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Copenhagen and Beyond
Tourism and global climate justice

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Introduction*

Tourism and, in particular, the impact of international air transportation, has been one of the great “oversights” of the Kyoto Protocol (1997-2012) on climate protection. This neglect has been a catalyst for the overall increase in greenhouse gases (GHGs). If it is not explicitly included in the new agreement that ought to be replacing the current one, the unremitting tourism boom threatens in the medium term to wipe out vital advances made in other areas.

The United Nations Summit on Climate Change in Copenhagen (7-18 December 2009) must guarantee a real reduction in emissions related to international tourism, one of the world’s prime industrial economies, to keep corporate volunteerism and the recourse to externalizing costs, through a “carbon market” supported by new forms of intensive exploitation of the impoverished global South, from making the absolute balance increasingly negative for the global climate.

The **principal tools** needed from Copenhagen are the setting of concrete, relevant and regulatory GHG reduction targets for the international tourism industry; the right to accurate environmental information on its major contribution to the anthropogenic greenhouse effect; implementation of environmental taxation of aviation and tourism (including cruise ships); and the transfer of resources and a rebalancing of global climate security priorities to favor the South.

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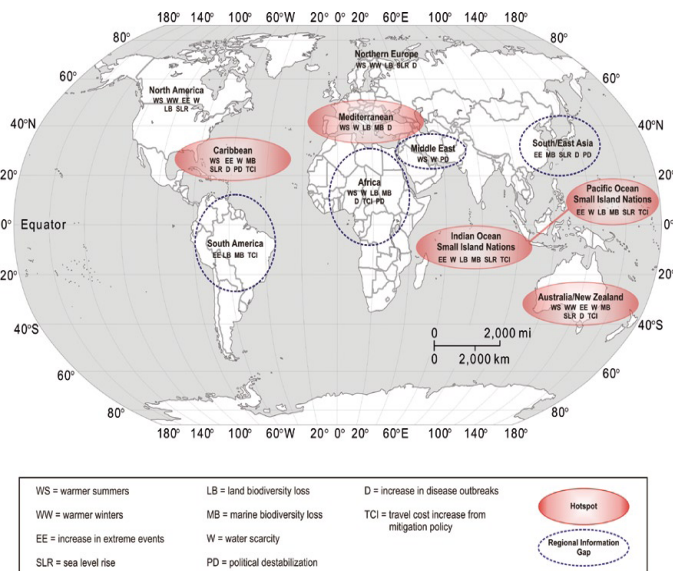
1. Lethal Oversight: Tourism as a climate destruction magnet

During the United Nations Conference on Climate Change in Bali (December 2007), **Francesco Frangialli**, then secretary-general of the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), warned the world: *“Do not unfairly target tourism! It is an activity just as respectable as others, which satisfies needs that are just as essential. (...) Those who say ‘do not travel far from home and avoid taking planes to save tons of carbon emissions,’ should think twice. Because these long-haul trips are often to countries that are home to the planet’s poorest populations, which – we know – will already be the first victims of warming. These communities, like Bali, would be doubly affected if we also deprive them of the economic contribution of tourism”* (World Tourism Organization, 2007, pp. 10-11).

His key message was clear: obliged because the UNWTO belongs to the United Nations, for the first time he accepted the link between tourism and the increasing greenhouse effect in exchange for avoiding any real reduction in the emissions it causes, using the lure that climate protection could impoverish the world’s most economically disadvantaged regions.

At no time did he allude to the scientific community’s troubling consensus on the dramatic effect that anthropogenic climate change will have on regions strategic to today’s world tourism geography, such as the Mediterranean, the Caribbean, and Indian and Pacific Ocean island systems:

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Source: UNWTO y UNEP, 2008, p. 101.

Regrettably, the UNWTO has shown a conspicuous lack of interest in people's growing concerns in the South over setting their own climate change agenda (Cuéllar and Kandel, 2008). The UNWTO's indifference to the climate cost of tourism surpasses even that of the industry itself, which, through the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), is even proposing (though without visible results thus far) taking the "leadership" in the fight for climate protection through important quantifiable voluntary commitments on CO₂ reductions (WTTC, 2009, pp. 25-26).

