, instead it is the role deforestation, forests and forestry play and should play in addressing climate change.

A few words about developments in international forest policy

From forestry and timber to sustainable development

International forest policy has changed over the years, both with regard to structure and content. Since the beginning of the 1990s, international forest policy has become part of the broader “global policy for sustainable development” package. Forest issues at global level are linked to overriding concerns such as global north-south relations, anti-poverty programmes, global environmental change, indigenous people’s rights and overall goals such as the UN’s Millennium Development Goals, MDGs. This is reflected in the content of international forest-related organisations’ agendas, which have become ever broader. The concept of Sustainable Forest Management, SFM, has become embedded in international forest policy documentation. Much has been done internationally to operationalise the SFM concept and what, in practice, is meant by economically, ecologically and socially sustainable management of forests.

From government to governance

Even the structure of international forest policy has changed. This report is mainly confined to intergovernmental cooperation and agreements on forests. It must be said, however, that with a broader agenda for forests, stakeholders other than states have acquired a larger role, hand in hand with a trend towards decentralisation of decisions related to forest management. In international research on state control, reference is often made to a general shift “from government to governance”. According to this theory, we are seeing a change, which means that government to a greater extent is being exercised via a network of political stakeholders who exert

influence in different ways, at different political levels and by varying means. Whether there is change or not, we can note that, in terms of “international forest governance”, the number of organisations, political initiatives and various forms of partnership between the public sector, the private sector and civil society has grown considerably in recent years. Partnerships such as the Congo Basin Forest Partnership and the Asia Forest Partnership bring together different types of stakeholder in each region to promote sustainable forestry. International partnerships such as Growing Forest Partnerships, The Forests Dialogue and the International Family Forest Alliance aim to promote the greater involvement of local stakeholders in decisions related to forest management. We have also seen the emergence and establishment of non-state governance in the form of international forest certification systems. The way in which better coordination and synergies are created between various conventions, organisations and initiatives, as well as the links between global, regional and local level, has also been a standing item on many agendas. At global level, the UNFF’s Collaborative Partnership on Forests is an initiative to foster coordination of the work of international organisations. In a nutshell, the image of how the utilisation of forest resources is governed is more complex today than it was before.

Sweden’s part in international forest policy

Sweden generally considers that a strong Swedish representation in international forest policy dialogue is important. In previous years, Sweden has had an active role in intergovernmental forest discussions, particularly within FAO, but also within ITTO (see section 2.5).

Before the 1992 Rio conference, Sweden was one of the leading advocates of a global forest convention. The idea was that a binding convention would be able to regulate the rate of harvesting in precious tropical forest areas and distribute responsibility and cost among the countries of the world. When it became clear that a forest convention was not a viable way forward, Sweden, after the Rio conference, joined the group of countries that have since then sought solutions other than a global forest convention. Regional cooperation via UNECE's Timber Committee and FAO's European Forestry Committee (see section 3.2) and the Ministerial Conference on the Protection of Forests in Europe (see section 3.3) have been regarded as key in Sweden's eyes. Bilateral cooperation has also been seen as an important means to gain international acceptance for a Swedish approach to sustainable forestry. Sweden has also found it important to encourage stronger

involvement on the part of developing countries in the global discussions on forests.

Sweden's accession to the EU in 1995 changed the prerequisites for influencing international policy since the EU generally speaks with one voice in international negotiations. In the case of the UN Forum of Forests (see section 3.1), for example, Sweden has had difficulty in getting its position across in EU circles. For example, contrary to Sweden's stance, the EU has been a driving force in the issue of a global forest convention. In contrast, in the case of the international climate negotiations and the parts that affect forests (see section 2.2), Sweden, in part thanks to its long experience of systematic and regular national forest inventories, has had the confidence of EU circles and been able to influence the EU's position. As a result, Sweden has been able to exert considerable influence over the negotiations relating to the Kyoto Protocol's articles on carbon sinks.



2. International agreements

2.1 Forest issues within the UN system

International bodies dealing with forest issues – an overview

Forest issues are handled by a number of international bodies at global level, both within and outside the UN system. With the said system as the starting point, the diagram on next page shows how the bodies referred to in this chapter, as well as the UN Forum on Forests (UNFF) and UNECE/FAO, which are described in Chapter 3, are inter-related organisationally. The bodies that handle forest issues report to the UN General Assembly (UNGA) or the UN's Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC), two of the UN's six main bodies in its central organisation. Non-coloured boxes show where the agreements mentioned in this chapter belong in the system. A list of English abbreviations can be found at the end of the report.

International agreements in brief

Forest issues are handled in different types of international agreement, both binding intergovernmental agreements and non-binding agreements. Relationships between states are generally governed by international law, made up of international treaties and agreements. There is no uniform procedure by which such international agreements are drawn up. However, the procedure was standardised to some extent by the 1969 Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties, which lays down the fundamental

rules on the conclusion of agreements and their entry into force, interpretation and application.

The Vienna Convention differentiates between signing, ratification and entry into force. The signing of a convention text means the parties agree on the text but are not yet bound by the convention. A party becomes bound to an agreement by ratifying it. The agreement requires a given number of ratifications for it to enter into force. As a rule, the agreement states how many ratifications are needed. The ratifying parties are then expected to make such changes or adjustments to their national laws and policies as will enable the objective of the convention to be achieved. However, no sanctions are available if a party does not fulfil its commitments, apart from international pressure. Each party is also free to withdraw from an international agreement.

In Sweden's case, international agreements are concluded following a decision by the government. In some cases, parliamentary approval of an agreement is required. The government can also instruct an administrative authority to enter into an international agreement on issues that do not require parliamentary involvement. As a rule, all binding agreements concluded by the government are published in Swedish translation in the publication *Sveriges internationella överenskommelser (SÖ)*. In the boxes below reference is made to the respective treaty numbers in SÖ. Most of them are published on the Swedish government's website.

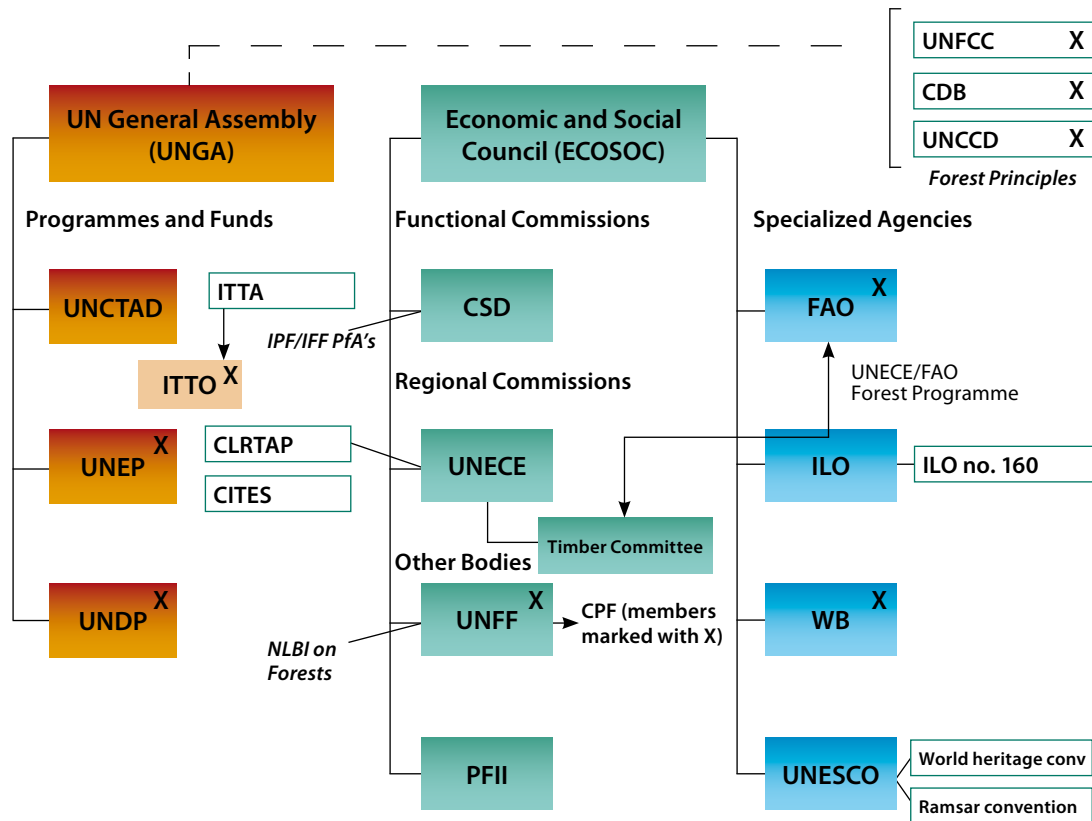


Figure 1. Schematic structure of forest-related bodies and agreements within the UN. Organisations included in the UN Forum of Forest's (UNFF's) Collaborative Partnership on Forests (CPF) are marked with an X.

Declarations, recommendations and decisions

Agreements that bind parties are commonly referred to as hard law. Framing binding agreements is a time-consuming and costly process. This is why, generally speaking, there has been an increase lately in the framing of non-binding agreements, so-called soft law. This may involve decisions and recommendations by international organisations or declarations by state representatives at international conferences. Even in the framework of conventions, decisions and recommendations can be made in

order to clarify general wording in the text of the convention. Opinions differ as to the legal significance of such soft law. In practice, the importance given to such non-binding agreements depends on factors such as the status of the issuing organisation and links to existing, binding agreements. In the case of forests and forestry, there is a good deal of soft law such as the UN Forest Principles and the non-binding forest agreement that has been adopted by the UN Forum on Forests (see section 3.1)..

2.2 Convention on Climate Change and the Kyoto Protocol

Formal name	UN Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC)	Formal name	Kyoto Protocol to the UNFCCC
Adopted/in force	9 May 1992/21 March 1994	Adopted/in force	11 December 1997/16 February 2005
Number of parties	194	Number of parties	191
Swedish text	SÖ 1993:13	Swedish text	SÖ 2002:41
Website	http://unfccc.int	Website	http://unfccc.int

Purpose and structure

The overriding goal of the Convention on Climate Change is to stabilise greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere at levels that prevent dangerous, human-induced warming of the climate. The Convention establishes a number of overarching principles for the international climate effort, including that the parties are to protect the climate system for present and future generations in accordance with their common but differentiated responsibilities and capabilities. Further, that industrialised countries have a special responsibility to take the lead in the work to prevent climate change. The industrialised countries listed in Annex I to the Convention thereby have specific commitments. In the first instance, these so-called Annex I countries (OECD member countries, the EU and the countries in the former Eastern Bloc) are urged to stabilise their greenhouse gas emissions at 1990 levels. The countries listed in Annex II of the Convention (the same as above minus the countries in the former Eastern Bloc) have a specific responsibility to provide financial resources and technology for emission reduction activities in non-Annex I countries. The Convention on Climate Change is a framework convention that does not contain any quantified targets or timeframes for implementation by the

industrialised countries. These were introduced when the Kyoto Protocol was adopted in 1997.

