



Climate Change Norm Localization in Davao City

Author: **Ralm Kwen V. Orbeso, Planning Officer, Office of Civil Defense XI**
Co-Author: **Aristeo C. Salapa, Professor, University of Southeastern Philippines**

Abstract

This thesis paper is a discourse analysis on the norms of the climate change regime and their localization in Davao City. Using Amitav's Acharya's (2009) brand of norm localization, the researcher will specifically look into the role and agency of local actors in climate change norm localization. Furthermore, the study seeks to shed light on the contribution of these agents to the multiple climate-related ordinances in the city. Majority of the studies on climate change and International Relations have been centered largely on states, transnational actors, and international organizations. As a result, the researcher will take a different approach that emphasizes the efficacy of the external norms and the role of local actors.

Keywords: regime, norm localization, local actors



Introduction

Background of the Study

Climate change has emerged as a defining challenge of our times. It is truly global in dimension and is not amenable to national or regional solutions (Saran, 2009, p. 457). Rapidly rising temperatures caused by large emissions of greenhouse gasses (GHGs) have contributed to the occurrence of extreme climate-related events such as rising sea levels, droughts, floods, typhoons, and heat waves, thus adding to the increasing array of global ecological problems.

The foundational period of the climate change regime originally took place in the international scientific community as an understanding of the problem of greenhouse gasses greatly improved (Bodansky, n.d., p. 24). In the year 1988, the issue of global climate change occupied a spot in the security agenda of states, thus becoming an “intergovernmental issue” (Bodansky, n.d., p. 28). Since 1992, the climate governance architecture has greatly evolved under the UNFCCC and the Kyoto Protocol (Aldy & Stavins, 2007, p. 1). Subsequently, the UNFCCC has provided an avenue for negotiations among states concerning the establishment of multilateral agreements aimed at either mitigating climate change or adapting to its effects. Unfortunately, states have failed time and time again to adopt a legally binding multilateral treaty that would effectively pressure states to reduce carbon emissions.

Among others, two well-known disappointments in global environmental governance are the Kyoto Protocol and its successor, the Copenhagen Accord (O'Neill, 2017; Fagbohun, 2016; Aldy & Stavins, 2007). The Kyoto Protocol operationalizes the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change by committing industrialized countries and economies in transition to limit and reduce greenhouse gases (GHG) emissions in accordance with agreed individual targets (Würth). It only asks those countries to adopt policies and measures on mitigation and to report periodically. The Copenhagen Accord of

2009 sought to become the successor of the Kyoto Protocol aiming to finance a low-carbon development and adaptation, and further develop a global carbon market which would have legal force to compel emissions reductions (Carlin, 2022). However, many developed countries refused to adopt the restrictive targets on limiting emissions by 2020 and developing countries insists on their right to develop their economies which eventually led to the failure of the agreement (Carlin, 2022).

These failures in addressing climate change stem from the complexity of the issue of global warming and the unwillingness of states to take responsibility for global commons such as the climate. In simpler terms, this is what social scientists across various disciplines call the “tragedy of the commons.” However, despite the lack of an effective multilateral legal mechanism to control carbon emissions and address climate change, norm practices and understandings have developed into what scholars now call as the global climate change regime, “the world's principal response to the problem of global warming” (Brunner, 2001, p. 1).

One notable example of a state wherein the environmentalist movement is greatly flourishing is the Philippines. Despite being a developing country that must prioritize economic growth and industrialization, the Philippines has adopted various international climate change-related agreements. In 1991, the Philippines adopted the Agenda 21 of the Rio Declaration on Environment and Development, which served as “the nation’s blueprint for sustainable development” (Philippine Commission on Women, n.d.). In June 1992, the Philippines became a signatory to the UNFCCC, which the Senate ratified in August 1994. In addition, the Philippines ratified the Kyoto Protocol on November 2003 including the Protocol’s Doha Amendment. Last April 2017 the Philippines signed the Paris Agreement, a multilateral treaty that aims to keep global temperatures below 2°C above pre-industrial levels. Other indications of the Philippine’s flourishing environmentalist movement are its established laws. For instance, the country has enacted the Philippine Clean Air Act of 1999

(R.A. 8749), the Ecological Solid Waste Management Act of 2000 (R.A. 9003), the Philippine Clean Water Act of 2004 (R.A. 9275) and the Climate Change Act of 2009 (R.A. 9729).