What lurks behind the UNWTO's lukewarm attitude toward climate security? The answer can be found in fears over the end of the tourism sector's privileged status, or "invisibility," compared to other industrial economies, which could lead to a significant increase in transportation costs and a change in tourists' attitude, now sensitive to climate costs. There could be dramatic consequences for long-haul intercontinental tourism to regions such as Southeast Asia, the Caribbean, Australia-New Zealand, and eastern and southern Africa. This is because, despite the supposedly "anecdotal" nature of the climate cost of the *industry without smokestacks*, there is growing evidence that the current tourism model is already a major impediment to making substantial strides in greenhouse gas (GHG) reductions. As the Financial Times said, it is an open secret that if things continue, "it will be identified as the world's number one environmental enemy" (Tomkins, 2006).

Article 2 of the Kyoto Protocol exempts GHGs generated by international tourism activity from any global reduction target and refers any action to the decision of the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO), which formally declined to set any specific regulation (Gössling, et al., 2008, p. 876). This error has caused a large black hole in climate accounting, because:

- Tourism (encompassing only transportation, the hotel trade and services) could be responsible for 5% of total emissions of carbon dioxide (CO₂), the main GHG, which accounts for 60% of the anthropogenic greenhouse effect.
- The tourism industry, especially through the heavy impact of air travel, generates considerable emissions of other GHGs, notably nitrogen oxides (NO_x). From their interaction with the methane and ozone in the atmosphere, these emissions notably accentuate "radiative forcing" (RF) from the greenhouse effect.¹ More or less, airplanes generate 2.3 times more emissions in flight than at ground level during takeoff. As a result, the true level of climate impact

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from the international tourism sector could be, according to 2005 data, as high as 14% (Broderick, 2009, p. 339; Simpson et al., 2008, p. 15).

- This estimate must be seen as conservative, since it does not include the energy needed for building hotels, airports, seaports, highways and roads for the use of tourism or the transport of materials and food from the North to resorts around the world (Simpson et al., 2008, p. 66). In fact, when we say that a large portion of GHGs are associated with transportation, this is because there are problems in defining what is included in the tourism energy bill. If the total energy (embodied energy or “*emergy*”) required for sustaining highly touristified societies were included, there would be many surprises. In the case of the Balearic Islands, for example, in 1999 the *emergy* of the consumer goods required by the tourism economy at the local level (not including the energy costs of its powerful transnational tourism corporations) was 100.9 terajoules (TJ), while domestic energy requirements were 103.3 TJ. Energy costs for transportation were 18.1 TJ by air and 7.8 TJ by sea. That is, the tourism business clearly feeds off the energy outsourcing process that has enabled the explosive emergence of the global factory (and the global office). These processes enable significant sidestepping of the climatocracy’s agreements that led to the Kyoto Protocol, since they decide which emissions count and which ones do not (Murray, et al., *La qüestió energètica a les Illes Balears*, 2001, pp. 121-136).
- A large proportion of GHGs come from transportation, which produces no less than 75% of the sector’s climate cost. If the additional RF is factored in, its impact increases to 82-90%. Aviation emerges as a key subsector, responsible for 54% of the CO₂ emissions from tourism transportation and 75% of total emissions when including RF. Only 38% of these emissions, those produced by aviation to domestic destinations, is included in the climate accounting subject to the Kyoto Protocol (Gössling et al., 2008, p. 875). In addition, attention needs to be drawn to the boom in maritime transportation via cruise ships (veritable floating cities of up to 5,000 people), also exempted from the Kyoto Protocol, in areas such as the Caribbean and Mediterranean. Worldwide, the half-million cruise passengers from the 1970s had become some 13 million by 2005. The consumption of fossil fuels, normally fuel of the worst quality, the cheapest, is equal to the GHGs produced by some 12,000 automobiles (Océana, 2004).

¹ Radiative forcing is a change in the net radiative energy flow toward Earth’s surface measured at the upper boundary of the troposphere (around 12,000 m above sea level) as a result of internal changes in the atmosphere’s composition (in the case of GHGs, quite markedly the NO_x from aviation), or changes in the external contribution from solar energy. It is expressed as W/m². A “positive” forcing contributes to warming Earth’s surface, while a “negative” forcing tends to cool it.