Kyoto Protocol

The Kyoto Protocol regulates emissions of six greenhouse gases: carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄), nitrous oxide (N₂O), hydrofluorocarbons (HFC), perfluorocarbons (PFC) and sulphur hexafluoride (SF₆). By virtue of the Protocol, the thirty-six industrialised countries listed in Annex I of the Convention on Climate Change have committed themselves to reducing net emissions of the six greenhouse gases to a level that on average is at least 5.2 per cent below the level of emissions in 1990. This applies during the Kyoto Protocol's first commitment period 2008–2012.

The Kyoto Protocol allows industrialised countries a variety of options as to how they can achieve their emission reduction targets by means of so-called flexible mechanisms, which can be used as a complement to reducing emissions at national level. One idea behind these is that emissions will be reduced as cost effectively as possible. The three mechanisms are the Clean Development Mechanism, CDM, Joint Implementation, JI, and emissions trading. CDM allows stakeholders in countries with Kyoto Protocol emission commitments to carry out emission reducing measures in countries

that are party to the Protocol but which have no quantitative commitments (in general, developing countries). Investment will also contribute to sustainable development in the host country. JI allows joint projects between stakeholders in countries with Kyoto Protocol emission reduction commitments. As in the case of CDM, the goal is that the efforts will help towards the modernisation and streamlining of the industrial and energy sectors in the host country. States as well as businesses can invest and use JI in order to meet their emission commitments. International, interstate trading in emission rights provides opportunities for a country to purchase allocated emission rights from countries with surpluses. The states, or the parties, are also entitled to delegate such trading to companies in their own country. The EU's Emission Trading System (EU ETS) is an application of these rules. In addition, a specific directive allows companies in the EU ETS to credit emission-reducing units from completed CDM and JI projects.

Secretariat and meetings

The Conference of the Parties (COP) is the governing body of the Convention on Climate Change and the equivalent for the Kyoto Protocol is the Meeting of the Parties to the Kyoto Protocol (MOP). The Convention's secretariat is located in Bonn, Germany. Two permanent supporting bodies also belong to the Convention: the Subsidiary Body for Scientific and Technological Advice, and the Subsidiary Body for Implementation. The work of the Convention is also based to a great extent on the studies carried out by the UN Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC). To date the IPCC has carried out four major evaluations, the latest of which was published in 2007.

After the Kyoto Protocol – the Copenhagen Accord and more

Talks on a future climate agreement after the expiry of the Kyoto Protocol in 2012 are running on twin tracks: a “convention track” that includes all the parties to the Climate Convention, and a “Kyoto track” that focuses on future commitments by industrialised countries under the Kyoto Protocol. The goal is that both “tracks” will be unified by means of a new treaty. The hope was that COP15 in Copenhagen 2009 would have resulted in a new climate agreement to follow on from the Kyoto Protocol. That did not occur. The summit did, however, result in the Copenhagen Accord, which includes a common goal to keep future climate warming to below 2 degrees Celsius. The 2-degree goal can be seen as a concretisation of the Climate Convention's goal to “avoid dangerous climate change” and may be a step towards reaching agreement on how much global emissions must be reduced and on how the burden is distributed between various countries.

Earlier important steps in the talks include agreements such as those at COP7 and COP13 in Marrakech in 2001 and in Bali in 2007. In the Marrakech Accords the parties agreed on detailed rules and guidelines for the further implementation of the Kyoto Protocol; for example, the terms and rules for flexible mechanisms, rules on carbon sinks, support for developing countries and instruments for cooperation between industrial and developing countries. At COP13 all the parties backed the idea that a new climate agreement was to include all the countries in the world and 100 per cent of global emissions. The parties adopted the Bali Road Map, which included the Bali Action Plan, setting out the pointers for the continued talks. Meetings of the parties (COP16/MOP6 and COP17/MOP7) will be held in Mexico at the end of 2010 and in South Africa at the end of 2011.



Link to forests

Recently, the importance of forests in the context of climate change has attracted much political attention at a global level. The Climate Convention and the Kyoto Protocol state that the parties are to protect and strengthen “sinks” for greenhouse gases and carbon storage in biomass and soil, for example by reducing deforestation and encouraging sustainable forestry and reforestation. According to the Kyoto Protocol, the parties are to report greenhouse gas emissions and uptake within the Land-use, Land-use change and Forestry (LULUCF) sector. Between 2008 and 2012 the LULUCF sector consists of varying activities. Under the Protocol’s article 3.3, obligatory reporting is required for two activities: afforestation/reforestation

and deforestation. Under the Protocol’s article 3.4, reporting on the remaining activities is optional: forest regeneration, forest management, cropland management and grazing land management. According to the Kyoto Protocol, the parties that have chosen to include LULUCF are entitled to claim some of the sinks as emission credits. Questions concerning how the uptake in growing forests is to be promoted and how deforestation is to be prevented, are central, although complex, in the continued talks on a new climate agreement following the expiry of the Kyoto Protocol in 2012.

Accounting and reporting of LULUCF

Under the Kyoto Protocol and the Marrakech Accords the current accounting rules for the LULUCF sector are to be revised ahead of fu-

ture commitment periods. Discussions on how forest carbon flows are to be estimated, and the positive climate effect that is generated by the ability to store carbon in wood products, have been a regular feature at the international talks since the Kyoto Protocol was adopted. The overriding goal is to create an accounting system that gives Annex I countries more effective incentives than today's to implement measures in the LULUCF sector to limit future climate change. Basically, the issues under discussion are what is to be included in the accounting system (for example, what activities and carbon flows are to be included), what should serve as reference levels (currently the reference level is zero for the reporting of carbon flows for "ongoing forestry activities" in the LULUCF sector while other parts of the Climate Convention use 1990 emission levels as a starting point) and what measuring methods can be used.

An important question in the talks on accounting system rules is how carbon flows to and from "ongoing forestry activities" are to be reported since this is of great importance to countries with large forest resources. Recently, the parties have been able to move closer to each other on this issue. The accounting approach that has received the most support is initially based on the Annex 1 countries themselves proposing national reference levels that are acceptable to all parties. Furthermore, the accounting system is limited to a ceiling that amounts to one percent of 1990's total emissions. In addition, there is consensus on the need for a regulatory framework that limits the responsibility of individual countries for emissions that are due to exceptional events (force majeure) such as fires, storms and insect damage, and that a regulatory framework for the reporting of emissions from timber products should be developed in order to arrive at a more correct form of reporting over time.

Reduce deforestation – REDD

Various estimates suggest that deforestation accounts for between 10 and 20 per cent of global greenhouse gas emissions. In recent years measures to reduce global deforestation have been put forward as a cost effective means of reducing greenhouse gas emissions. At the Climate Convention's 11th meeting of the parties in 2005 discussions were initiated on how to reduce deforestation. The discussions have been labelled REDD (Reduced Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation). In general terms, the idea behind REDD is that rich countries compensate poor countries for not cutting down their forests. The proposal has received strong support in the talks. In the action plan adopted at the Bali Climate Change Conference in December 2007, the parties were encouraged to identify and take measures, including pilot projects, to address the problems associated with deforestation and to reduce carbon emissions. Since then a large number of REDD projects have been launched. The two main initiatives are the UN-REDD Programme and the World Bank's Forest Carbon Partnership Facility. The goal of both these initiatives is to provide practical experience that can contribute to the negotiation of a new climate agreement that includes forests. They also aim to support the efforts of tropical countries to build capacity for REDD. In terms of the UN-REDD Programme, a financial mechanism known as the Multi-Donor Trust Fund was created in 2008, which will allow donors to contribute to the implementation of the programme. More recently, the discussions on REDD have been broadened. There is talk of REDD+, which will also include the continued conservation and afforestation of forests, sustainable forestry and an increase in forest carbon storage. Some argue for the inclusion of other land uses, including agriculture, which is referred to as REDD++ .

Ahead of COP15 Copenhagen in 2009, there were hopes that REDD+ would form part of a new climate agreement following on from the Kyoto Protocol. Even though the meeting failed in this respect, there was unity over the key role of forests in addressing climate change. The Copenhagen Accord notes this key role of forests and the need to reduce emissions from deforestation and forest degradation. The parties agreed that the REDD process should continue. Many questions remain to be resolved, however, before REDD can be incorporated into a new climate agreement and before it can be applied in practice. For example, there is the question of how REDD is to be financed, there are methodological questions on the measurement of deforestation, questions of legal rights and how REDD should be designed in order to guarantee that there will be no detrimental consequences for poor people dependent on forests or for biological diversity.

Background to the Convention

Although it has long been known within the scientific community that the build-up of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere could have an impact on the climate, it was not until the end of the 1980s that the issue appeared on the political agenda. In 1988, the UN General Assembly called for a scientific assessment of the situation. As a result of this, the World Meteorological Organisation (WMO) and the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) set up the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) in order to establish a common scientific base for the proposal of political measures to combat climate change. In 1990, the UN General Assembly set up an international negotiating committee for a framework convention on climate change with the

objective of obtaining an agreement for adoption at the UN's Conference on Environment and Development in Rio de Janeiro in 1992. In order to make an agreement possible, a number of questions were left open and many others were worded in such vague terms that sufficient scope was left for individual states to arrive at their own interpretations. When the Convention came into force in 1994 the process of specifying who would do what and when began. These talks led to the adoption of the Kyoto Protocol in 1997. During the spring of 2001, USA chose to opt out of the negotiations on the Kyoto Protocol. With Russia's ratification of the Protocol in 2004, the conditions were met to enable the agreement to come into force in 2005.

The Climate Convention and Swedish forestry

Sweden ratified the Climate Convention in 1993 and the Kyoto Protocol in 2002. Generally, Swedish climate policy contains objectives and instruments that are both domestic and in some cases common to the EU-27. The Swedish parliament has decided that the goal for Swedish emissions of greenhouse gases, from businesses that are not included in the emission trading system, should be a 40 per cent reduction in relation to 1990 levels by 2020.

The government believes that forestry plays an important role in curbing climate change and that high and stable growth is a fundamental starting point for addressing the role of forests in mitigating climate change. What will apply for LULUCF's accounting system is important to Sweden, which has large areas of forestland and low emissions in absolute terms in other sectors. Pursuant to the guidelines of the Climate Convention, Sweden compiles

data each year on its emissions of greenhouse gases. The emissions are also reported to the European Commission. In January 2006, the government decided to submit a report to the Commission on Sweden's allocated emission levels. The report formed part of the Swedish report to the Kyoto Protocol on Sweden's scope for emissions for the commitment period from 2008 to 2012. The decision means that Sweden chose to apply article 3.4 of the Kyoto Protocol

when it comes to the sequestration of greenhouses gases in carbon sinks in forests and forestland, but not in arable or pastureland or new vegetation. (More information is available in the report "Skogens roll i ett framtida globalt klimatavtal", the Royal Swedish Academy of Agriculture and Forestry's Journal, 5:2008. The report (in Swedish) can be accessed on the Academy's website: <http://www.ksla.se>.)