However, despite the global nature of climate change, there is still a need to look into its implications to the city level. Davao City has also been active in the formulation and implementation of several environmental city ordinances and other government policies related to climate change. Local actors such as environmental non-governmental organizations (NGOs), government organizations, private stakeholders, and their interactions have contributed to green ordinances such as the Organic Agriculture Ordinance of 2009, the Rainwater Ordinance of 2009, the Ecological Solid Waste Management Ordinance of 2010, the Organic Agriculture Ordinance of 2010 and the Bicycle Ordinance of 2010. These ordinances more importantly represent one of the many manifestations and institutional changes brought about by Davao City's local actors' localization of the norms of the climate change regime.

Nevertheless, there is still little understanding on how external influences such as the international climate change institutions and norms were involved in bringing about these concrete or institutional manifestations. This is problematic considering that climate change norms never came from the domestic but were a result of the interactions in the global community of state and non-state actors.

City-level actors such as those in Davao City have been marginalized from the discourse on the environment and International Relations (IR). This is because the said discourse has been centered largely on states, transnational actors, and international organizations. Little to no studies on city-level actors such as those present in Davao have been conducted. Furthermore, majority of the studies on these local groups have been conducted predominantly from the standpoint of policy-making studies. Therefore, this study sheds light on how Davao City's local actors have localized the climate change regime as seen in the mentioned institutional manifestations.

Statement of the Problem

This study seeks to understand the climate change regime norm localization in Davao City through the agency of local actors. The study aims to answer the following questions:

1. Who are the specific actors involved in climate change norm localization?
2. What are the initiatives of city-level actors in localizing the climate change regime in Davao City?
3. How did the process of localization occur in Davao City?

Methodology

This chapter includes the design and paradigm of the research, unit of analysis, data collection procedure, data analysis strategies, and ethical considerations.

Research Design and Paradigm

The study utilized a qualitative descriptive methodology in the form of a case study. The paradigm utilized is under that of constructivism. Therefore, in accordance with constructivism, the researchers highlighted the role of human agency and the efficacy of norms. Furthermore, the study merely described and analyzed the effect that these local groups in Davao have on the municipal level and local environmentalism on climate change.

Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis was centered on the climate change regime norm localization in Davao City. To understand this process of localization, the researcher focused on selected local actors that are based in Davao City. The researcher categorized these local actors into the following: government institutions such as local and national offices stationed in Davao city, environmental groups, educational institutions, and civil society organizations (CSOs). The researchers identified suitable local actors based on a particular set of criteria. **Table 1**

presents a table on the identified categories of local actors and the criteria through which the researchers selected the local actors.

Table 1: Criteria for Selecting Local Actors in Davao City

Category	Criteria
<p>Government Institutions</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Responsibilities should include the mitigation of climate change and/or adaptation to its effects (coastal zone management, water resources, food security, solid waste management, disaster risk reduction, etc.); 2. National office, should have a branch in Davao City 3. Should have connections to, or at least informed by, institutions that are under the international climate change regime (e.g. UNFCCC); <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Directly connected to climate change regime <ol style="list-style-type: none"> i. Funded by an international institution associated with the regime ii. Has direct interactions with personnel from international institutions associated with the regime b. Indirectly connected to the climate change regime <ol style="list-style-type: none"> i. Merely informed by climate change regime institutions ii. Operate in accordance with national laws that are off-shoots of the Philippines' international environmental commitments

	<p>4. Should be active in conducting awareness programs and seminars for educating the public on the preparation of natural disasters related to climate change</p>
<p>Educational Institutions</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Should have concrete environmental programs that relate to climate change mitigation/adaptation; 2. Their vision-mission statement should include environmental protection; 3. Should have connections to, or at least informed by, institutions that are under the international climate change regime (e.g. UNFCCC); <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Directly connected to climate change regime <ol style="list-style-type: none"> i. Funded by an international institution associated with the regime ii. Has direct interactions with personnel from international institutions associated with the regime b. Indirectly connected to the climate change regime <ol style="list-style-type: none"> i. Merely informed by climate change regime institutions ii. Operate in accordance with national laws that were off-shoots of the Philippines' international environmental commitments 4. Should have interactions with local actors that also advocate climate change mitigation/adaptation such as local environmental groups