HIGH FLYING COSTS

Even though in 2005 long-haul flights were only 2.7% of all flights, they already accounted for 17% of the total climate cost. On a single long-haul trip, one tourist can surpass the worldwide average for CO₂ per capita (4 tons, which should be reduced after Copenhagen, according to the IPCC). For example, on a round-trip flight from Frankfurt to Sydney, each passenger produces 4.5 tons of CO₂. If they were to go from London to Jamaica instead, the cost would be “only” 2 tons. Alternatively, although international trips by train and bus account for 16% of tourism, they only contribute 1% of global tourism emissions.

Source: Simpson et al., 2008, pp. 15 and 66; Gössling et al., 2008, p. 874; UNWTO and UNEP, 2008, p. 34.

These figures need to be connected with the extraordinary official forecasts for the growth of both international tourism and air transport. The UNWTO is forecasting that international tourism will reach 1.6 billion arrivals by 2020; that is, a tripling of the number since 1995, when there were 565 million (www.unwto.org/facts/eng/vision.htm). Airbus, one of the two world aeronautics construction giants, foresees a steady 4.9% growth in total number of passengers from 2007 to 2026, which would involve a minimum increase of 3% annually in greenhouse gas emissions from air transport (Gössling et al., 2008, p. 873). By 2035, CO₂ emissions could be 152% higher and RF could shoot up 188% more, resulting from the extraordinary increase in air traffic. Bearing in mind that the worst case scenario for the global increase in GHGs contemplated by the United Nations’ Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) [<http://www.ipcc.ch/index.htm>] involves a maximum of +88% for the 2000-2030 period, the contrast could not be greater (Simpson et al., 2008, pp. 143-144). Therefore, if there are no significant changes in Copenhagen, both the record number of international tourists and the level of air travel will decisively compromise global climate policy.

Looking at this from another angle, we must also pay attention to the fact that in places where it has been imposed on a mass scale, tourism industrialization has set off a pattern of consumption modernization (of energy, materials, transport models, etc.) *without* the corresponding community wellbeing of local societies. In the South, if we look at the example of the Dominican Republic, we can see that, even after a tenfold increase in the number of tourists between 1985 and 2005, its United Nations Human Development Index (<http://hdrstats.undp.org>) remained a measly 91. In the North, the case of the Balearic Islands is paradigmatic: despite its successful tourism, its standards of wellbeing have been dropping and today it is at the tail end of Spain in education,

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health and social protection (Buades, 2006, pp. 25-28). Meanwhile, the ecological footprint (*not* including the global climate responsibility of its large transnational tourism corporations) directly attributable to the tourism economy accounts for consumption equivalent to 1.76 archipelagos and, if we add in the effects of tourism on daily life, the “need” for consuming the natural goods available at the Balearic Island scale is as much as 5.7 times greater (Murray et al., 2005). Given the alarm that organizations like the UNWTO are trying to incite in societies in the South aspiring to improve their wellbeing through the international tourism that may now be curtailed because of climate protection, we must not confuse a growing number of tourists as being synonymous with true community wellbeing. Other factors are much more relevant, such as spending per tourist at the local level, wage rates, or distributing the wealth generated by the tourism industry to all social classes. In too many societies in the South, macroeconomic success stories from tourism do not correspond to an improvement in the wellbeing indicators of the majority (Gössling et al., 2008).

Since the Kyoto Protocol was signed, a third negative factor has come into play in the relationship between climate change and international tourism that uses Earth’s impoverished South as its stage. The commercialization of GHG reduction through the establishment of “carbon markets” and mechanisms such as the Clean Development Mechanism (CDM) reflect the domination of the North and its industrial conglomerates in the approach to climate stabilization. Astonishingly, on the one hand, “emission rights” are held by those who pollute the most (the case of “carbon markets”). At the same time, the CDM fosters the “need” to protect or to exploit (e.g. for producing biofuels) the last tropical or high-environmental-value spaces, even if this is done at the expense of local communities’ interests and ways of life (Lohmann, 2006; Cuéllar & Kandel, 2008).