2.3 Convention on Biological Diversity and the Cartagena protocol

Formal name	Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD)	Formal name	The Cartagena Protocol to the CBD
Adopted/in force	5 June 1992/29 December 1993	Adopted/in force	29 January 2000/11 September 2003
Number of parties	193	Number of parties	158
Swedish text	SÖ 1993:77	Swedish text	SÖ 2002:57
Website	http://www.cbd.int	Website	http://www.cbd.int

Purpose and structure

The goal of the Convention on Biological Diversity is to promote the conservation and sustainable use of the world's biological diversity. The Convention has three overriding goals: 1) the conservation of biological diversity, 2) the sustainable use of the components of biological diversity and 3) the fair division of profit from the use of genetic resources. According to the Convention's article 2, biological diversity is defined as "the variability among living organisms from all sources including, inter alia, terrestrial, marine and other aquatic ecosystems and the ecological complexes of which they are part; this includes diversity within species, between species and of ecosystems". The Convention re-

quires the signatories to develop national plans and strategies for the conservation of biological diversity.

The Convention includes the Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety, which was adopted in 2000 as a supplement to the Convention to protect biological diversity from potential risks associated with genetically modified organisms (GMO).

Through the Protocol, a procedure is created so that countries intending to import GMOs first have access to the information they need to enable them to make decisions based on sufficient facts.

A central concept in CBD is the Ecosystem Approach. In general terms, this means that biological diversity should be seen in a land-

scape perspective that includes economic and social factors. The parties to CBD have agreed to carry out work on its implementation on the basis of an ecosystem approach, to which end the parties to the meeting have decided on seven thematic working programmes, established guidelines, strategies and protocols that are more or less binding. Over the years the parties have adopted working programmes for biological diversity in forests, freshwater, farmland, oceans and coastal zones, mountain ecosystems and arid biotopes. In addition, CBD deals with 18 cross-cutting issues, such as the ecosystem approach, protected areas, taxonomy, and technology transfer and cooperation.

The Conferences of the Parties (COP) are the governing body of the Convention and meet every second year. They are assisted by a Subsidiary Body on Scientific, Technical and Technological Advice (SBSTTA) and a number of working groups linked to various articles in the Convention's text, including a working group for protected areas. A financial mechanism, the Global Environment Facility (GEF), that is also a financial mechanism for the Climate Convention and the Convention to Combat Desertification, is linked to CBD. The Convention's secretariat is located in Montreal, Canada.

Link to forests

It is estimated that 70 per cent of the world's terrestrial plant and animal species are found in forest ecosystems. Forest issues are, therefore, an important aspect of CBD. An initial working programme for biological diversity in forest ecosystems was adopted in 1998. In 2002, a broader and action-orientated working programme was adopted. The programme focuses on three main areas: 1) conservation and

sustainable use of forest biological diversity and the fair division of profit arising from its use, 2) institutional and socio-economic conditions and 3) knowledge-building related to forest biological diversity. The programme was evaluated in 2008. The evaluation found shortcomings in the implementation of the working programme and also pointed to a need for better cooperation with other international bodies dealing with forest issues.

More recently, the issue of illegal logging and the trade in illegally harvested wood (see section 4.5) has become a major topic for CBD. Also, as a result of the Cartagena Protocol, discussions on genetically modified trees (GMT) have intensified in recent years. Several parties have called for a moratorium for the use of GMT. However, COP9 in Germany 2008 decided not to take action in favour of an international ban, but continued to stress the precautionary principle with regard to the use of GMT. Climate change and REDD (see section 2.1) are issues on CBD's agenda when it comes to forest biological diversity. This is a matter of seeking to prevent a mechanism for REDD in a future climate agreement from having an adverse impact on biological diversity in forest ecosystems. For further information on the issue, a newsletter about REDD and biological diversity is published on the Convention's website (<http://www.cbd.int/forest/redd/newsletters>).

Background to the Convention

In the early 1980s there was a scientific consensus that species' extinction rates had risen dramatically. The issue of a global treaty for the conservation of the world's genetic resources was raised on the international political agenda, with the help of IUCN. The Brundtland Commission in its 1987 report *Our Common*

Future also recommended that proposals for an international agreement on species conservation be drawn up. In 1987, the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) convened an ad hoc working group to investigate the feasibility of such an agreement. The question of a convention, however, soon came to be mired in tensions between the Global North and South over their views on Intellectual Property Rights and the right to genetic resources. The Global South argued in favour of national sovereignty over the right to genetic resources while the Global North argued for the view that such resources are part of a common heritage of mankind, in line with previously agreed international law. After tough negotiations, a compromise text was accepted at the eleventh hour and the Convention could be adopted in connection with the UN's Conference on Environment and Development in Rio de Janeiro in 1992, as planned.

The Convention on Biological Diversity and Sweden

Sweden ratified the Convention in 1993 and the Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety in 2002. The Ministry of the Environment has the main responsibility for CBD in Sweden. In order to meet Sweden's commitments, the Swedish Environmental Protection Agency and a number of sectoral authorities, including the Swedish Forest Agency, drew up action plans in the 1990s for the conservation of biological diversity. By means of the decision on the

Environmental Code in 1999 the cornerstones of the Convention were brought together in one piece of legislation. Since 1999, the work on the conservation of biological diversity has been conducted on the basis of the Swedish parliament's environmental quality objectives. Several of these objectives and interim objectives concern biological diversity and, as of 2005, there is a separate environmental objective related to biological diversity, *A Rich Diversity of Plant and Animal Life*. CBD is also relevant to Swedish development aid. In order to focus on biological diversity, the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (Sida) and the Swedish Biodiversity Centre have launched SwedBio, the Swedish International Biodiversity Programme.

During the process up until the adoption of the extended working programme in 2002, Sweden, in its negotiations within the EU and as an independent voice, argued for the Swedish model for sustainable forestry, i.e. that conservation and the use of biological diversity are equally important and the extent of protection zones is determined by how successful the general consideration to nature of all forestry activities is.

The Swedish Forest Agency is the regulatory authority as regards the rules on the use of genetically modified trees. The deliberate planting and the release of genetically modified trees on the market is regulated in the Swedish Forest Agency's regulations (SKSFS 2008:4: SKSFS 2008:5), which in turn are based on Directive 2001/18/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council.

2.4 Convention to Combat Desertification

Formal name	UN Convention to Combat Desertification in Those Countries Experiencing Serious Drought and/or Desertification, Particularly in Africa (UNCCD)
Adopted/in force	17 June 1994/26 December 1996
Number of parties	193
Swedish text	SÖ 1995:72
Website	http://www.unccd.int

Purpose and structure

The Convention's purpose is to prevent the degradation of lands, mitigate the effects of drought and contribute to sustainable development and better living condition for people living in dry areas. Arid areas account for one-third of the earth's land surface and ultimately UNCCD is about the living conditions of close to 1 billion people who live in arid, semi-arid and dry sub-humid areas. UNCCD is implemented by means of national action programmes whose purpose is to address the underlying causes of deforestation and to find ways to pre-

vent this. The Convention's secretariat has been located in Bonn, Germany, since 1999.

Link to forests

Forests provide important ecological benefits which reduce the vulnerability of dry ecosystems. One of UNCCD's objectives, therefore, is to protect forests. Wood and forest products are also of great socio-economic importance to the people living in these areas. The Convention contains regional annexes on which regional action programmes are developed to ensure integrated sustainable use of land, including dry forests.



Background to the Convention

UNCCD came about following a decision at the UN's Conference on Environment and Development in Rio de Janeiro in 1992. It is one of few examples of an international agreement that was initiated by developing countries, despite a lack of interest among industrialised countries. At the beginning of the 1990s, desertification had been a matter for international development cooperation for almost three decades. Those countries, above all in Africa, that are regularly affected by severe drought considered, however, that too little attention was paid to their problems in the preparations ahead of the Rio conference. They eventually received the firm backing of the G77 and the industrialised countries finally accepted G77's stance. However, it was not until after tough talks in Rio that agreement could be reached on a recommendation to begin negotiations on

a convention to combat desertification. The UN General Assembly established an international negotiating committee and in 1994 the convention text was drawn up and could be adopted.

The Convention to Combat Desertification and Sweden

Sweden ratified the Convention to Combat Desertification in 1995. The Convention affects Sweden's development aid and Sida participates in the Convention's activities on behalf of the Ministry for Foreign Affairs. Virtually all aid-receiving countries in eastern, southern and western Africa have arid areas in their territories. Sida's role in the Convention to Combat Desertification is to integrate dry area issues into its bilateral and regional development cooperation and to contribute its experience of multilateral projects.

2.5 International Tropical Timber Agreement (ITTA)

Formal name	International Tropical Timber Agreement (ITTA)
Adopted/in force	27 January 2006/not yet in force
Number of parties	60
Swedish text	SÖ 2008:23
Website	http://www.itto.int

Purpose and structure

The International Tropical Timber Agreement is one of a number of commodity agreements that have been negotiated within the framework of the United Nations Conference on Trade

and Development (UNCTAD). Unlike other commodity agreements, the ITTA does not contain any direct trade regulations. The overriding goal is to promote the expansion and diversification of international trade in tropical

timber from sustainably managed and legally harvested forests and to promote tropical forestry. In 2006, a new agreement was adopted which, when it comes into force, will replace the previous ITTA from 1994. ITTA 2006 is based to a large degree on ITTA 1994 but has been expanded to include certain issues that have arisen in recent years, for example alleviation of poverty and combating illegal logging (see section 4.5).

The International Tropical Timber Organisation (ITTO) oversees the implementation of the agreement. Members of ITTO are countries that produce and consume tropical timber. The organisation is currently made up of 60 member states and the EU. The organisation's decision-making body is the International Tropical Timber Council. The council consists of representatives of all members and meets twice a year. The organisation's headquarters are located in Yokohama, Japan, and it is run by an Executive Director who is elected by the members. The work of the organisation includes the production of statistics and market information, development of a regulatory framework for sustainable tropical forest management and projects in the sectors referred to in the agreement. Statistics are published in ITTO's Annual Review and Assessment of the World Timber Situation, which mainly reviews the tropical timber situation. ITTO has also developed criteria and indicators for the sustainable management of tropical forests.

Background to the Agreement

ITTA's origins can be traced back to a series of negotiations that began within the framework of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) in 1976 and which resulted in the first agreement on tropical timber in 1983. This agreement was negotiated at the same time as global environmental problems, and in particular deforestation in the tropics, were attracting increasing international attention. After pressure from international environmental organisations, the final agreement included environmental considerations. ITTA 1983 guided ITTO's activities until 1996 when it was replaced by ITTA 1994.

ITTA and Sweden

Sweden ratified the latest agreement on tropical timber in 2008. This, and previous agreements, require information to be provided, mainly on trade in tropical timber products. In the case of Sweden, such information is provided by the Swedish Forest Agency. Sweden is also required to pay an annual contribution to ITTO's administrative budget. Financing of ITTO's projects is, however, voluntary. The Ministry of Agriculture is the responsible ministry and participation in ITTO's council meetings has been delegated to the Swedish Forest Agency in recent years.

