

COP31

CO–Under Secretary General
Kadircan YILDIZ
Doğa ÇELENK



KCMUN



COP31

Study Guide

Agenda Item:

2026 Antalya Summit

Under-Secretary Generals:

Doğa Çelenk & Kadircañ Yıldız

KCMUN26

Table of Contents

1. Letter from the Secretary General
2. Letter from the Under-Secretary Generals
3. Glossary
4. Introduction to the Committee
5. Understanding the UN Climate Regime
6. Historical Evolution of Global Climate Governance
7. The Road to COP31
8. Key Climate Concepts
9. Stakeholders
10. Committee Structure and Negotiation Process
11. Agenda Introduction
12. Current Situation
13. Major Challenges
14. Previous International Efforts
15. Bloc Positions
16. Questions to Consider
17. Bibliography

1. Letter from the Secretary General

Firstly, it is with immense pride and enthusiasm that I extend my warmest welcomes to all participants of the Kırmızı Çizgi High Schools Model United Nations Conference 2026, taking place on July 20th-21st-22nd in Antalya.

I am Güney Deniz Ala, Secretary-General of this distinguished conference. It is both an honor and a privilege to lead this organization in this position. Model United Nations has always been far more than a simulation, it is a journey. Whether you're a more experienced delegate or a first-timer, with KCMUN'26 I promise unparalleled growth and inspiration.

Our Academic Team: Under-Secretary Generals, Academic Assistants, and Board Members, represent the finest minds in Antalya, each meticulously selected to deliver your committees of exceptional caliber. From beginner to advanced committees, every session has been crafted for the maximum impact. My deepest gratitude goes to my fellow executive team Can Kurnaz, Berkcan Şahin, Mert Sürücü, Erdem Demirci and Çağın Orkan Benzeş, whose unwavering support made this vision reality.

I extend special thanks to the KCMUN'26 participants, whose passion set the standard we strive to exceed.

As we gather, let us draw inspiration from the eternal words of Mustafa Kemal Atatürk, founder of modern Turkey: "Ey Türk gençliği! Birinci vazifen, Türk istiklâlini, Türk Cumhuriyeti'ni, ilelebet muhafaza ve müdafaa etmektir. Mevcudiyetinin ve istikbalinin yegâne temeli budur. Bu temel, senin en kıymetli hazinendir."

To delegates: embrace the challenge, defend your interests, and leave KCMUN'26 having elevated your voice on the world stage. I am eager to witness your brilliance. Sincerely,

Güney Deniz Ala
Secretary-General, KCMUN'26

2. Letter from the Under-Secretary Generals

Dear participants and academic team, we are Doğa Çelenk and Kadirca Yıldız, the Under-Secretary Generals responsible from COP31. We are from Antalya but we have been living in Ankara for the past years due to our university education. It has been many years since we have been a part of the MUN community. We will try our best for you to both learn and have fun in this committee.

In our committee, we have such an important topic that is affecting many people, even more than you would think. Thus, we are expecting every single member of the committee to express their thoughts on it. Position papers are in order but not mandatory. However, it will be taken into consideration when deciding the awards. For the official documents, only and only delegates are responsible for writing it. The academic team will give instructions and guidance but that will be the only contribution from them. Failing to provide at least one resolution paper by the end of the committee will also result in the committee's failure. One other thing that will lead to a failure is usage of artificial intelligence. Once the committee starts, usage of AI is strictly prohibited. You should not be scared though, we are pretty sure we will complete this committee with great success.

We wish to thank the Secretariat for the opportunity. We cannot wait to meet you all in person and start the committee. If you have any questions or wishes you can contact us via the email addresses below. See you soon!

Doğa Çelenk
Under-Secretary General of COP31
dogacelenk25@gmail.com

Kadirca Yıldız
Under-Secretary General of COP31
kadircanyildiz.business@gmail.com

3. Glossary

Adaptation

The process of adjusting natural or human systems to actual or expected climate change in order to reduce vulnerability, minimize damage, and increase resilience.