An extremely important collateral effect of the South becoming the climate recycling plant for the North’s unsustainable lifestyle is that industrial nations are swiftly developing “green” deals to increasingly exotic locations hitherto unaffected by the global tourism industry. Thus, in its *Tourism 2020 Vision*, the UNWTO’s forecast for the greatest absolute growth in international tourism is in East Asia and the Pacific (which will have quintupled its number since 1995, to 397 million) and the Americas (almost tripling, to 282 million), while Africa will have one of the greatest relative increases, quadrupling arrivals to 77 million (www.unwto.org/facts/eng/vision.htm). An important part of the appeal of these new destinations has to do with their extraordinary biodiversity (Christ et al., 2003). Doubtlessly, the enhanced lure of these

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CDM: A DIRTY DEAL FOR THE CLIMATE AND THE SOUTH

The Kyoto Protocol sanctioned the Clean Development Mechanism (CDM). Its intent was to permit governments and transnational corporations to invest in “clean” projects in the South for the purpose of increasing their GHG generation “credit” on the carbon markets. Unfortunately, experience has shown the CDM to be an environmental fiasco. Moreover, in innumerable cases, the projects have served to further erode living conditions and democratic rights in many communities of the South.

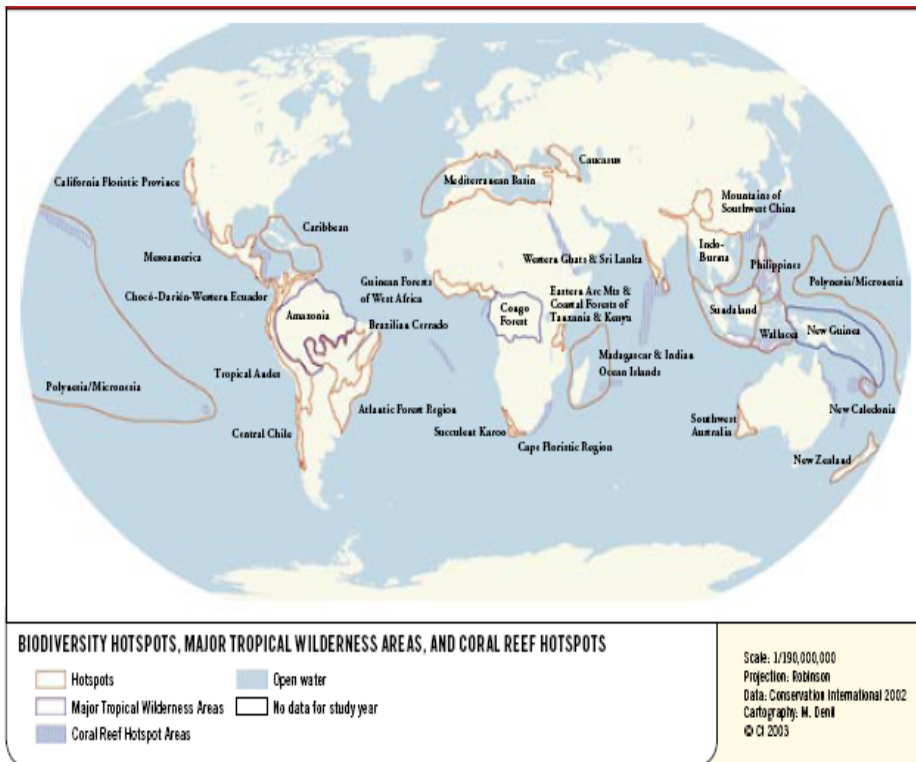
Source: International Rivers, 2008; Smith, 2008.

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In contrast with this high-climate-risk travel fever, we should take notice of the elitist character of today’s international travel: on a yearly basis, fewer than 2% of people spend their vacations abroad; that is, a little over 130 million (Simpson et al., 2008, p. 66). The gulf between risk and beneficiaries is so gaping that it can only be explained by the unparalleled lack of environmental regulation and lack of financial and democratic transparency at a global scale that the international tourism industry has enjoyed for the past half century and that has enabled it to become the world’s largest legal economy (Buades, 2006, pp. 41-58).

The tourism industry and a small echelon of privileged people are unfairly appropriating *the commons* at two levels (the climate or breathable air, at the global level; the habitat of broad swaths of the South, in regional terms) (Harvey, 2006). Therefore, more than ever, there is an urgent need for a genuine shift in priorities that would enable advancing toward a climate justice that is capable of guaranteeing breathable air for the entire world and true opportunities for human wellbeing in the South, where most of the world’s people live.

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Source: Christ, Hillel, Matus, & Sweeting, 2003, p. 5.