2.6 CITES Convention

Formal name	Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES)
Adopted/in force	3 March 1973/1 July 1975
Number of parties	175
Swedish text	SÖ 1974:41
Website	http://cites.org

Purpose and structure

The purpose of the Convention is to ensure that no species of wild fauna or wild flora is subject to unsustainable exploitation because of international trade. This is done via regulation of trade through a system of import and export permits. Some 5,000 animal species and 28,000 plant species are protected to varying degrees by the Convention. They are listed on one of CITES' three lists (Appendix I, II and III), which group species on the basis of how threatened they are considered to be by international trade. A species can be transferred from one list to another over time depending on how great the threat appears at the time. The parties to the Convention meet approximately every second year. CITES' secretariat is administered by the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and is located in Geneva, Switzerland.

CITES is a framework convention and for its goals to be realised the contracting parties must pass their own national laws. The EU is not party to CITES but nevertheless has introduced regulations for the member states in support of the Convention. In many cases these are stricter than the Convention text, inter alia as regards import conditions [Council regulation (EC) No. 338/97 and Commission regulation (EC) No. 865/2006]. The EU's regulations also regulate trade in and among EU member states as well as international trade with non-EU countries.

Link to forests

A large number of the species listed in CITES have forests as their habitat. In recent years a number of commercial tree species have been added to the lists. For example, African teak/afrosia (*Pericopsis elata*), mahogany (*Swietenia macrophylla*) and ramin (*Gonystylus* spp.) were placed on CITES Appendix II in 1992, 2003 and 2005 respectively. CITES has a common work programme with ITTO (see section 2.5) for commercial tree species. The purpose of the programme, which is co-financed by ITTO, the European Commission and others, is to build up capacity in the countries affected by CITES' criteria for listed commercial tree species.

Background to the Convention

The initiative to CITES originally came from the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN, now the World Conservation Union). Following the 1972 UN Conference on the Human Environment in Stockholm, at which the United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP) was established, negotiations on the Convention's text took place within the framework of UNEP. CITES is now regarded as a UN convention.

CITES and Sweden

Sweden ratified CITES in 1974 and has also been covered by the EU's regulations on CITES since 1995. Responsibility for the

Convention's activities rests on the Ministry of the Environment. The Ministry of Agriculture has responsibility for certificates and permits while the Swedish Environmental Protection Agency is the advisory body.

2.7 ILO's Convention on Indigenous Peoples

Formal name	ILO's Convention Concerning Indigenous and Tribal Peoples in Independent Countries
Adopted/in force	27 June 1989/5 September 1991
Number of parties	20
Swedish text	–
Website	http://www.ilo.org/ilolex/cgi-lex/convde.pl?C169

Purpose and structure

The International Labour Organization is the UN's specialised body for employment and work-related issues and is based in Geneva, Switzerland. Its overriding purpose is to alleviate poverty and promote social justice. More than 180 conventions on different aspects of social rights have been adopted over the years. For many years, the organisation has been monitoring the working and living conditions of indigenous peoples. The purpose of ILO's Convention No. 169 is to strengthen indigenous peoples' socio-economic and cultural rights. The main principle is that indigenous peoples shall be consulted and participate in decision-making in matters that affect their lives and communities. The Convention puts particular emphasis on the importance of land to indigenous peoples and contains regulations that shall safeguard their right to land that they have held or used for a long time.

Link to forests

Many indigenous and tribal peoples are dependent on forests and what the forests can provide for their livelihood. The Convention has established that the rights of indigenous peoples to natural resources pertaining to their land shall be safeguarded. This also includes their right to participate in the use, management and conservation of these resources. Furthermore, it says that the parties to the Convention, in cooperation with the indigenous peoples concerned, shall take measures to preserve and protect the environment in the territories in which they live.

Background to the Convention

ILO was established after World War I in 1919 on the basis of the idea that long-term and stable peace requires social justice. In the case of indi-

genous peoples, ILO's initial focus was to begin with their situation in the role as native workers in the European colonies. After the formation of the UN in 1945 ILO's focus was broadened on these issues and in 1957 the first convention (No. 107) was adopted on the rights of indigenous peoples. The principle underlying this convention was that indigenous peoples should be integrated into the larger society. With time and with a growing degree of organisation by indigenous peoples, this view was, however, challenged and calls to have the convention updated were made. ILO's Convention No. 169 is a response to this. Generally, the issue of indigenous peoples' rights has gained status in the UN. In 2000, a permanent forum was set up in the UN for issues relating to indigenous peoples (UN Permanent Forum on Indigenous Issues). Issues pertaining to the rights of indigenous peoples are also on the agendas of a number of conventions, processes and international organisations with links to forests, such as the Convention on Biological Diversity, the Convention on Climate Change and the UN Forum on Forests.

ILO 169 and Sweden

ILO's Convention No. 169 is handled by the Ministry of Agriculture, in contrast to other ILO conventions which are handled by the Ministry of Employment's ILO committee. Sweden has not yet ratified the Convention. Above all, it is the Convention's article 14, on the rights of indigenous peoples to the land that they have traditionally owned or currently own, which has presented obstacles to Sweden's ratification. The question of what is required for Sweden to ratify the Convention has been the subject of a number of inquiries over the years. The enquiry "The Sami – an Indigenous People in Sweden" (SOU 1999:25) found that Sweden could join the Convention, but that this should not be done until a number of measures regarding the Sami peoples' right to land have been implemented. More recently, the Border Commission has investigated the borders for the reindeer husbandry grounds and how the land in the reindeer husbandry grounds should be sectioned in accordance with article 14 of the Convention (SOU: 2006:14). In recent years, Sweden has attracted and still attracts international criticism for failing to ratify the Convention.

2.8 Convention concerning World Cultural and Natural Heritage

Formal name	Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage
Adopted/in force	16 November 1972/17 December 1975
Number of parties	186
Swedish text	SÖ 1985:8 (not published on the web)
Website	http://whc.unesco.org/en/convention

Purpose and structure

The purpose of the Convention is to establish an effective system for the protection of natural and cultural sites and other properties that are deemed to be part of a universal world heritage. The Convention maintains a list – the UNESCO World Heritage list – of sites of universal value that are to be preserved. The World Heritage Committee makes decisions as to whether a property should be inscribed on the World Heritage list. Once a property has been inscribed on this list it is guaranteed care and protection for all time. The Convention requires affiliated states to have a suitable organisation and legislation to ensure the protection and upkeep of world heritage sites on their territory. The parties also undertake to respect natural and cultural properties in other countries.

Link to forests

Under the Convention, forests can be regarded as part of our natural heritage. In 2001, the World Heritage Committee agreed that forests eligible for conservation required special attention, and it therefore launched a programme for forests known as the World Heritage Forest Programme (<http://whc.unesco.org/en/forests>). At present there are 97 forests having a total area of 76 million hectares on the World Heritage List. The Convention is increasingly regarded

as an instrument for use in the conservation of valuable forest environments.

Background to the Convention

The draft text for the Convention was presented at the UN Conference on the Human Environment in Stockholm in 1972. It was then adopted at the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation's (UNESCO's) general conference in Paris later the same year.

World Heritage Convention and Sweden

Sweden affiliated itself to the Convention in 1985. The Ministry for Culture has formal responsibility, while the National Heritage Board has overall responsibility for the application of the Convention. Sweden was elected to the World Heritage Committee for the period 2007–2010. During the 1990s a number of Swedish properties were inscribed on UNESCO's World Heritage List, which now includes 14 Swedish cultural and natural properties. Information pertaining to these can be accessed on the National Heritage Board's website. The 142,500 hectares of land known as the High Coast (in the region of Härnösand and Örnsköldsvik) and the stone carvings in Tanum are examples of forested World Heritage Sites in Sweden.

2.9 Wetlands Convention

Formal name	Ramsar Convention on Wetlands of International Importance Especially as Waterfowl Habitat
Adopted/in force	2 February 1971/21 December 1975
Number of parties	159
Swedish text	SÖ 1975:76
Website	http://www.ramsar.org

Purpose and structure

The purpose of the Wetlands Convention, or the Ramsar Convention, as it is also known, is to preserve wetlands of international importance. At present, 1,888 wetland areas, having a total area of more than 185 million hectares, are inscribed on the Ramsar list of Wetlands of International Importance. The Conference of the Contracting Parties, which meets every third year, is the Convention's decision-making body. A Standing Committee consisting of elected representatives from all six continents except Antarctica monitors compliance with the Convention between Conferences of the Contracting Parties. The Convention also has associated with it a Scientific and Technical Review

Panel. The Convention's secretariat shares premises with IUCN in Gland, Switzerland.

Link to forests

Wetlands in the sense used in the Convention include marshy forests, mangroves and certain coastal forest areas.

Background to the Convention

The proposal for a convention on the conservation of wetlands was first put forward in 1962 under the aegis of a programme for the conservation of wetlands that had been established in



1960 with IUCN as a participant. The background was the growing concern over the rate at which large areas of marshland in Europe were disappearing as a result of cultivation and the subsequent decline in the number of waterfowl. Initially, the focus was on maintaining waterfowl numbers, but during the time the text of the Convention was being prepared, the focus was broadened to include wetlands as biodiversity habitats and other ecological functions.

Wetlands Convention and Sweden

Sweden signed the Convention in 1974. The Ministry of the Environment has formal responsibility. The Swedish Environmental Protection Agency provides information about the status of Sweden's Ramsar areas. At present there are 51 such totalling 5,100 square kilometres. All

of Sweden's Ramsar areas are included, in part or in whole, in the EU's Natura 2000 network (see section 4.3 Biological Diversity). With few exceptions they are also protected to some extent by being designated as nature reserves or, in some cases, as national parks. The Agency, under its mandate from the government and in association with the Swedish Forest Agency, the Swedish Board of Agriculture and the National Heritage Board has drawn up a strategy for the conservation, restoration, creation and cultivation of wetlands, including marshy forests. One purpose of the strategy is to establish the conditions needed for achieving parliament's environmental quality objective – known as Living Wetlands – by 2020. This also helps to fulfil Sweden's commitments under the terms of the Wetlands Convention and the Convention on Biological Diversity (see section 2.3).

2.10 UN's Air Pollution Convention

Formal name	Convention on Long-Range Transboundary Air Pollution (CLRTAP)
Adopted/in force	13 November 1979/16 March 1983
Number of parties	51
Swedish text	SÖ 1981:1
Website	http://www.unece.org/en/lrtap , http://www.icp-forests.org

Purpose and structure

The purpose of the Convention is to reduce damage to natural resources caused by acidification due to sulphur dioxide, nitrogen dioxide and other pollutants created by the combustion of fossil fuels. The Convention is a frame-

work convention and, as such, it is formulated in general terms. A number of protocols have therefore been added which regulate emission thresholds for sulphur, nitrogen oxides and volatile organic substances. Protocols for heavy metals and non-volatile organic substances have been added later.

