

SMUN

2024



STUDY GUIDE

UNITED NATIONS
ENVIRONMENT PROGRAMME



AGENDA

The validity of the Paris Accords (Paris Agreement), in addressing Climate Reparations as a justice model to address environmental justice.



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LETTER FROM THE EXECUTIVE BOARD

Dear delegates,

We, your Executive Board for the United Nations Environment Programme at SMUN 2024 are thrilled to welcome you to our committee. The agenda for this conference is 'The Validity of the Paris Accords (Paris Agreement), in addressing Climate Reparations as a justice model to address environmental justice' and we are sure this agenda will be an extremely interesting one. Your Executive Board is amazing with first timers, extremely friendly and helpful. We assure you that you are in safe hands.

We will be providing you with a study guide on the agenda. However, we recommend doing your own research in addition to reviewing the study guide. For all first timers, the Executive Board will always be ready to help you out. We expect this conference to be a learning experience for all and at the same time have good debate, and reach a satisfactory conclusion to our agenda. We encourage everyone to speak during the conference and be prepared for anything.

Along with the study guide we also recommend reading and understanding the rules of procedure. Rules of procedure are essential to debate and ensure smooth proceedings. We expect all delegates to abide by them.

SMUN is one of the best conferences and we as the Executive Board are honoured to get this opportunity and we hope that you will not take this lightly. UNEP is a brilliant committee for experienced MUNners as well as aspiring ones. We hope to maintain your expectations for the conference and are excited to be your executive board. We can't wait to meet all the delegates during the conference.

Your executive board,
Anshul Rao - Head Chairperson
Naisha Chhabria - Vice Chairperson
Aanishka Thacker - Moderator



INTRODUCTION TO THE COMMITTEE

The United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) is a pivotal institution within the United Nations system, established in 1972 during the Stockholm Conference on the Human Environment. It serves as the leading global authority on environmental issues, operating under the auspices of the United Nations General Assembly and guided by the United Nations Environment Assembly (UNEA).

At its core, UNEP is tasked with coordinating international efforts to address pressing environmental challenges, including climate change, biodiversity loss, pollution, and unsustainable resource consumption. Its mission is to provide leadership and encourage partnership in caring for the environment by inspiring, informing, and enabling nations and peoples to improve their quality of life without compromising that of future generations.

While UNEP's actions and recommendations are non-binding, its influence stems from its status as a trusted source of scientific expertise and policy guidance. The organisation plays a crucial role in shaping global environmental agendas, advocating for stronger environmental governance, and mobilising resources to support sustainable development efforts.

In the 21st century, UNEP's significance has grown exponentially as the world grapples with increasingly complex environmental challenges. The organisation's work is vital for achieving the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) set forth by the international community, particularly those related to environmental sustainability and climate action.



INTRODUCTION TO THE COMMITTEE

UNEP's efforts are not confined to governmental action alone; it actively engages with civil society, businesses, academia, and other stakeholders to foster collective action and promote innovative solutions to environmental problems. By fostering collaboration and catalysing change at all levels, UNEP strives to create a more resilient, equitable, and sustainable world for present and future generations.

Moreover, in the context of growing recognition of historical injustices and the disproportionate impacts of environmental degradation on vulnerable communities, UNEP's role extends to advocating for climate reparations. This involves acknowledging and addressing the historical responsibility of developed countries for greenhouse gas emissions and supporting vulnerable nations and communities in adapting to and mitigating the effects of climate change. By promoting equitable approaches to climate action and fostering international solidarity, UNEP contributes to the broader agenda of environmental justice and sustainability.

Through its multifaceted efforts, UNEP remains at the forefront of global initiatives aimed at safeguarding our planet and ensuring a more inclusive and sustainable future for all.



INTRODUCTION TO THE AGENDA

The idea of the UNEP and the demand for Climate Reparations have become essential elements in the global conversation on mitigating climate change in the face of unparalleled environmental difficulties. The understanding of historical disparities in environmental responsibility and the fact that different countries have contributed to the climate issue to varying degrees sits at the core of this discussion.

The UNEP challenges the traditional narrative of collective responsibility, which helps in emphasising the stark disparities in the contributions to greenhouse gas emissions. This raises ethical questions about the shared burden of addressing climate change and prompts an instant reevaluation of the principles that should guide international climate action.