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2. TOURISM: FROM CORPORATE SOCIAL IRRESPONSIBILITY TO COOPERATION FOR GLOBAL CLIMATE JUSTICE

Up to now, the behavior of the international tourism industry may be best categorized as *corporate social irresponsibility* (CSiR). Indeed, its evasion of all binding regulations on climate security and general transparency have engendered, as we have seen, growing worldwide concern, since its ongoing successes in passengers transported and destinations added pose a colossal challenge to attaining the goals for reducing GHGs that are lethal to the climate.

The UNWTO, paradoxically an organization belonging to the United Nations system, has reacted belatedly and poorly to the lifting of the secrecy that shrouded the tourism sector's major contribution to climate change. Up until the Davos conference in October 2007, the UNWTO had remained on the sidelines of efforts by the international community to protect the climate. When it took its first and only position at this conference, the commitments it acquired were manifestly vague and inappropriate for an international public agency that should be safeguarding the commons (World Tourism Organization, 2008, pp. 3-6):

- It expressly avoided setting any concrete GHG reduction goal.
- It offered to counsel the countries of the South, especially island States threatened with physical disappearance, to aid their participation in CDM projects, a tool controlled by countries and corporations in the North for using the South as a carbon sink.
- It expressed its desire to “strive” to conserve biodiversity of “earth lungs” to also ensure a “long-term sustainable use of the environmental resource base of tourism.”
- It encouraged consumers to be more careful with their individual carbon footprints.

Simultaneously, having dragged its feet even more conspicuously, the WTTC, as the lobby group for transnational tourism corporations, has attempted to position itself as a “leader in the challenge on climate change” in leading up to the Copenhagen Conference. To this end, it has identified ten commitments that, despite being more concrete than those of the UNWTO, also show worrisome signs of remaining far from what ought to be considered authentic corporate social responsibility (CSR) on climate change. Briefly, it is worthwhile pointing out the following (WTTC, 2009):

- The aspiration to voluntarily reduce CO₂ emissions (and only these) by 50% by 2050, with an interim target of 30% if there is a new post-Kyoto agreement or only 25% if there is not (*sic*).
- The intention of supporting improvements in technology and in energy efficiency both in sectors such as aviation and for the use of local communities.
- The search for new standards to measure progress on GHG reduction, apart from those provided by the IPCC.
- Direct support for reducing deforestation and forest degradation through private partnerships.

Behind both the UNWTO and WTTC positions is a desire to avoid any regulation via international agreements on concrete GHG reduction targets and mechanisms and to preserve ample leeway for corporations to outfit themselves with voluntary codes and plans based on helpful micromeasures that will have little real impact on global climate accounting, since their projections continue to include generating the maximum possible number of tourists and air passengers in coming decades.

Given the disappointing positions taken by these organizations, the Copenhagen Conference on Climate Change in December 2009 has

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before it the challenge of bringing the Kyoto Protocol (1997-2012) up to date, ending the tourism exemption and fostering new environmental tools that will enable advancing firmly toward global climate justice based on the respect for and primacy of the needs of Earth's impoverished global South above Big Business's financial interests. Bringing to light the growing climate cost of tourism is important precisely because doing so lends support to proposals for global justice without catches, such as that of the international peoples' movement Vía Campesina for "food sovereignty" (Vía Campesina, 2009).

Therefore, in our opinion, there are five strategic guiding principles that will need to be clearly spelled out in the new climate protection agreement:

- A. **It must be global in nature and inclusive of all industrial sectors that make major contributions to GHG production.** It is an indisputable fact that tourism, the world's largest legal economy, has a major impact on the anthropogenic greenhouse effect, amounting to 5-14% of the global average, which will tend to increase sharply in the near future due to tourism's increasing dependence on air transport. In the case of Britain, for example, if it meets its GHG reduction targets for 2050, aviation could end up being responsible for one quarter of emissions (GreenAir, 2009). Therefore, **the new agreement must correct the error of Kyoto and explicitly include in a prime spot and in its regulatory section both tourism and international air and maritime traffic.** This is the only way to guarantee that the reduction targets will be able to be met in the medium term through the cooperation of all relevant economic sectors.