Link to forests

The Convention includes, as one among a number of other joint programmes, a programme for monitoring the effect of air pollution on forests; it is known as ICP Forests. Most countries in Europe, as well as Canada and the USA, are involved in this programme. Data collection under the aegis of ICP Forests takes place using a common grid of observation plots for the 41 countries involved, and using a uniform methodology for sampling and analysis. The activities of ICP Forests are closely related to forest monitoring within the EU. In 2009 and 2010, the EU and ICP Forests have developed their forest monitoring within the so called FutMon project (Further Development and Implementation of an EU-level Forest Monitoring System). The project involves the development of a new methodology for obtaining information on the effects of air pollution and climate change on forests and biological diversity, as well as endeavouring to harmonise existing monitoring systems at national, regional and EU levels. The project is co-funded by the EU's Life+ programme for the financing of environmental measures. Generally, there is a growing demand for more information about forests and their status at both European and global level. This is reflected, for instance, in the Green Paper on Forest Protection and Information in the EU published by the European Commission in 2009 (see section 4.3 Green paper).

Background to the Convention

At the end of the 1960s, Sweden contributed, through the work of Swedish researcher Svante

Odén, in bringing transboundary air pollution onto the agenda for international environmental policy. Evidence was presented to show that precipitation of sulphur dioxide was a cause of acidification of Swedish forests and lakes. At the UN Conference on the Human Environment in Stockholm in 1972, Sweden brought up the issue with the object of reaching an international agreement. Initially, interest among other European countries was cool and it was not until the end of the 1970s that the process really gathered momentum. By then the OECD had demonstrated that air quality in one country could be affected by pollution from other countries and expressed the view that the problem called for joint international action. The UN Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE) was tasked to draw up an international agreement. The Convention was adopted in 1979 and successively strengthened during the 1980s. It is now regarded as one of the foremost examples of an effective regional environmental convention.

Air Pollution Convention and Sweden

Sweden ratified the Convention in 1981. The Ministry of the Environment has formal responsibility, and the Swedish Environmental Protection Agency is also engaged in the Convention's activities. Data on forest damage for reporting under the terms of the Convention are obtained by means of the Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences' regular environmental analyses, Forestry Programme. The Swedish Forest Agency has national responsibility for ICP Forests.

3. Other international cooperation

3.1 UN Forum on Forests

Formal name	United Nations Forum on Forests (UNFF)
Members	UN member states and expert organs
Website	http://www.un.org/esa/forests

Purpose and structure

The United Nations Forum on Forests (UNFF) shall promote the sustainable management of the world's forests and strengthen long-term political commitment amongst the member states to this end. A Collaborative Partnership on Forests is affiliated to the forum. The partnership consists of 14 international organisations that are involved in various ways with forest related policy, among them the FAO, the World Bank and ITTO as well as the secretariats for the conventions on climate, biological diversity, and desertification. The purpose of the partnership is to support the work of the UNFF and to foster closer cooperation and coordination on international forest-related issues. In organisational terms, UNFF is affiliated to the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations (ECOSOC). Its activities are governed by the UNFF Bureau, which is elected at each UNFF session. Since 2007, UNFF has held sessions every second year. In the interim other types of meetings take place as well as activities within expert groups for different topics. The current Multi-Year Program of Work covers the period 2007 to 2015. The UNFF secretariat is located in New York.

A non-legally binding global agreement on forests

In 2007, the UNFF adopted the Non-Legally Binding Instrument on All Types of Forests. The agreement is based on earlier agreements within the framework for this process and defines four goals that are to be reached by 2015: 1) reverse the loss of forest cover worldwide, 2) enhance forest-based economic, social and environmental benefits, 3) increase the area of sustainably managed and protected forests, and 4) reverse the decline in official development assistance for sustainable forest management and mobilize additional financial resources for the implementation of sustainable forest management.

Background to UNFF

The UN Forum on Forests is a continuation of the UN Conference on Environment and Development held in Rio in 1992. After the Rio Conference, and the failure of the attempts to bring about a global forest convention (see section 1.2), several proposals were put forward on how the global forest policy dialogue should nevertheless continue. The proposal

that was adopted was to set up a temporary Intergovernmental Panel on Forests, IPF, that would be accountable to the UN Commission on Sustainable Development (CSD), which was established in 1992 to follow up on the Rio Conference. The mandate of IPF was to follow up on the forest-related agreements that were reached at the Rio Conference, the Forest Principles and a chapter on forests and forestry in the Agenda 21 action plan. When the panel's mandate expired, the Intergovernmental Forum on Forests, IFF, was established with a two-year mandate. These rounds of negotiations resulted in some 270 proposals for measures, known as the IPF/IFF Proposals for Action, to promote sustainable forestry and a number of resolutions to the same end. Even though the negotiations within the IPF and the IFF resulted in a large number of proposals for action it was still not possible to get any closer to an agreement on a binding forest convention. In 2000, the "forest issue" gained a more permanent position within the UN system with the establishment of the United Nations Forum on Forests (UNFF) under ECOSOC. UNFF has continued to build on the results from IPF and IFF.

UNFF and Sweden

Sweden has participated actively in the negotiation rounds within the IPF and the IFF, partly to gain support for the Swedish forestry model. Ahead of IPF's fourth meeting, for instance, the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (Sida) arranged a meeting with Uganda at which the Swedish consensus model for national forest planning was presented. Sweden's cooperation with Africa on forest issues was further developed under the UNFF and resulted, in 2002, in a project on "Lessons learnt on Sustainable Forest Management in Africa", initiated by the Royal



UNFF session, New York.

Swedish Academy of Agriculture and Forestry (KSLA), FAO, and the African Forest Research Network (AFORNET). Sweden has considered it important to increase the participation of African countries primarily in the global discussions on forest issues and has contributed to this end through support to the African Forest Forum (website: <http://www.afforum.org>) and its Technical Support Team which supports African delegations during international meetings and negotiations, for example within UNFF and the climate convention. The support for and cooperation with AFF is conducted primarily via KSLA and its Committee for International Forest Issues, which is represented on the board of AFF, along with UNFF and others.

In recent years the EU has adopted a common position ahead of negotiations within UNFF and Sweden has found it harder to make its own voice heard. As mentioned in chapter 1, Sweden was one of the active proponents of a global forestry convention during the planning for the Rio conference, but has, since 1992, sought other solutions by way of regional cooperation, since a global convention on forest issues has not turned out to be a viable way forward. The EU has, however, been a driving force within the UNFF to bring about a decision on a convention.

3.2 European cooperation on forest and timber issues within the UN

Formal name	FAO European Forestry Commission (EFC)	Formal name	UNECE Timber Committee
Members	FAO members within the European region (currently 39 countries plus the EU)	Members	From Europe, North America, Central Asia, and Southern Caucasus (currently 56 countries)
Website	http://www.fao.org/forestry	Website	http://timber.unece.org

Purpose and structure

A formal UN structure for cooperation on forest issues in the pan-European region within the framework of the FAO (the UN Food and Agricultural Organisation), and UNECE (the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe) has existed for a long time. This is made up of the UNECE's Timber Committee and FAO's European Forestry Commission. The member states in the Timber Committee meet once a year every autumn. The most important items on the agenda are a Market discussion to deal with topical issues relating to the current and longer term state of the market for forest products, as well as a Policy forum where various themes of current interest are discussed.

UNECE and FAO joint forestry programmes

The Timber Committee and FAO's European Forestry Commission cooperate closely on forests and forestry and the timber market with the objective of strengthening the forest sector and its contribution towards sustainable development within the UNECE pan-European region. At present, the activities are based on the UNECE/FAO Timber and Forestry Programme for the period between 2008 and 2013, a joint programme which includes activities within five areas: market and statistics, forest resources, long-term forest sector

outlook studies, social and cultural issues and policy and cross-sectoral aspects. A priority task during the period is to update the latest long-term European Sector Outlook Study (EFSOS) for the UNECE region, where much has happened, for example in the area of climate change and in the demand for bio energy, both of which affect timber-using industries.

Background

The UNECE/FAO cooperation on forests and the timber market goes back to the days when the UN and FAO were founded in 1945. Forests had been severely damaged by the war and timber was in short supply at the time. UNECE was established in 1947 and Gunnar Myrdal was appointed its secretary general. In 1947, FAO convened a European conference to discuss timber supplies in Europe. The Timber Committee and the European Forestry Commission, as one of what were later to become six regional forestry commissions, were both created at this conference. In the early years the two organs focused on timber supplies and the flow of timber. With time, and in line with the global dialogue on forestry policy, the agenda has come to encompass social and environmental aspects of forestry and the timber market.

UNECE/FAO and Sweden

Sweden has generally regarded regional cooperation on forests within UNECE/FAO as important and it has long played an active role in UNECE/FAO. It is primarily within the field

of statistics and activities associated with the European Forest Sector Outlook project that Sweden has played a prominent part.

3.3 Forest Europe – Ministerial Conference on the Protection of Forests in Europe

Formal name	Forest Europe/Ministerial Conference on the Protection of Forests in Europe (MCPFE)
Number of parties	46 plus the EU
Website	http://www.foresteurope.se

Purpose and structure

Forest Europe or the Ministerial Conference on the Protection of Forests in Europe (MCPFE) as it was called until the end of 2009, is an ongoing process of cooperation between European countries with the aim of discussing common problems and opportunities related to forests and forestry. The process includes various types of meetings. At ministerial conferences decisions are taken at a political level, such as declarations and resolutions. Since 1990, five ministerial conferences have been held and 19 resolutions on different aspects of forests and forestry have been adopted. The participating parties are responsible for implementing these decisions at national and regional level. Expert Level Meetings are decision-making bodies that take place between the ministerial conferences. Representatives from member states and the EU, which is represented by the Commission, and observers from non-Euro-

pean countries, international organisations and various voluntary organisations take part in these meetings. Round table meetings and ad hoc working groups are convened to exchange information on specific questions and to discuss more technical and scientific issues. The chairmanship of the process rotates between member states. Norway currently holds the chairmanship and has a liaison unit based in Oslo. The work is coordinated by a general coordinating committee that currently consists of representatives from five of the member countries: Norway, Poland, Slovakia, Spain and Germany. The current working programme for the process was adopted in 2008 with the aim of implementing the resolutions from the previous ministerial conference, which was held in Warsaw in 2007. Norway will arrange the sixth ministerial conference in June 2011.

Much has happened around the world since Forest Europe was launched in 1990 and the question of how relevant the process is in rela-

tion to a changing world has arisen. The ministerial conference in 2007 decided that an independent assessment should be made of the work of the process, partly with the objective of laying down a foundation for a decision on the future strategy of the work within Forest Europe. The International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis (IIASA) was engaged to carry out the assessment. IIASA observes in its written assessment report from 2009 that much of the work within Forest Europe has been positive. However, the report also comments that there is a need for a stronger organisation with clearer goals and more effective working practices. The report is available on Forest Europe's website: <http://www.foresteuropa.org>.

Proposals relating to a European forest convention

The idea of a European forest convention has been launched in connection with discussions about the future of Forest Europe. A proposal to assess the conditions for the adoption of such a forest convention at European level was presented at the last ministerial conference. The proposal was presented against the background of the challenges that face the European forest sector within climate change, the changing use of land, demographic changes and the fact that the forest sector is increasingly dependent on decisions within other policy sectors. Work is ongoing within the framework of the process to present various options as to what such a convention should include. A political decision on whether to start negotiations to set up a European forest convention or not, is due to be made at the next ministerial conference in June 2011. This also requires coordination amongst European member states at EU level.