<p>Local Environmental Groups</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2. Should be based in Davao City; 3. Should have connections to, or at least informed by, institutions that are under the international climate change regime (e.g. UNFCCC); <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Directly connected to climate change regime <ol style="list-style-type: none"> i. Funded by an international institution associated with the regime ii. Has direct interactions with personnel from international institutions associated with the regime b. Indirectly connected to the climate change regime <ol style="list-style-type: none"> i. Merely informed by climate change regime institutions ii. Operate in accordance with national laws that were off-shoots of the Philippines' international environmental commitments 4. Should be active in conducting awareness programs and seminars related to climate change; 5. Should have interactions with government institutions
<p>Civil Society Organizations (CSOs)</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Should be based in Davao City; 2. Civic or social movements that propagate a particular climate-related or environmental goal or objective; 3. Should have connections to, or at least informed by, institutions that are under the international climate change regime (e.g. UNFCCC); <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Directly connected to climate change regime

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. Funded by an international institution associated with the regime ii. Has direct interactions with personnel from international institutions associated with the regime <p>b. Indirectly connected to the climate change regime</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. Merely informed by climate change regime institutions ii. Operate in accordance with national laws that were off-shoots of the Philippines' international environmental commitments <p>4. Should be active in conducting awareness programs or lobbying for ordinances related to climate change;</p> <p>5. Should have interactions with local actors such as environmental groups</p>
--	---

Table 2 presents the criteria for documentary sources. Furthermore, the researcher also acquired these sources from the websites of institutions like environmental groups and government agencies, and international organizations. General criteria for such sources include the following: relevance of the topic, applicability, and credibility.

Table 2: Criteria for Documentary Sources

Category	Criteria
PRIMARY	
Government Documents and Official Records	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Official government documents on climate change mitigation/adaptation • Official minutes of meetings and activity reports on climate change legislation • Ordinances in Davao City on climate change adaptation and mitigation • Have official seals and dates issued by the city government
Archives, Newsletters, Websites and Other Organizational Documents of Local Actors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Documents such as official meetings' minutes, activity reports, and the like on climate change mitigation/adaptation • Policy prescriptions and studies on climate change adaptation/mitigation • Cover issues on sustainable development and strategic risk management • Websites should be official and legitimate

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Has credible information regarding the climate change mitigation and adaptation
News Articles	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Should cover events related to climate change regime localization • Covers the actors' contributions and their activities • Should be bias-free and from a credible news outlet (e.g., Official Gazette, Inquirer, PhilStar) • Focuses on climate change
SECONDARY	
Journal Articles and Studies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Should explain the localization process • Must be related to climate change • Authors must have technical expertise and knowledge on climate change

Data Collection Procedure

The researcher employed a step-by-step process in gathering the data. First, the researcher set an appointment with selected key informants from the mentioned categories of actors and when possible, gave them the guide questions ahead of time. Once the schedule of the interview was set, the researcher proceeded to conduct the interview and took note of the key informants' responses through the use of voice recorders and notepads. Before the researcher conducted the said interviews, the researcher had already asked permission from

the respondent to record the duration of the interview. For the gathering of data, sources included information such as official government records, ordinances, news articles, and publications of local environmental groups. Most of these sources were taken from the internet, particularly the official websites of the local actors.

Data Analysis Strategies

This study used a documentary analysis strategy in analyzing the data gathered from the primary sources such as public records, legal documents, and organizational papers. From the analyzed documents, the researcher specifically employed a thematic analysis where the data was coded into themes according to which research question they are able to answer. For the interviews with key informants, the researcher employed an interpretive analysis strategy. From all the data gathered from the documents and responses of the key informants, the researcher made conclusions and used them to answer the research questions. Additionally, the researcher analyzed the data according to the conceptual framework based on Acharya's concept of norm localization.