- B. **Concrete, relevant and regulatory targets must be proposed on the joint reduction of GHGs generated by tourism as well as by associated air and maritime transport.** The common ground should be to make viable the worldwide target of a 50-85% reduction in GHGs by 2050 with respect to 2000, which would enable—according to the IPCC—stabilizing the global mean temperature increase at 2.0-2.4°C above the preindustrial era. The year 2015 should be the peak year after which GHGs should begin drop significantly. The reduction will not be uniform; rather the industrial nations of the North will have to cut their emissions by 80-95% by 2050 (25-40% before 2020) (IPCC, 2008, p. 776 and pp. 39 and 90 in the Technical Summary).

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All together, **GHG emissions from the tourism sector should be reduced by 80-90% by 2050, with an interim target of -35/-45% by 2020.** This reduction target needs to be adjusted proportionally according to how much impact different sectors have, for the purpose of proportionally stimulating the environmental retrofitting of the different tourism subsectors (aviation, cruise ships and automobiles, as priorities, but in addition, conversion to solar power by hotel and residential facilities and services). Likewise, local or regional food and services supplies should be guaranteed, since the current widespread recourse of transnational tourism corporations to importing these things from the North makes no sense environmentally or socially, although it does make financial sense for the investors (transnational corporations). Furthermore, since the sector's business structure is overwhelmingly dominated by transnationals from industrialized countries, the vast majority of reductions should take place in the North. This proportional breakdown of reduction targets would help to generalize and speed up improvements in the efficiency of technology and of transportation management while it would pave the way for minimizing the use of materials and for the ecological modernization of existing facilities through renewable energy.

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- C. As a key element in building global democratic awareness, the **rights of all citizens to obtain accurate environmental information on climate change without borders, easily and directly (including online)** must be guaranteed, certifying the transparency of the data and of the progress reports with IPCC oversight and United Nations guidance. The data bank on GHGs and climate change should contain comparison data by sector, including periodic progress reports, in which tourism and air traffic merit a highlighted special chapter because of their extraordinary implications for the future of our common climate.
- D. Notwithstanding general regulatory instruments on new (more restrictive) standards for allowable GHG emissions, **environmental taxation should also be implemented for tourism**, especially that linked to transcontinental flights, cruises, private cross-border transportation by highway and roads, and intercontinental transport of materials and merchandise by airplane and ship intended to provide goods and services for tourism and residential use. The new agreement should endorse new fiscal tools with a global scope, as follows:
- **Global ecotax on aviation fuel.** So far, only the United

States and the Netherlands have introduced taxes on fuel for domestic flights; fuel used for international aviation does not pay any type of pollution tax. In the case of the Netherlands, airline tickets for destinations within the European Union or up to 2,500 km are taxed €11.25, while all others pay €45 (Gössling et al., 2008, p. 879). ATTAC has calculated that a global ecotax of \$3.65 per ton of kerosene would produce revenues of \$74 billion per year (Cossart et al., 2009, p. 33). Much more ambitiously, the IPCC points out that an ecotax on carbon equivalent to \$20 per ton of kerosene would have the attractive side effect of reducing air traffic volume by 15-30%, either from shifts to other means of transportation or from the incentive to improve energy efficiency (UNWTO and UNEP, 2008, p. 157).

- **Worldwide charge for GHG emission rights.** Although it would basically serve the same objective (taxing the carbon produced by air transportation), the establishment of “emission rights” for GHGs in aviation could be an alternative form of dissuasive taxation on international air tourism that might be easier to enact than an ecotax on fuel. The primary reason is that “emission rights” are not yet regulated in any agreement on air traffic, while agreements on aviation fuel taxation have been in existence for some time and could be much more costly to remove (Daley & Preston, 2009).

One way or another, it is critical to ensure that the level of the levy is genuinely dissuasive, that is, aimed not at revenue collection but rather at encouraging a real and considerable decrease in the volume of international tourism via airplanes and private cars. This would be the only way to ensure the worth of such a tax in advancing toward climate security in such an important sector. If climate and social justice criteria are considered when action is taken, this reduction in the volume of international air tourism could even improve the wellbeing of many touristified societies in the North and the South. It could also be an inducement for shifting to tourism models that consider the environment and guarantee the social and democratic rights of local communities in the face of abuses by the transnationals in the sector (Buades, 2006 and 2009).

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The substantial overall revenues (some \$400 billion the first year), which will tend to decrease to the extent that the ecotax or “emission right” is successful, will need to be allocated toward financially supporting the development of more environmentally efficient means of transportation than aviation, cruise ships and private cars, and toward tourist hotels and residences around the world converting to solar power, giving priority to investing in countries of the South, which make a lower per capita contribution to anthropogenic GHG emissions.