Background to Forest Europe

The origins of Forest Europe can be found in the 1980s where there was widespread general concern over acid rain and fears of forest death on a large scale in Europe. Against this background, France and Finland were instrumental in 1990 in assembling responsible forest ministers from Europe at a meeting in Strasbourg to discuss joint action to protect Europe's forests. However, after the Rio Conference in 1992 this process has tended to be seen more as a regional follow-up to, or regional "interpretation" of, global agreements on forests. The second ministerial conference, which was held in Helsinki in 1993, focused on following up the Forest Principles and those parts of Agenda 21 that relate to forests (see section 3.1). This conference also agreed on a common definition, or regional interpretation, of the concept of sustainable management of forests as it applies to European conditions:

Sustainable management of forests means the stewardship and use of forests and forest lands in a way, and at a rate, that maintains their biodiversity, productivity, regeneration capacity, vitality and their potential to fulfil, now and in the future, relevant ecological, economic and social functions, at local, national, and global levels, and that does not cause damage to other ecosystems.

As a consequence of the Rio Conference's decisions on forests, joint international actions were launched to develop criteria and indicators for following up sustainable forest management on a regional basis. For example, the Montréal process has brought together countries with boreal and temperate forests outside of Europe, and criteria and indicators for sustainable management of tropical forests have been devel-

oped within ITTO (see section 2.5). As far as Europe is concerned, a corresponding process has been launched under the aegis of Forest Europe and this has resulted in a set of criteria and indicators for European conditions known as Pan-European Criteria and Indicators for Sustainable Forest Management.

It may be claimed that, in the absence of a forestry policy in the EU, Forest Europe has carried some weight as the political forum that has had direct links to Europe's forest ministers via the ministerial conferences. In the EU's standing forestry committee (see section 4.1), reference has often been made to discussions within Forest Europe and decisions emanating from this process have on occasion been

adopted as the EU's common standpoint in international fora such as the FAO's Committee on Forestry (COFO) and the UN's Forum on Forests (UNFF).

Forest Europe and Sweden

Since the launching of the process, Sweden has played an active role, for example in the development of European criteria and indicators for sustainable forest management. These are also integrated into Sweden's forest sector goals. The Ministry of Agriculture has responsibility in this area.

3.4 Nordic Council of Ministers and forestry

Formal name	Nordic Council of Ministers (NMR)
Members	Nordic states and three autonomous regions: Faroe Islands, Greenland and Åland
Website	http://www.norden.org

Purpose and structure

The Nordic Council of Ministers (NMR) was set up in 1971 as the official organ for cooperation between the Nordic governments. NMR consists of 10 ministerial councils. The cooperation is co-ordinated by an eleventh council of ministers, which consists of the member countries' ministers for Nordic Cooperation. Chairmanship of the Council rotates among the member countries on an annual basis.

Link to forests

Nordic forestry cooperation focuses on the local and regional importance of forests, and on promoting economic, ecological, social and cultural values. Forestry issues are discussed in the ministerial council for fishing and water usage, agriculture, food and forestry (MR-FJLS), to which a committee of officials (ÅK-FJLS) is attached.

The organ that was formerly known as the Nordic Forestry seed and seedlings council has become NordGen Skog. This is part of the

Nordic cooperation in the area of genetic resources and carries on its activities within the Nordic Genetic Resources Center, or Nordgen (<http://www.nordgen.org>).

SamNordisk Skogforskning (SNS) (Joint Nordic Forestry Research) is a joint organ that is financed out of Nordic funds via NMR (<http://www.nordiskskogforskning.org>). The overall goal of SNS is to promote research into the various functions of forests within sustainable forest management, and to advise NMR on issues relating to forests and forestry and research in these areas. SNS's area of responsibility embraces forestry, forests and other wooded areas, the utilisation of wood and timber and other forest products, and the non-commercial values of forests. During the 2010–2013 period, SNS's secretariat is located at Copenhagen University in Denmark. The Nordic countries have also recently been given responsibility for co-ordinating forest research throughout the whole of Northern Europe. A new organ, EFI-NORD, has been set up as an offshoot of SNS. EFI-

NORD is also financed by NMR and shares premises with SNS at Copenhagen University.

The Nordic forest ministers met in 2008 at Selfoss on Iceland, where they adopted the Selfoss Declaration with the object of highlighting the importance of forests in connection with what can be claimed to be two of the most important environmental challenges of our time: global climate change and the global management of fresh water resources.

NMR, FJLS and Sweden

Generally, the Nordic region and neighbouring countries occupy a special position in Sweden's eyes. Nordic forest cooperation is important to Sweden for many reasons. In the international context, for example, focusing on forest issues with a specifically Nordic relevance makes it possible to achieve a broader international impact for points of view shared by the Nordic countries.



4. Forest policy at EU level

4.1 Forest issues within the EU system

At present there is no legal foundation in the EU Treaty for a common forestry policy. According to the subsidiary principle it is, in the first instance, the member states that have authority in the area of forestry policy. The EU has a limited role the main purpose of which is to add to the value of national forestry policy. However, the forest sector is affected by decisions in several other policy areas. This chapter provides an overview of what are currently the most important policy areas in which there are legal acts and proposals that have an impact on forests and forestry. It begins with a brief description of those organs in the EU system that handle forestry issues. In the following text the terms Commission, Council and Parliament are used instead of the official names, namely: The European Commission, the Council of the European Union, and the European Parliament.

Emergence of a structure for forests and forest issues at EU level

The measures focusing on the forest sector that have been taken since the formation of the EC in 1957 have been based on legal foundations within such areas as the common agricultural policy, regional policy and trade policy. During the 1960s and 1970s, measures to support forestry formed part of the common agricultural policy. They dealt mainly with support for re-

forestation, genetic modification of seeds and seedlings, and support for fighting forest fires. The measures proposed were not applied in any systematic way. Over the years, however, the Commission has made attempts to bring into being some form of common forestry policy, without these having been adopted by the Council or the Parliament. In 1988, however, the Commission put forward a more extensive forestry policy document, one result of which was the adoption of a number of regulations that related to the planting of forests on agricultural land, the development of forestry in rural regions and the protection of forest land.

The issue of a common forestry policy was pursued mostly by the EU's southern member states, whose principal objective was to find ways of obtaining more generous financial aid for forestry. When Sweden, Finland and Austria joined the EU in 1995, the conditions changed in that the total acreage of forestland in the Union doubled and a new attitude towards forests as a source of raw materials emerged. The wide differences between the member states and the then candidate countries regarding the conditions for forestry became evident and the idea of a common policy for forestry became more remote. In 1997, after a prolonged process of enquiry and investigation, the Parliament asked the Commission to present a common forestry strategy for the EU. The Parliament's resolution was based on the Thomas Report, which laid down that the co-ordination of na-

tional policies must be based on respect for the principle of subsidiarity, and that the primary purpose of a forestry strategy should be a matter of co-ordinating those aspects of other policy areas that impacted on the forestry sector. In 1998, therefore, a forestry strategy was adopted for the EU that can be said to serve as a structure for measures directed towards the forest sector (see section 4.2). The issue of forestry policy within the EU is now very much a matter of how the forest sector in the Union can be strengthened and how the interests of the sector can be maintained against other interests.

Handling of forest issues within the EU system

Forest issues within the Commission

Responsibility for issues that touch on various aspects of forestry and the forest sector is shared among at least 10 of the Commission's directorates general (DG). The most affected DGs are those for Agriculture and Rural Development (AGRI), Environment (ENVI), Enterprise & Industry, Energy and Climate Action. However, forestry is also dealt with by the DG for Development (DEV) and that for Health & Consumers (SANCO). Reporting to each DG there are Committees that consist of representatives of the member states and are chaired by the Commission. The Committees have an advisory role in relation to the Commission. Forest issues are largely the concern of the Standing Forestry Committee, which was set up in 1988 within DG AGRI. A co-ordination unit known as the Inter-service Group on Forestry was created in 2002 under DG AGRI for the purpose of co-ordinating more effectively forestry issues that affect several DGs. There is also a corresponding unit for co-ordinating

of international forestry issues (Inter-service Group on International Forestry Issues).

At its disposal the Standing Forestry Committee has advisory groups for forest-related issues. The Advisory Group on Forestry and Cork includes representatives of forest-owner organisations, the forest industry, environmental organisations, and forest-related unions. The Advisory Committee on Forest-based Industries includes representatives of the forest industry, forest-owners and unions. Forest-related issues are also handled in ad hoc working groups for specific issues; at present they include Forests & Climate Change, Green Public Procurement and Communication Strategy for Forests and Forestry.

Forest issues within the Council

Decisions that affect forestry are mainly handled by the Agriculture and Fisheries Council, but also by other ministerial councils, depending on which issue is being dealt with. The Council's activities are prepared and co-ordinated by Coreper (the Permanent Representatives Committee), which consists of the member states' permanent representatives in Brussels. Coreper's business is in turn prepared by around 250 council working groups and special committees that consist of delegates from the member states. Forest issues are primarily handled by the Council Working Party on Forestry. The Council also co-ordinates EU's position on forest issues prior to international negotiations.

Forest issues within the Parliament

Within the Parliament it is mainly the Committee for Agriculture and Rural Development (AGRI), the Committee for the Environment, Health and Food Safety (ENVI), and the Committee for Industry, Research and Energy that handle issues relating to forestry. In addition to this, there is some informal

cooperation across party lines on a variety of factual matters within a number of so called intergroups. Issues relating to forestry are handled by the Intergroup on Climate Change, Biodiversity and Sustainable Development, sub-group Forestry.