Climate Reparations, embodies the idea that those who emit higher levels of greenhouse gases bear a societal and international obligation to provide compensation and support for the adaptation and mitigation efforts of less developed nations. This concept emphasises not merely financial contributions but a fundamental reorientation of global climate policies to rectify historical injustices.



KEY TERMS

A. Climate Reparations: Climate reparations refer to a call for money to be paid by developed countries to developing countries as a means of addressing the historical contributions that the developed countries have made (and continue to make) toward climate change.

B. Environmental Justice: Environmental Justice refers to securing our right to a clean, healthy and sustainable environment.

C. Loss and Damage Fund: A loss and damage fund is a global financial package to ensure the rescue and rehabilitation of countries facing the cascading effects of climate change. It refers to the “irreversible costs” of climate breakdown, both economic and cultural. Estimates suggest that this quantifies to about \$400 billion, and is expected to rise in the coming years.

D. Climate Adaptation: Climate adaptation measures include protecting communities from sea level rise by helping them move to higher ground, preparing for extreme weather disasters by investing in early warning systems, protecting food supplies, switching to drought-resistant crops, etc.

E. Climate Finance: Climate finance refers to local, national or transnational financing—drawn from public, private and alternative sources of financing—that seeks to support mitigation and adaptation actions that will address climate change.

F. Reparative Justice: Reparative justice measures seek to repair, in some way, the harm done to victims as a result of human rights violations committed against them. This means that by their very nature, such measures must be responsive to both the context in question and the lived reality of victims.



KEY TERMS

G. Adaptation Fund: The Adaptation Fund finances projects and programmes that help vulnerable communities in developing countries adapt to climate change. Initiatives are based on country needs, views and priorities.

H. Common But Differentiated Responsibilities (CBDR) Principle: It is a principle within the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) that acknowledges the different capabilities and differing responsibilities of individual countries.



TIMELINE

1979: Climate change was recognized as a serious problem by the First World Climate Conference in 1979. This scientific gathering explored how climate change might affect human activities. It issued a declaration calling on the world's governments "to foresee and prevent potential man-made changes in climate that might be adverse to the well-being of humanity"

1989: Malé Declaration on Global Warming and Sea Level Rise is one of the first calls for global action on climate change and witnessed by delegates from 14 island states. It famously calls for "all states of the world family of nations to...consider ways and means of protecting the small states of the world which are most vulnerable to sea level rise".

1990: Sponsored by WMO (World Meteorological Organization), UNEP and other international organisations, this key conference featured negotiations and ministerial-level discussions among 137 states plus the European Community. The final declaration, adopted after hard bargaining, did not specify any international targets for reducing emissions.

1992: UN Framework Convention on Climate Change

1997: The Kyoto Protocol is adopted at COP3. It is the first time binding greenhouse gas emission targets are set for nations.

2001: Adaptation Fund (AF) is set up as a part of the Marrakesh Accords. Financed partly by governments and partly by private donors, it seeks to finance concrete programmes to help vulnerable nations adapt to climate change.

2005: At COP11, the LDCs (Least Developed Countries) call for compensation for the damages incurred from climate change.

2007: COP13 marks the first time the term "loss and damage" appears on an officially negotiated text. The Bali Action Plan established adaptation as a separate pillar of negotiations, distinct from mitigation.



TIMELINE

2009: The African Group of Negotiators for Climate Change, along with developing countries like India, Brazil, Costa Rica, Panama and Bangladesh submit texts concerning loss and damage, specifically calling for “international mechanism to address the unavoidable loss and damage” caused by climate change.

2012: Formation of Like Minded-Group of Developing Countries (LMDC), a block negotiator at the UN, with an emphasis on climate compensation. At COP18, the ‘Doha Decision’ marks the first time loss and damage is formally recognized as a fundamental part of the Convention.

2013: Establishment of the Warsaw International Mechanism on Loss and Damage (WIM) at COP19, that “requests” developed countries to provide financial assistance.

2015: At COP21, the Paris Agreement acknowledges loss and damage as “the third pillar” of climate action, along with adaptation and emission reduction. Notably, the Agreement holds that there exists no legal basis for ‘any liability or compensation’.

2021: At COP26, Scotland announces the world’s first loss and damage fund, pledging \$1.4 million to assist victims of climate change in vulnerable nations. The response was divided - some called it merely performative, whereas others praised it for breaking the taboo on climate compensation.