Ethical Considerations

The researcher informed key informants ahead of time. Furthermore, the manner of conducting the interviews was courteous and careful in handling the sensitive information of the key informants. The researcher also asked the respondents for their permission to record the interview since primary consideration must be given to the protection of their human rights and privacy. In addition to that, the researcher acknowledged the respondents in the study. This included asking permission from them and clarifying whether they would want such information to be disclosed in the paper. Lastly, the researcher informed key informants that there were no ill-content motives or any political agenda in conducting interviews with them.

Literature Review

Climate change is a complex issue that demands action from state and non-state actors alike. The existing literature on climate change and its relationship with International Relations largely revolve around the practices of states and non-state actors involved in the climate change regime. Essentially, the international climate change regime includes the practices of states and how they mitigate or adapt to the effects of global warming. Furthermore, non-state actors such as indigenous groups and cities are also capable of inspiring environmentalism particularly within localities and even in the international realm. The studies, however, provide little to no insight on the agency of city-level actors and how they localize international climate change norms.

Climate Change Regime

The global climate change regime has been extensively studied and analyzed. Majority of the studies done on the climate change regime have concluded that it is not an integrated regime, but a fragmented, decentralized network of smaller regimes (Keohane & Victor, 2011; Karlsson et al., 2012; Goulding, 2015). Keohane & Victor (2011) in particular describe it as a “regime complex,” which they define as a “varied array of narrowly-focused regulatory regimes” (Keohane & Victor, 2011, p. 7). Their analysis of the climate change regime, however, appears too state-centric (UNFCCC, climate clubs, bilateral agreements, etc.).

The climate change regime consists of the involvement of various institutions such as the UNFCCC and the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), the former being dedicated to the aspect of climate change governance while the latter focusing on the scientific aspect of climate change. It is an undeniable fact that despite the regime being characterized by fragmentation, it has largely been represented by the UNFCCC along with its principle of “common but differentiated responsibilities.” The UNFCCC also plays a role

in energy governance in its promotion of energy sources that emit low greenhouse gasses (Meyer, 2012, p. 391). Butler & Ghai (2001) study the growing involvement of NGOs in the Convention despite the dominance of states.

Furthermore, centered on the IPCC, “the international climate regime is at its strongest when it comes to understanding the threats posed by climate change” (International Institutions and Global Governance Program, 2013). Understanding that it is essential to identify the dominant actors in climate discussions in institutions of the climate change regime, Karlsson et al. (2012) studied the most recognized leaders in climate negotiations by participants of the UNFCCC and the perceptions of their followers. They found out that the top three leaders recognized by approximately half of the respondents are the European Union, the United States, and China, while other leaders mentioned by ten percent of the respondents were the BASIC and BRIC countries, the Alliance of Small Island States, India, and Brazil (Karlsson et al., 2012, p. 49).

There are contending views on the effectiveness of the climate change regime. While Keohane & Victor (2011) believe that such a regime complex will continue throughout the years due to its suitability to the current state of climate affairs, Esty (2009) in contrast, considers this fragmentation as a major problem. According to him, referring to the regime, “there has been little attempt to set consistent priorities, achieve a systematic division of labor, rationalize budgets, or pursue synergies across issues” (Esty, 2009, p. 472).

Practices in the Philippines

The Philippines has also made various efforts to adapt to and mitigate the effects of climate change and other related environmental issues. The Philippines was active and willing to assist certain private sectors that will help combat environmental issues (Transport and Traffic Planners Inc. & CPI Energy Phils., Inc., 2010, p. xi). To some extent, the Philippines already knew of the need to protect the environment even before the 1972 Stockholm Conference (Pintz & Havinga, 1989, p. 766). Additionally, they described the

Philippine government's environmental legislation as an umbrella type of legislation (Pintz & Havinga, 1989, p. 766). Moreover, Reyes (2014) mentioned the creation of the First Philippine Environmental Congress in 1979 that sought to coordinate with other environmental organizations that mostly tackled environmental issues (Reyes, 2014, p. 88).