To give an example, on a 1,000 km trip from southern to northern Sweden, the difference in carbon costs is drastic: if the trip is made by Swedish Railways, using renewable power, it will result in emissions of less than 10 grams of CO₂ per passenger; if made by plane, the same trip will result in emissions of over 150 kg of CO₂ into the atmosphere (UNWTO and UNEP, 2008, p. 168).

An ecotax or carbon emissions charge should contribute, then, to the development, especially in the South, of railway networks and alternatives for maritime and mass land transport that will enable significantly reducing the climate cost of international tourism. At the same time, it should also help societies affected by tourism industrialization convert to clean energy, thus greening their energy model based on renewable sources, such as solar, wind and thermal power and regulating, through legislation, that the entire hotel and residential stock, plus ancillary services, have to use these types of energy of the future exclusively.

- E. **A change in the priority of the global climate protection model in favor of the South**, which is where the majority of the human population lives and is the most sustainable in terms of GHG emissions per capita. The underlying idea is that the solution to a crucial problem on which the future of humanity depends should be tied to the idea of justice. The consumer industrialization model fostered by the North is clearly responsible for the origin of climate change and its continued worsening. Even emerging GHG-generating countries, such as China and India, can explain a good part of their growing emissions in terms of collateral effects from their short-term energy needs to supply markets in the North with cheap products. Therefore, the new agreement should recognize its “debt” to the South in the form of compensation for its having been

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unjustly dispossessed of its *commons* (Earth's climate, regional carbon sinks, or the production of biofuels on their land without local communities' involvement or co-decision-making) (Carbon Trade Watch, 2008). This climate justice would form the basis of an authentic "global security" policy that would prevent new conflicts over environmental refugees or over the commons, such as biodiversity, land or water (Climate Change and Displacement, 2008).

In this change in direction toward climate justice, we must rethink two fundamental elements:

- The **distribution of monetizable "pollution" rights** that serve as the basis of the carbon market: Instead of the vast majority of emissions entitlements being held by countries and corporations that have record GHGs per capita, these rights should, in all fairness, shift to being held for the most part by the countries that pollute the least. This would lead to a notable increase in the economic and democratic power of societies in the South and would suppose an immediate incentive for cooperation between the North and the South on much more egalitarian terms.
- The **need for a supranational public agency with the capacity to oversee fulfillment of the new agreement** that would fill the current vacuum in global responsibility. This would be a sort of *Climate Security and Justice Council*, without veto power; it would have plural representation, where the majority would be held by regions with lower GHG emissions per capita.

This new groundwork would pave the way to a change from the current agenda on mitigation and the adaptation of tourism to the greenhouse effect in favor of different beneficiaries, up until now abandoned by the bureaucratic and economic elites that have monopolized the road to Copenhagen:

- The regions of the South most immediately threatened by climate catastrophe (e.g. a good number of Indian and Pacific ocean archipelagos and islands), which should have absolute priority for preservation of their habitat or, if need be, for finding a new home for the community should it disappear.

The underlying idea is that the solution to a crucial problem on which the future of humanity depends should be tied to the idea of justice. The consumer industrialization model fostered by the North is clearly responsible for the origin of climate change and its continued worsening.

- Communities of the South that are opting for environmentally-sustainable ways of life at the service of local community wellbeing, **whether or not** they involve tourism, such as those proposed by *Vía Campesina*: Especially in the case where these communities choose to promote vacation developments based on zero carbon impact, they should receive financial and technical support through funds from the aforementioned ecological taxation tools for making transportation, the energy system, materials and services fully environmentally-friendly, as well as for starting up community tourism projects. In any event, the tourism offered by the transnationals in the sector has to be linked at all its destinations to the reduction targets in the new agreement and must be subject to oversight by the public and by local and regional environmental authorities.

Translation by Susan C. Greenblatt.

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ALBA SUD is a Catalan organization specialised in research and communication for development. Headquartered in Barcelona, the organization has an ongoing presence in Nicaragua, El Salvador and Mexico, and has made Central America and the Caribbean its priority regions of focus. The organization is primarily devoted to audiovisual production and research within several issue-based action areas: Responsible Tourism; Food Sovereignty; Natural Recourses and Territory; Communication for Development, and Education for Development.