2023: COP28 at Dubai approves a roadmap to transition away from fossil fuels in a “just, orderly and equitable manner”. The negotiators also pledged almost \$800 million towards a Loss and Damage Fund to be overseen temporarily by the World Bank. Despite being hailed as the ‘beginning of the end of the fossil fuel era’, the AOSIS claims it leaves a number of loopholes for countries to exploit. Further criticism was targeted towards Sultan Al Jaber - the president-designate of the talks - who also heads the Abu Dhabi National Oil Company.



HISTORY : THE PARIS AGREEMENT

On December 12, 2015, during the UN Climate Change Conference (COP21) in Paris, France, the Paris Agreement - a legally binding international agreement to counter climate change - was adopted by 196 Parties.

It became operative on November 4, 2016. Its main objective is to

1. "limit the temperature increase to 1.5°C above pre-industrial levels" and,
2. to "hold the increase in the global average temperature to well below 2°C above pre-industrial levels."

Like the Doha Amendment and the Kyoto Protocol, the Paris Agreement is governed by the UNFCCC. The Conference of Parties (COP), which serves as the convention's highest body and usually convenes once a year, was formed under Article 7 of the UNFCCC. The UN Climate Change Conferences are the yearly gatherings when the state parties negotiate and make decisions.

The Ad Hoc Working Group on the Durban Platform for Enhanced Action, or the "Durban Platform," was established by the Parties to the UNFCCC in Durban, South Africa, during the COP17 conference. This marked the beginning of negotiations for the Paris Agreement, wherein the parties agreed to create a working group in order to negotiate "another legal instrument or an agreed outcome with legal force" by 2015 at COP21 (the Paris Conference), and for it to take effect and be implemented by 2020.

RESOLUTIONS UNDER THE PARIS AGREEMENT:

The Paris Agreement made several resolutions aimed towards improving the environment and general well being of the people of the world. These are the most important resolutions in the COP 21, in their original form, as put in this [document](#).



HISTORY : THE PARIS AGREEMENT

1. This Agreement aimed at enhancing the movements in the convention, including its objective, aims to improve the global response to the threat of climate change, in the context of sustainable development and efforts to eradicate poverty, poverty, including by:

- Halting the increase in the global average temperature to well below 2 °C above pre-industrial levels and pursuing efforts to limit the temperature increase to 1.5 °C above pre-industrial levels
- Increasing the ability to adapt to the adverse impacts of climate change and improve resilience against the effects of climate change and lower greenhouse gas emissions development, in a manner that does not threaten food production; and
- Allowing profitable solutions to climate change which allow both the earth and the economy to thrive.

2. In order to achieve the long-term temperature goal set out in Article 2, all nations must aim to stop emissions of greenhouse gas as soon as possible, recognizing that this will take longer for developing countries, and to undertake rapid reductions thereafter in accordance with best available science, so as to achieve a balance between anthropogenic emissions by sources and removals by sinks of greenhouse gases in the second half of this century, on the basis of equity, and in the context of sustainable development and efforts to eradicate poverty.

3. The case for climate reparations:

Reparations generally mean “payment for harm, loss, or damage that has been caused” and are used in the context of slavery or colonialism. In 2000, for instance, the economist Robert Browne estimated that Black Americans were owed between \$1.4 trillion and \$4.7 trillion for the stolen labor, dispossession, and mental torture suffered by their enslaved ancestors.



HISTORY : THE PARIS AGREEMENT

Reparative schemes are either justified on the basis of backward-looking reasons—remediation for past injustices rather or forward-looking reasons—increasing utility, deterring future wrongdoing, or promoting distributive justice.

By 2050, the economic cost of climate change in developing nations is estimated to be between \$1–1.8 trillion. Pakistan – which emits less than 1% of the global emissions – has estimated the total losses from its recent floods and the subsequent economic and humanitarian crisis to be as high as \$40 billion. In response, Denmark became the first country in September 2022 to offer specific loss-and-damage funding of \$13.1 million.

Some argue that climate justice is inexplicably tied to racial injustice. The Industrial Revolution that exploited the politico-economic possibilities of the Transatlantic Slave Trade and colonialism also led to the energy transformations that caused a massive rise in emissions. In the modern-day context, research suggests that advancing land reclamation for Native Americans could also ameliorate climate impacts since Indigenous people conserve about 21% of the world's land, protect 80% of its biodiversity, thus reducing substantial percentage of carbon emissions.

4. Loss & Damage Fund

The establishment of a Loss and Damage Fund at COP 27 was seen by many as the culmination of decades of pressure from climate-vulnerable developing countries and the start of a new beginning for proponents of climate justice.