Also, "the Government's commitment to environmental protection and natural resource management is expressed through a comprehensive legal and regulatory regime for the sector" (Asian Development Bank, 2008, p. xv). In addition, the National Integrated Protected Area System (NIPAS) laid down policies or strategies in order to protect biodiversity and the environment (Lasco et al., 2008, p. 2). Magno (1993, p. 8) indicated that environmental organizations should have a thorough evaluation and judgment upon looking into the environmental policies of the Philippines.

The Philippines gave an utmost importance to cooperating in the international arena in pursuing its national environmental interests (Reyes, 2014, p. 89). Leonen & Santiago (1993, p. 166) indicated that the creation of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations, or ASEAN, Free Trade Area (AFTA) also came with the concern of exploiting the environment's natural resources. Because of this, the ASEAN nations (including the Philippines) implemented the Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) to regulate the usage of natural resources. Furthermore, the Philippines adopted it in 1978 through its implementing agency, the Department of Environmental and Natural Resources (DENR) (Leonen & Santiago, 1993, pp. 170, 172).

Along with the other ASEAN states, the Philippines signed the ASEAN Declaration on Environmental Sustainability and the ASEAN Declaration on the 13th Session of the Conference of the Parties to the UNFCCC and the 3rd Session of the CMP to the Kyoto Protocol (Glover & Onn, 2008, p. 2). The ASEAN member-states addressed the environmental crisis that took over the Southeast Asian region and that included the Philippines' initiative to apply these policies to the national level (Glover & Onn, 2008, p. 3). Even more, Dacumos

(2015) studied the UN's Agenda 21 as the pattern of the Philippine Agenda 21 (PA21).

Furthermore, he says, "the national PA21 was even 'localized,' that is, indicators were disaggregated down to regional and provincial levels" (Dacumos, 2015, p. 2).

Role of Non-state and Subnational Actors

The actions of non-state and subnational actors are highly visible due to their contributions such as helping in the formulation of international agreements, conventions, and policies for the global climate change regime. They function as providers of information to governments; furthermore, their roles were highly emphasized among IR scholars and environmentalists. This goes to show that states are not the only actors in climate change governance. Abbott (2011) employed the concept of a "transnational regime complex," which includes transnational non-state actors such as subnational government units and private actors, to describe the climate change regime. This fragmentation also manifests itself in the involvement of other actors that are originally not meant for the purpose of combating climate change such as informal leader-level forums, sectorally-focused institutions, energy-related institutions, multilateral development banks, etc. (Michonski & Levi, 2010).

Betsill & Bulkeley (2006) discussed the Cities for Climate Protection (CCP), a synchronized network of cities to adopt policies and implement measures to achieve reductions in greenhouse gases and other enhancements for the deterrence of ozone depletion and changes in terrestrial and marine ecosystems. Sub-national actors such as city governments became instrumental for nation-states to follow their international commitments (Betsill and Bulkeley, 2006, p. 141).

Cities are also important in climate change governance. A "multipolar" approach in dealing with climate change is needed since an international-law-based approach is not enough (Osofsky, 2013). Furthermore, cities "influence the language in the climate change treaty negotiations, form their own transnational agreements, and use their local

governmental power to make commitments that often exceed those of their nation-states” (Osofsky, 2013, p. 74).

Other than sub-national actors, Duyck (2013) studied indigenous peoples in the Arctic region that have been legitimized in the Arctic Council (AC) to be “permanent participants” in the policy-making in the said region. Indigenous communities were part of the decision making and involvement in the promotion of environmental care as it is also embedded in their physical culture to nurture (Betzold and Fresken, 2014). Although these said groups have never been part of the involvement in politics, they have an intrinsic capacity to be that influential in decision-making and policy-formulation (Betzold and Fresken, 2014). The participation of both non-governmental actors and civil society has made an impact on the arena of global environmental governance particularly to address issues that nation-states cannot handle (Correl & Betsill, 2001). Essentially, these groups have functioned as sources of information and have influentially elevated their positions; furthermore, they can provide legitimate governance and effectively contribute to more substantive policies and institutions (Bernauer & Betzold, 2012).