Brief comment on the EU's legal acts

In the following text, reference is made to various legal acts that influence conditions for forestry. A brief description of EU's various types of legal acts could therefore be in place. EU de-

isions can be made with the aid of regulations, directives, decisions, recommendations and opinions. A common feature of all legal acts is that they must be legally grounded on the EU Treaty or other legal acts. Regulations that have come into effect apply directly and identically in all member states as part of their national legislation. Directives establish goals that the member states are to achieve, but leave it to the member states to decide exactly how the goals are to be incorporated into national legislation. A directive stipulates the final date by when it is to be implemented in the member states. If a

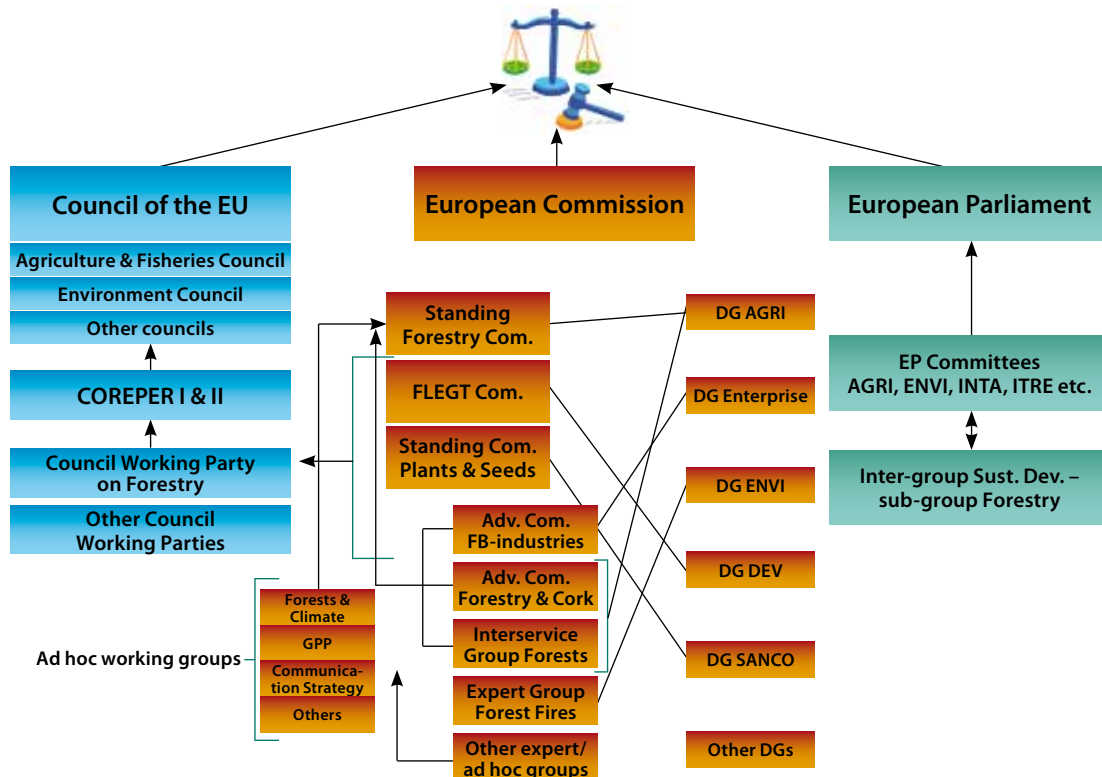


Figure 2. Schematic structure of forest-related bodies within the EU system. The abbreviations in the figures are explained in the text.

member state has not passed a law that the directive requires when the time limit has passed, the directive applies subject to certain conditions instead of the law that each member state should have introduced. Decisions are aimed at specific groups, such as certain companies, citizens, member states or organisations and are binding in all respects. Decisions are often used in the EU's competition legislation. Resolutions and opinions are non-binding legal acts, which mean that member states are not bound to comply with them.

Within the legislative process the Commission makes use of green papers and white papers. Green papers are used as a basis for discussion; they are compiled and published by the Commission ahead of any new legislation. They are intended for the EU's member states as well as for professional and industrial

organisations and interested individuals. Their purpose is to stimulate debate and consultative proceedings. White papers are documents that summarise the ideas and goals the Commission has for coming legislation in specific areas. They often follow a green paper. White papers are considered by the Council before the Commission begins its legislative process. Documents of this type are published within the Commission's COM series. The COM category also includes proposals for directives, regulations and Council and Parliamentary decisions, political memoranda, reports and certain working documents from the Commission.

The text below contains references to relevant legal acts. These can be searched for by document number, in Swedish, on the EU's website for EU laws, which is known as EUR-Lex, at <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/sv/index.htm>.

4.2 EU's forestry strategy and action plan for forests

EU's forestry strategy

In 1997, after prolonged enquiry and investigation, the Parliament asked the Commission to present a common forestry strategy for the EU. A resolution on a forestry strategy was then adopted by the Council in 1998 (The EU Forestry Strategy) [COM 1998/649]. The strategy was intended to serve as a framework for forest-related measures at EU level. The document emphasises the multifunctional role of forests in the development of society as well as the importance of Sustainable Forest Management as defined by Forest Europe (see section 3.2). After evaluating the implementation of the forestry strategy in 2005, the Commission proposed that an action plan for forests and forestry should be drawn up.

EU's action plan for forests and forestry

The EU Forestry Action Plan [COM 2006/302] is based on the forestry strategy and is intended to serve as a co-ordinating instrument for forestry policies in EU and its member states. The current plan runs for the period 2007–2011 and includes four goals: 1) long-term improvement in the competitive position of forestry, 2) environmental protection, 3) improved quality of life, and 4) better co-ordination and communication between different sectors. These goals are to be achieved by means of eighteen planned key measures that are to be implemented during the period. For example, the EU will invest in research, promote the use of forest fuel as a source of energy, promote training for forest-owners, improve the protection of forests in the

EU's member states, provide training in the environment, and improve the exchange of information within the EU. The first evaluation of the plan, which was carried out in 2009, shows that things are moving in the right direction and that it will be possible to implement the plan. How this process is to continue after 2011 depends partly on the response to the green paper on protection of forests and forest-related information that the Commission put forward in March 2010 (see section 4.3 Green paper).

As far as Sweden is concerned, the government, prior to and while the action plan was being brought into effect, put forward the general Swedish view, namely that EU's measures in the forest area should remain limited in the future and that the subsidiarity principle should be respected and applied. The government considers that community funding should be concentrated on measures in areas where there are definite advantages in having a common policy; it is also in favour of general measures relating to the exchange of information and experience, and closer co-ordination within the Commission.



4.3 EU's environmental policy and forestry

The overall goals for EU's environmental policy have been laid down in the Union's environment action programme. The current programme (6th Community Environment Action Programme), which covers the period 2002–2012, is the sixth in the series. The programme [European Parliament's and Council's decision No. 1600/2002/EC] highlights four priority areas: 1) climate change, 2) nature and biodiversity, 3) environment, health and quality of life, and 4) natural resources and waste. Some of the goals stipulated within these areas have an impact on conditions for forestry.

Protection of biological diversity

Protection of biological diversity has been referred to as an important target for the EU's environmental action programme as well as in its latest strategy for sustainable development, which was adopted in 2006. EU is also party to the Convention on Biological Diversity (see section 2.3). Measures taken in this area are based on a strategy for the protection of biological diversity that the Commission put forward in 1998 [COM 1998/42]. This provides a framework laying down how EU is to sat-

isfy the undertakings in the Convention. The Commission will put forward a new strategy for the protection of biological diversity before the end of 2010 [COM 2010/4]. Key components in the EU policy include rules for the protection of threatened species, the network of protected areas, known as Natura 2000, and recurrent reporting by member countries on the environmental status of threatened species and natural habitats. Natura 2000 was set up on the basis of two EC directives: the Birds Directive [79/409/EEC] and the Habitats Directive [92/43/EEC]. These directives list the habitats and species that Natura 2000 intends to protect, including various forest habitats. In 2006, the Commission put forward an action plan for the protection of biodiversity (Biodiversity Action Plan) [COM 2006/216] with the aim of preventing the loss of biodiversity within EU by 2010. One means of achieving this goal is to strengthen the Natura 2000 network.

As far as Sweden is concerned, the process of protecting biodiversity has been based on the Riksdag's environmental quality objectives for biodiversity since 1999 and the associated follow-up. The EU's Birds Directive and Habitats Directive have largely been incorporated into Swedish law in the form of the Species Protection Ordinance (2007:845) within the Environmental Code. As regards the Natura 2000 areas, Sweden is to submit a report every sixth year to the Commission on the status of the habitats and species at risk in the country, including forest habitats. The County Administrative Authorities have operative responsibility for following this up.

Water management

In recent years water management has attracted growing attention in global environmental policy. Within EU, water has been subject at

community level to regulation from an environment protection perspective since the beginning of the 1970s. Recently, the EU water policy has been radically restructured. EU has established as a goal that all surface water and groundwater within the union shall be of good quality by 2015. The Water Framework Directive [European Parliament and Council directive 2000/60/EC], which was adopted in 2000, is one important means of achieving this goal. The process of ensuring a good water quality is, for example, to be based on nature's own catchment areas instead of the past practice of using administrative boundaries.

The Water Directive was incorporated into Swedish law in 2004, when the Riksdag decided that Sweden should be divided into five water regions, each having its own water board. The water boards are the co-ordinating authority for the national implementation of the water directive. More than half of Sweden's more than 600,000 kilometres of running water run through forests. The introduction of the water directive means that in many cases forestry practice will have to take greater account of the forest's water environment. The Swedish Forest Agency has responsibility for implementation of the directive in forestry and has, for example, proposed in a report to the government (Water Management in Forests, Report 1-2010) that §30 in the Forestry Act be complemented to harmonise it with the demands made by the new water management.

Green paper on forest protection and information in EU

In March 2010, the Commission published a green paper on forest protection and information [COM 2010/66], as part of its process of developing a strategy for EU's adjustment to cli-

mate changes. The purpose of the green paper is to launch a discussion of various options for an EU strategy for forest protection and information within the framework of the EU action plan for forests and forestry (see section 4.2) and within its climate change process. In this context, forest protection means a more general maintenance of the forest's functions and not merely formal protection of specific areas.

The green paper raised a number of questions that the Commission would like to discuss with the EU member states and other interested parties. This means that it does not contain concrete proposals. Public hearings relating to the green paper were during the first

half of 2010, the result of which will guide the Commission in the next phase of its processing of proposed measures, if any.

As far as Sweden is concerned the government favourably views the Commission's highlighting of the importance of measures being taken to adapt and protect the forest ecosystem in a changing climate. It is important that the forest information that is available in different countries is comparable as data of this type provide useful facts on which to base the measures associated with various conventions and EU legislation as well as the globalisation of industry since it is no longer self-evident that raw materials will be available in any specific country.

4.4 EU's goals for renewable energy and forestry

Promoting the use of renewable energy is one of the goals of EU's climate and energy policy. At the end of 2008, the Council adopted the Commission's proposed climate and energy package, with the aid of which it is hoped to raise energy efficiency and the use of renewable energy as well as to reduce carbon dioxide emissions in EU. The new climate and energy policy lays down a number of goals; greenhouse gas emissions in EU shall be reduced by 20 per cent by 2020 in relation to the level in 1990, and 20 per cent of the EU energy consumption shall come from renewable sources by 2020. In addition to these goals, the package contains a number of proposals for new legislation, one of which deals with the promotion of renewable energy.

Directive on renewable energy

An EU directive (Renewable Energy Sources (RES) directive) [European Parliament and

Council directive 2009/28/EC] was adopted in 2009. The directive is of importance to the EU forestry sector as a whole as more than half of the current nine per cent of the union's energy consumption from renewable sources comes from trees. The directive is a means to achieving the goal of increasing the proportion of renewable energy consumed in the EU from 8.5 per cent in 2005 to 20 per cent in 2020. Each member state's responsibility for achieving this goal has been laid down in the form of mandatory targets. In Sweden's case a share of 49 per cent of its final energy consumption should come from renewable sources by 2020. Each country can decide for itself on what measures are needed to achieve its target.

Based on the directive, Sweden has established the following national targets for renewable energy: the share of renewable energy in 2020 shall be at least 50 per cent of total energy consumption, and in the transport sector the share shall be at least 10 per cent by 2020.