The topic is vital for the notion of climate equity since some of the world's most climate-vulnerable countries are often the lowest emitters of greenhouse gases with limited resources to pay for the loss and damage endured by them – the cause of which can be traced down to the actions of a few wealthy, industrialised nations.



HISTORY : THE PARIS AGREEMENT

It is different from climate adaptation funds because loss and damage refers to a situation in which communities can no longer adapt to climatic impacts or prepare for it since the damage has already been done.

The concept of climate reparations falls into two chief categories:

1. Economic loss and damage i.e. negative impacts where the costs are clearly quantifiable, such as damage to critical infrastructure, reduced crop yields, supply chain disruptions – goods and services traded in the market. For example, in Bangladesh salt farming is a major source of employment. In recent years, frequent cyclones and heavy rainfall have hampered salt production forcing the country to import salt to manage the market shortfall.
2. Non-economic loss and damage i.e. negative impacts that are not easily measurable in monetary terms, such as loss of culture and way of life, usually by displacement. These tend to be irreversible, hence accommodating for them is often a point of contention. For example, the loss of sea ice in the Arctic has had a detrimental impact on the cultural identity and hunting practices of Inuit communities.

A 2023 analysis found that between 2000 and 2019, the world suffered at least \$2.8 trillion in loss and damage from climate change – costing around \$16 million per hour. The 2022 Adaptation Gap Report shows that international adaptation finance flows to developing countries are five to ten times below estimated needs, and will need over US\$300 billion per year by 2030. To date, total commitments have already amounted to \$661 million and more voluntary financial commitments from individual countries, the private sector, and philanthropic organisations are expected.

Some traditional financing instruments such as social protection, contingency finance, catastrophe risk insurance, and catastrophe bonds can provide a certain buffer and rapid pay-outs after disasters.



HISTORY : THE PARIS AGREEMENT

However, more innovative finance tools would be needed to respond to the long-term effects of climate change. For example, UN Secretary-General António Guterres has called for using windfall taxes on fossil fuel companies to divert the money to people struggling with rising food and energy prices.

Critics of the fund claim that the maths doesn't quite add up. The money pledged by developed nations is far too low to account for the trillions of dollars of damage caused. The European Union has pledged \$246 million, the United Arab Emirates \$100m and the United Kingdom \$40m. The United States has said it will contribute \$17.5m, while Japan said it will set aside \$10m towards the fund – two pledges that have been particularly criticised as too small in comparison with the two countries' contributions to the climate crisis.

Past records show that such commitments are not strictly fulfilled by the international order; the combined adaptation and mitigation finance flows in 2020 fell \$17 billion short of the US\$100 billion pledged to nations in the climate crisis.

For a long time, developed nations have fought against any legal liability they might be forced to encounter through L&D funds. This concern was addressed in the final decision at COP28, which states that “funding arrangements, including a fund, for responding to loss and damage are based on cooperation and facilitation and do not involve liability or compensation.” Climate-vulnerable nations thus claim that ‘loss and damage funds’ are a euphemism for what actually is ‘liability and compensation’ for historical environmental wrongs.

Further, the fund is to be managed temporarily by the World Bank whose traditional model has always been to provide more loans rather than grants. An expert has said, “The fund has to be given on the basis of climate justice, on the basis of vulnerability, not on the basis of growth and the development agenda.”



THE UN FRAMEWORK CONVENTION ON CLIMATE CHANGE

The UNFCCC entered into force on 21 March 1994 and today has near-universal membership with 198 Parties to the Convention. The ultimate objective of the Convention is to stabilise greenhouse gas concentrations “at a level that would prevent dangerous anthropogenic (human induced) interference with the climate system”.

Considered to be the source of most past and current greenhouse gas emissions, industrialised countries are expected to do the most to cut emissions. They are called Annex I countries and belong to the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). They include 12 countries with "economies in transition" from Central and Eastern Europe. Annex I countries were expected by the year 2000 to reduce emissions to 1990 levels.

The Convention acknowledged the vulnerability of all countries to the effects of climate change and called for special efforts to ease the consequences, especially in developing countries which lack sufficient resources.