Synthesis

From the review of related literature, the researcher has come up with three conclusions. First, majority of the studies concerning the climate change and its implications to global politics focus predominantly on states and their participation in inter-governmental organizations like the United Nations and the European Union. This confirms the persisting trend of nation-states dominating the climate change regime. Secondly, although there is now an increasing emphasis on non-state actors, these actors are apparently transnational in nature. Consequently, local actors such as city-level agencies and environmental groups are neglected in the discourse on climate change and International Relations. Lastly, literature on the Philippines’ environmental history and activities contains little insight and information on the environmental movement in Davao City and its connection to the climate

change regime. To summarize, the researcher has identified two gaps in the existing body of literature: the role of city-level actors and their localization of international climate change regime norms, and the place of Davao City in the climate change regime.

References

- Abbott, K. (2011). The transnational regime complex for climate change. *Environment and Planning C: Government and Policy* 2012, volume 30, 571 – 590. doi:10.1068/c11127
- Acharya, A. (2004). How Ideas Spread: Whose Norms Matter? Norm Localization and Institutional Change in Asian Regionalism. *International Organization*, 58(2), 239-275. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/3877858>
- Acharya, A. (2009). *Whose Ideas Matter? Agency and Power in Asian Regionalism*. Singapore: Cornell University Press.
- Aldy, J. E., & Stavins, R. N. (2007). *Architectures for Agreement: Addressing Global Climate Change in the Post-Kyoto World*. New York: Cambridge University Press. Retrieved from http://iklim.cob.gov.tr/iklim/Files/eKutuphane/aldy_-_architectures_of_agreement_0521692172.pdf
- Asian Development Bank. (2008). *Country Environmental Analysis*. Mandaluyong, Philippines: Asian Development Bank. Retrieved from <https://www.adb.org/documents/country-environmental-analysis-philippines>
- Bernauer, T. & Betzold, C. (2012). Civil Society in Global Environmental Governance. *The Journal of Environment and Development* 2012 21: 62. DOI: 10.1177/1070496511435551
- Grubb, M. (1995).
- Betsill, M. M., & Bulkeley, H. (2006). Cities and the multilevel governance of global climate change. *Global Governance: A Review of Multilateralism and International Organizations*, 12(2), 141-159.
- Betzold, C. & Fresken, A. (2014). Indigenous Peoples in International Environmental Negotiations: Evidence from Biodiversity and Climate Change. *International Climate Change Law and Policy*, 5: 64-83. Routledge Publishing Group. Oxon, New York. United States.

- Bodansky, D. (n.d.). History of the Global Climate Change Regime. Retrieved from <http://graduateinstitute.ch/files/live/sites/iheid/files/sites/admininst/shared/doc-professors/luterbacher%20chapter%202%20102.pdf>
- Brunner, R. (2001). Science and the Climate Change Regime. *Policy Sciences*, 34(1), 1-33. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/4532520>
- Butler, J. E., & Ghai, A. (2001). The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change: Implementation and compliance. In M. G. Schechter, *United Nations-sponsored World Conferences: Focus on Impact and Follow-up* (pp. 122-165). United States: United Nations University Press.
- Carlin, D. (2022, November 17). *Why Copenhagen Fell Apart And The Lessons It Offers For COP 27*. Retrieved from Forbes: <https://www.forbes.com/sites/davidcarlin/2022/11/17/why-copenhagen-fell-apart-and-the-lessons-it-offers-for-cop-27/?sh=23f819305476>
- Correl, E. & Betsill, M. M. (2001). A Comparative Look at NGO Influence in International Environmental Negotiations: Desertification and Climate Change. *Global Environmental Politics*, 84-107. DOI 10.1162/152638001317146381 retrieved from: <https://www.mitpressjournals.org/doi/abs/10.1162/152638001317146381>
- Dacumos, R. J. (2015, August). Sustainable Development in the Philippines, 1-3. doi:10.13140/RG.2.1.4809.3922
- Duyck, S. (2013). Participation of Non-State Actors in Arctic Environmental Governance. *NGP Yearbook 2011*, 40:4 (2012) 99-110. Nordia Geographical Publications. Retrieved from SSRN: <https://ssrn.com/abstract=2331165>
- Esty, D. (2009). Revitalizing Global Environmental Governance for Climate Change. *Global Governance*, 15(4), 427-434. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/27800771>
- Glover, D., & Onn, L. (2008, April). The Environment, Climate Change and Natural Resources in Southeast Asia; Issues and Challenges. *ASEAN Economic Bulletin*, 25(1), 1-6. doi:10.1355/ae25-la
- International Institutions and Global Governance Program. (2013, June 19). The Global Climate Change Regime. Retrieved March 13, 2018, from <https://www.cfr.org/report/global-climate-change-regime>