This goal has already had an impact on forestry and will continue to do so in the future. Implementation of the directive in Sweden is now in progress and the government tabled its “Implementation of the renewable energy directive” (2009/10:128) in parliament in March 2010.

As regards the volume of biomass a country estimates it will need to achieve its national target for the share of renewable energy, this must,

according to the directive, satisfy certain sustainability demands. The sustainability criteria for bio-vehicle fuel and other liquid biofuels are part of the directive. The Commission has opted, until further notice, not to draw up the equivalent criteria for solid biofuels. Instead the individual member states are recommended to draw up their own criteria that correspond to those that apply to vehicle fuel and other liquid biofuels, in so far as this is possible.

4.5 EU action plan against trade in illegally harvested timber

In recent years, the illegal harvesting of timber and the trade in this have attracted attention in international political circles as an environmental, social and economic problem. International ministerial level conferences have been held to discuss measures at regional level for North America, East Asia, Africa and Europe. The World Bank has been instrumental in launching these FLEG (Forest Law Enforcement and Governance) initiatives. Several international organisations are involved in this issue in various ways.

FLEGT stands for Forest Law Enforcement, Governance and Trade and is EU’s answer to the problem. Since 2003, EU has been applying an action plan (EU FLEGT Action Plan) [COM 2003/251] to combat illegal logging and to prevent illegally harvested timber from reaching EU’s single market. The action plan includes a number of measures, including improved control in timber-producing countries by means of traceability systems for timber and support for closer compliance with the laws. One of the measures is to set up voluntary partnership agreements between timber-exporting

countries and EU. The objective of the agreements is to reduce the illegal harvesting of timber and prevent the importation of illegally harvested timber into EU by means of a voluntary licensing system known as the FLEGT Licensing scheme in accordance with a special EU ordinance [Council ordinance (EC) No. 2173/2005]. By June 2010, EU had entered into such agreements with Ghana, the Congo and Cameroon. Negotiations are in progress with a number of other important export nations. The first shipment of FLEGT-licensed timber is expected to reach the EU market during the first half of 2011.

The measures to promote the use of sustainable timber within EU include rules for public procurement of timber and timber products in line with the EU framework for Green Public Procurement. A number of EU states, among them Denmark, France, Germany and UK, have adopted policies for green public procurement that demand that it should be possible to trace procured timber products to sustainably harvested sources.

Proposal for ordinance regulating trade in timber and timber products

In October 2008, as a further means of implementing the EU FLEGT Action Plan, the Commission put forward a proposal for an ordinance whose purpose would be to minimise the risk of illegally harvested timber, or products made from such timber, reaching the EU market [COM 2008/644]. The proposal focuses on the first occasion when the timber and timber products become available on the market. The definition of what is to be regarded as illegally harvested is based on the legislation in the country where the harvesting takes place. The proposal imposes obligations on commercial traders in timber and/or timber products. It proposes a procedure whereby stakeholders shall demonstrate due diligence. In principle,

this means that a person trading in timber shall be required to demonstrate that it comes from a legally harvested source. The Council and Parliament are expected to agree on the nature of this procedure before the end of 2010.

Sweden is generally in favour of the FLEGT process, and considers that taking action against illegal logging is very important. Sweden aims for a realistic attitude towards what demands can be made on countries with weak structures and is of the opinion that the most effective means of reducing illegal logging is to strengthen the control of national authorities over the forestry industry as a whole and not merely over exports to EU. When it comes to the FLEGT licensing system, Sweden is making preparations to enable it to accept FLEGT licensed timber (see e.g. Swedish Forest Agency's publication No. 2/2010 "National Application of FLEGT").

4.6 EU's policy for rural development and forests

The focus of rural development policy for the period 2007-2013, as well as the measures member states and regions have access to, is laid down in the ordinance on support for rural development [Council ordinance (EC) No. 1698/2005]. According to this, the EU policy for rural development during the current period is concentrated on three key themes (thematic measures) whose purpose is to strengthen the competitiveness of agriculture and forestry, improve the environment and the countryside, improve the quality of life in rural areas, and to promote diversification of the rural economy. Each state shall adopt a programme for rural development that lays down what resources are to be applied to various measures. One innovation is that greater emphasis is given to having

a uniform policy for rural development within EU as a whole.

Forests within the EU rural development programme 2007–2013

The ordinance on support for rural development is the main legal document on which the financing of measures for forests is based. It includes rules on the co-financing of measures to promote knowledge and the engagement of advisory services, planting of new forests, support for Natura 2000 areas, support for ecofriendly forestry and non-productive environmental investments in forestry, investment support and

support for the development of new products in the forestry sector, as well as support for the infrastructure.

In Sweden's case, the government submitted a national strategy to the Commission in 2006 along with proposals for a new rural development programme. The programme is divided into four areas, known as axes, with the same goals and orientation for all EU countries. The

programme is financed via the EU budget and from national sources, and will cost a total of some 35 billion SEK, or 5 billion SEK per year. The Swedish Board of Agriculture has primary responsibility for the administration of the programme. The latest programme has a larger forest component than earlier ones. The Swedish Forest Agency has responsibility for support for measures in the forestry sector.

4.7 EU's Baltic Sea strategy and forests

In October 2009, the Council adopted a strategy for the Baltic Sea region [COM 2009/248]. One of the reasons for this is the fact that the region now faces common challenges and that eight of the nine sea-rim states are now members of EU. The strategy is based on four overall challenges: 1) to create a sustainable environment, 2) to raise living standards, 3) to improve accessibility and attractiveness, 4) to increase safety and security in the region. In the action plan associated with the strategy [SEC 2009/712] these are in turn divided into 15 priority areas, and desirable measures have been described, including "flagship projects". The strategy represents a new method of cooperation in EU and is concerned with improving the co-ordination of resources and financial means to handle the challenges of the future. The strategy focuses on saving the sensitive maritime environment and improving the region's competitive strength. The strategy has no budget of its own. Resources for implementation are to be taken from existing funds such as the EU structural funds and via cooperation with the World Bank, the European Investment Bank, and the Nordic Investment Bank.



Forests in the EU Baltic Sea strategy

One of the priority areas (Priority Area 9) is to take action to promote more sustainable agriculture, forestry and fishing. Co-ordinating responsibility for this area is divided between Finland and Lithuania for agriculture and forestry (rural development) and Sweden for fishing. The purpose is to further develop the forestry sector in the region within the framework of sustainable forestry. This will be accomplished by means of landowner cooperation, advanced environmental use of forest raw materials and research projects.

As far as Sweden is concerned, the strategic process as a whole was a priority issue when Sweden held the EU Presidency in 2009. In

March 2010, the government wrote a letter to the Swedish parliament (SKR 2009/10:159) concerning implementation of the strategy, and a secretariat has been set up within the Prime Minister's Office. Responsibility for implementation of the strategy rests on the respective department and its authorities. In the case of Priority Area 9, for example, Sweden, together with Poland, is running a flagship project dealing with sustainable rural development. The object of the project is to achieve sustainable rural development by means of rural tourism and new methods for sustainable fishing, agriculture and forestry. In the case of forestry, the Swedish Forest Agency has national responsibility for co-ordination.

4.8 EU and trade in afforestation materials

Common rules regulating trading in afforestation materials have been in existence since the 1960s. The currently applicable directive on the sale of afforestation materials was adopted in 1999 [Council directive 1999/105/EC]. The object of the directive is to prevent barriers to trade and to ensure that afforestation materials that are released on the market satisfy certain minimum quality requirements and can be

identified at all stages of the production chain until they reach the end user.

In Sweden's case the production of and trading in afforestation materials is regulated in accordance with the above directive, by the forestry act, the forestry ordinance and the Swedish Forest Agency's rules regulating the production for sale, sale, and importation for sale of afforestation materials.

Engelska förkortningar

CBD	Convention on Biological Diversity
CDM	Clean Development Mechanism (within Climate Convention)
CITES	Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species
CLRTAP	Convention on Long-Range Transboundary Air Pollution
COP	Conference of the Parties
CPF	Collaborative Partnership on Forests (associated to UNFF)
CSD	Commission on Sustainable Development (within UN)
ECOSOC	Economic and Social Council (within UN)
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation
G8	Group of 8 (group of 8 leading industrial nations, before 1997 G7)
G77	Group of 77 (now group of 130 emerging countries)
GMOs	Genetically Modified Organisms
GMTs	Genetically Modified Trees
GPP	Green Public Procurement (environmentally adapted/"green" public procurement)
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
IPF/IFF Pfa	Intergovernmental Panel on Forests/Intergovernmental Forum on Forests Proposals for Action
IPRs	Intellectual Property Rights
ITTA	International Tropical Timber Agreement
ITTO	International Tropical Timber Organisation
IUCN	World Conservation Union (formerly International Union for the Conservation of Nature)
JI	Joint Implementation (within Climate Convention)
LULUCF	Land-use, Land-use change and Forestry (within Climate Convention)
MCPFE	Ministerial Conference for the Protection of Forests in Europe (now Forest Europe)
NLBI	Non-Legally Binding Instrument (on Forests) (within UNFF)
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PFII	Permanent Forum for Indigenous Issues (within UN)
REDD	Reduced Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation (within Climate Convention)
SBSTA	Subsidiary Body for Scientific and Technological Advice (within Climate Convention)
SBSTTA	Subsidiary Body for Scientific, Technical and Technological Advice (within Convention on Biological Diversity)
SFM	Sustainable Forest Management
UNCCD	United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification
UNCED	United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (Rio de Janeiro, 1992)
UNCHE	United Nations Conference on the Human Environment (Stockholm, 1972)
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UNECE	United Nations Economic Commission for Europe
UNEP	United Nations Environment Program



UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
UNFF	United Nations Forum on Forests
UNGA	United Nations General Assembly
VPA	Voluntary Partnership Agreement (within EU FLEGT)
WB	World Bank
WSSD	World Summit on Sustainable Development (Johannesburg, 2002)

Further reading

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Websites

International agreements and EU legal acts:

Regular reporting from international negotiations on development and the environment via Earth Negotiations Bulletin (ENB): <http://www.iisd.ca/voloc.html>

Collection of UN treaties: <http://treaties.un.org>

Introduction to EU law: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu>

International treaties to which the Swedish government is a signatory (in Swedish): <http://www.sweden.gov.se/sb/d/3305>

On EU policy and forests:

Forestry issues within the European Commission:

<http://ec.europa.eu/agriculture/fore/>

<http://ec.europa.eu/environment/forests/fpolicies.htm>

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For Sweden as a forest nation, what is happening on the international political arena on issues related to forests and forestry is of key importance. In recent years this has become particularly evident in the framework of international climate cooperation, where forest resources are identified as part of the solution to the climate problem.

The purpose of this report is to contribute to the understanding of international forest policy and how this affects Sweden and Swedish forestry. The report provides an overview of the most important international agreements and other political processes that in various ways are linked to forests and forestry. It mainly focuses on intergovernmental cooperation and has a Swedish perspective as its point of departure.

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