The following actions were highlighted in the Convention:

- Industrialised countries (Annex I) have to report regularly on their climate change policies and measures, including issues governed by the Kyoto Protocol (for countries which have ratified it).
- They must also submit an annual inventory of their greenhouse gas emissions, including data for their base year (1990) and all the years since.
- Developing countries (Non-Annex I Parties) report in more general terms on their actions both to address climate change and to adapt to its impacts - but less regularly than Annex I Parties do, and their reporting is contingent on their getting funding for the preparation of the reports, particularly in the case of the Least Developed Countries.



THE COP 28 AGREEMENT

Negotiators from nearly 200 Parties came together in Dubai with a decision on the world's first 'global stocktake' to ratchet up climate action before the end of the decade – with the overarching aim to keep the global temperature limit of 1.5°C within reach in a move termed “the beginning of the end” of the fossil fuel era.

The global stocktake is considered the central outcome of COP28 since it contains every element that was under negotiation and can now be used by countries to develop stronger climate action plans due by 2025.

Firstly, it recognizes the science that indicates global greenhouse gas emissions need to be cut 43% by 2030, compared to 2019 levels, to limit global warming to 1.5°C and rightly it notes that Parties are off track when it comes to meeting their Paris Agreement goals.

Secondly, it calls on Parties to take action towards achieving a tripling of renewable energy capacity and doubling energy efficiency improvements by 2030. The list also includes accelerating efforts towards the phase-down of unabated coal power, phasing out inefficient fossil fuel subsidies, and other measures that drive the transition away from fossil fuels in energy systems, in a just, orderly and equitable manner, with developed countries continuing to take the lead.

The Green Climate Fund (GCF) received a boost to its second replenishment with six countries pledging new funding at COP28 with total pledges now standing at a record \$12.8 billion from 31 countries, with further contributions expected. New pledges, totaling nearly \$188 million, were made to the Adaptation Fund at COP28.

However as highlighted in the global stocktake, these financial pledges are far short of the trillions eventually needed to support developing countries with clean energy transitions, implementing their national climate plans and adaptation efforts.



POSITIONS OF KEY STAKEHOLDERS

1. U.S.A:

The U.S. was committed to the Paris Agreement since 2015, under the leadership of President Obama. However, under President Trump, it withdrew from the agreement on 4th Nov, 2020. Eventually, it saw re-entry into the agreement under Joe Biden and Kamala Harris.

According to the U.S, the new Loss and Damage fund should target only the most vulnerable countries and focus on areas not already covered by development banks or emergency relief funds.

The US, which has historically been the world's worst greenhouse gas emitter and the largest producer of oil and gas this year – far pledged just \$17.5m towards the loss and damage fund at COP 28. According to experts, this “signals a persistent indifference to the plight of the developing world.” Sue Biniaz, deputy special envoy for climate at the State Department has stated she “violently opposes” arguments by some countries and environmental groups that developed countries have a legal obligation to pay into the fund, citing the Paris Agreement. The U.S. and other developed nations have pushed for the inclusion of a footnote to exclude the idea of any legal liability for historic emitters.

2. U.K:

Although the UK was the President of the COP26 climate summit, it failed to do its fair share of action, instead expanding its fossil fuel use, refusing to meet its climate finance targets, and continuing to promote environmentally harmful trade deals. At COP 27, the UK committed £5 million to the Santiago Network, which provides technical support for developing countries to respond to climate change.

The UK's climate debt is estimated to be more than £1 trillion—calculated from its share of all-time carbon emissions and quantifying both the benefit a country has reaped and the damage it has sown.



POSITIONS OF KEY STAKEHOLDERS

UK-based fossil fuel giants such as Shell and BP rake in huge profits while extracting oil and gas from countries around the world – but pay little to nothing in tax. Shell made over £26 billion in a year — yet paid £0 in new windfall taxes. The UK’s £60m (\$75m) pledge at COP 28 was “neither new nor additional”, campaigners have pointed out as it was taken from an existing and recently downgraded climate finance pledge.

3. The E.U. :

The EU and all its member states have signed and ratified the Paris Agreement and are strongly committed to its implementation. In line with this commitment, EU countries have agreed to set the EU on course to becoming the first climate-neutral economy and society by 2050. The EU’s position on loss and damage has evolved in recent years, from a point at which it resisted even discussing the issue for fear of legal liability for historic emissions.

The EU and its member states remain firmly committed to delivering the \$100 billion goal set by the Paris Agreement and to double adaptation finance. A 2023 UNEP report found that certain E.U. states such as Germany planned to produce about 110% more fossil fuels in 2030 than is needed to limit warming to 1.5 degrees celsius. At COP28, the EU and its member states pledged over half of the initial funding for the loss and damage fund (over €400 million). As a whole, the EU and its countries remain the largest provider of climate finance globally.