- Karlsson, C., Hjerpe, M., Parker, C., & Linnér, B. (2012). The Legitimacy of Leadership in International Climate Change Negotiations. *Ambio*, 41, 46-55. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/41417388>
- Keohane, R. (1982). The Demand for International Regimes. *International Organization*, 36(2), 325-355. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/2706525>
- Keohane, R. O. (2015). Beyond the Tragedy of the Commons. In P. R. Viotti, & M. V. Kauppi, *International Relations Theory, Fifth Edition* (pp. 174-178). Pearson Education Limited.
- Keohane, R., & Victor, D. (2011). The Regime Complex for Climate Change. *Perspectives on Politics*, 9(1), 7-23. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/41622723>
- Lasco, R. D., Pulhin, F. B., Sanchez, P. J., Villamor, G. B., & Villegas, K. L. (2008, June). Climate Change and Forest Ecosystems in the Philippines: Vulnerability, Adaptation and Mitigation. *Journal of Environmental Science and Management*, 11(1), 1-14. Retrieved from <https://journals.uplb.edu.ph/index.php/JESAM/article/view/20>
- Leonen, M. M., & Santiago, J. S. (1993, November). Disparities in EIA Systems of Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines and Thailand: Implications for the ASEAN Free Trade Area. *ASEAN Economic Bulletin*, 10(2), 166-175. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/25770478>
- Magno, F. A. (1993). The Growth of Philippine Environmentalism, 9(1), 7-18. Retrieved from <http://www.journals.upd.edu.ph/index.php/kasarinlan/article/view/928/927>
- Meyer, T. (2012). The Architecture of International Energy Governance. *Proceedings of the Annual Meeting (American Society of International Law)*, 106, 389-394. doi:10.5305/procannmeetasil.106.0389
- Michonski, K. & Levi, M. (2010). Harnessing International Institutions to Address Climate Change. Council on Foreign Relations. Retrieved from http://www.environmentportal.in/files/IIGG_WorkingPaper_2_ClimateChange%5B1%5D.pdf
- O'Neill, K. (2017). Non-state Global Environmental Governance. *The Environment and International Relations*, 170-200. Cambridge University Press. United Kingdom.
- Osofsky, H. (2013). The Complexities of Multipolar Approaches to Climate Change: Lessons from Litigation and Local Action. *Proceedings of the Annual Meeting (American Society of International Law)*, 107, 73-75. doi:10.5305/procannmeetasil.107.0073

Pintz, P., & Havinga, I. C. (1989). Environmental Crisis and Environmental Policies in Asian Countries. *The Pakistan Development Review*, 27(4), 765-778. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/41239063>

Reyes, J. A. (2014, September). Environmental Attitudes and Behaviors in the Philippines. *Journal of Educational and Social Research*, 4(6), 87-102. doi:10.5901/jesr.2014.v4n6p87

Saran, S. (2009). Global Governance and Climate Change. *Global Governance*, 15(4), 457-460. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/27800775>

Transport and Traffic Planners (TTPI) Inc.; CPI Energy Phils., Inc. (2010, April). A Strategic Approach to Climate Change in the Philippines: An Assessment of Low-Carbon Interventions in the Transport and Power Sectors. Washington, DC: World Bank. Retrieved from <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/27900>

Würth, K. (n.d.). *What is the Kyoto Protocol?* Retrieved from United Nations Climate Change: https://unfccc.int/kyoto_protocol#:~:text=The%20Kyoto%20Protocol%2C%20like%20the,the%20impacts%20of%20climate%20change.