4. Small Developing Island States (SDIS):

These nations are currently under crossfire of multiple crises, the chief amongst which is climate change. SDIS representatives are, however, clear-eyed about the potential of the Paris Agreement and understand that it is but a foothold in a much, much steeper journey.



POSITIONS OF KEY STAKEHOLDERS

Since 1991, the Alliance of Small Island States (AOSIS) and developing countries (as defined by the UN Climate Framework), have been seeking funds for “loss and damage” as a third pillar of climate finance. At COP 28 negotiations, the chair of the AOSIS, Diann Black-Layne of Antigua and Barbuda, noted that the World Bank is a lending institution, while dealing with loss and damage in debt-strapped nations like hers requires grant funding. She further criticised the bank for being slow, inefficient, and charging high fees to the funds it hosts.

5. China:

China overtook the US as the largest carbon dioxide (CO₂) emitter in 2006, yet it argues that the climate crisis was caused by developed countries emitting greenhouse gases from as early as the 1850s, when the industrial period began. Amid Western calls for China to increase its contribution to the loss and damage fund, it claims that it is still a developing country, as set out in the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change signed in 1992, and thus qualifies to receive the aid it is being asked to contribute to.

6. India:

According to India’s climate pledges, known as Nationally Determined Contributions (NDC), it has said it will reduce the emissions intensity of its GDP by 45% by 2030. This is a measure of the amount of greenhouse gas emitted per unit of economic activity – however, a fall in emissions intensity does not necessarily mean a reduction in overall emissions.

Its target date to reach net zero emissions remains 2070 – much later than the date set by many other countries and not in line with the Paris Agreement, which proposed 2050 as the target date for net zero. In November 2022, the Centre clarified that India was supportive of the creation of a loss and damage fund. However, it would not give any funds to such a facility but would rather claim them.



POSITIONS OF KEY STAKEHOLDERS

Similar to China, it claims that despite being a major world economy, it qualifies as a developing country under the 1992 U.N. Convention on Climate Change.

7. Russia:

According to Russian ministry sources, climate change could lower its GDP by 3 percent annually in the next decade and climate damage to buildings and infrastructure alone could cost the country up to \$99 billion by 2050. Putin has offered mixed messaging on global warming, acknowledging for the first time only in 2019 that global warming was a consequence of human activities, but just a month later casting doubt on the prospects of a global shift to renewable energy.

Legislation introduced in 2019 as part of Russia's ratification of the Paris Agreement would have instituted emissions quotas and carbon pricing, but lobbying efforts have resulted in weaker provisions on emissions reporting, the elimination of a national carbon trading system, and penalties for polluters. Although Russia has been largely absent from major climate negotiations, at COP28, its climate envoy stated "We are ready to announce that Russia is looking into the voluntary contribution of finance to the loss and damage fund from the frozen national gold reserves held by international organisations."

8. Pakistan:

According to the Germanwatch's Climate Risk Index, Pakistan is among the top ten most climate vulnerable countries in the world - despite contributing less than 1% to global GHG emissions. In 2023, Pakistan stated that it was supportive of the design of the fund that allows it to receive funding from innovative sources but wanted to ensure that the innovative finance should complement not replace the public grant-based finance by developed countries.



POSITIONS OF KEY STAKEHOLDERS

At COP 27 in Egypt, as the chair of the G77 and China group, it advocated for the establishment of a loss and damage fund. Pakistan's Climate Change Ministry lauded the operationalization of L&D funds at COP 28. The statement also noted that “these contributions fall short in addressing the immense challenges faced by climate-vulnerable nations”.



QUESTIONS A RESOLUTION MUST ANSWER

1. Should certain developing countries with massive GHG emissions contribute to a loss and damage fund (e.g. India and China)?
2. Should developed states have a legal obligation with respect to climate reparations?
3. How can states be held more accountable to hit climate targets on time?
4. How can we balance the interests of the economy and the health of the planet?
5. What finance channels should states employ to pay for a loss and damage fund?
6. What, if anything, do climate reparations and reparations accounting for racial discrimination and colonisation have in common? What does this bode for the Global North and South?
7. Is it better to 'phase down' usage of fossil fuels or completely eliminate their use, given the gravity of the environmental crisis?



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