Adaptation Fund

An international financial mechanism established under the Kyoto Protocol to finance adaptation projects and programs in developing countries particularly vulnerable to climate change.

Agenda

The topic selected for debate during the committee. In this guide, the agenda focuses on strengthening the implementation of international climate commitments.

Article 6

A provision of the Paris Agreement that establishes voluntary international cooperation through carbon markets and non-market approaches to help countries achieve their Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs).

Biodiversity

The variety of living organisms, including plants, animals, fungi, and microorganisms, as well as the ecosystems they form.

Capacity Building

The process of strengthening the knowledge, institutions, technical skills, and administrative abilities necessary for countries to effectively implement climate policies.

Carbon Market

A system in which greenhouse gas emission reductions or carbon credits can be traded between countries, companies, or other entities to help achieve climate objectives.

Carbon Neutrality

A state in which the amount of greenhouse gases emitted is balanced by an equivalent amount removed from the atmosphere.

Carbon Pricing

An economic policy that assigns a monetary cost to greenhouse gas emissions through mechanisms such as carbon taxes or emissions trading systems.

Climate Change

Long-term changes in global or regional climate patterns primarily caused by increased concentrations of greenhouse gases resulting from human activities.

Climate Finance

Financial resources provided by public and private sources to support mitigation, adaptation, technology transfer, and capacity-building activities related to climate change.

Climate Mitigation

Actions taken to reduce or prevent greenhouse gas emissions or enhance carbon sinks in order to limit global warming.

Climate Resilience

The ability of communities, ecosystems, and economies to anticipate, prepare for, respond to, and recover from climate-related impacts.

Conference of the Parties (COP)

The supreme decision-making body of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), which meets annually to negotiate and review international climate policies.

Common but Differentiated Responsibilities and Respective Capabilities (CBDR-RC)

A guiding principle of international climate law recognizes that while all countries share responsibility for addressing climate change, their obligations differ according to historical emissions, economic development, and national capabilities.

Consensus

The primary method of decision-making during COP negotiations, whereby decisions are adopted without formal objections from participating Parties.

Decarbonization

The process of reducing carbon dioxide emissions by transitioning toward low-carbon or carbon-free energy sources and technologies.

Emissions Trading System (ETS)

A market-based mechanism that limits greenhouse gas emissions by allowing participants to buy and sell emission allowances.

Energy Efficiency

Using less energy to provide the same level of service or output through improved technologies and practices.

Energy Security

The reliable, affordable, and sustainable availability of energy required to support economic development and societal well-being.

Fossil Fuels

Energy sources formed from ancient organic matter, including coal, oil, and natural gas, whose combustion releases greenhouse gases.

Global Stocktake (GST)

A periodic assessment under the Paris Agreement that evaluates collective global progress toward achieving its long-term climate goals.

Global Warming

The long-term increase in Earth's average surface temperature is primarily caused by rising greenhouse gas concentrations.

Green Climate Fund (GCF)

The largest international climate finance mechanism established under the UNFCCC to assist developing countries in mitigation and adaptation efforts.

Greenhouse Gases (GHGs)

Atmospheric gases that trap heat and contribute to global warming, including carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄), nitrous oxide (N₂O), and fluorinated gases.

Implementation Gap

The difference between climate commitments announced by governments and the actual policies and actions implemented to achieve them.

Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC)

The United Nations body responsible for assessing scientific knowledge related to climate change, its impacts, future risks, and response options.

Just Transition

A framework aimed at ensuring that the transition to a low-carbon economy is fair and inclusive, protecting workers, communities, and vulnerable populations.

Least Developed Countries (LDCs)

Countries designated by the United Nations as having low levels of income, human development, and economic resilience, often requiring special international support.

Loss and Damage

The adverse impacts of climate change that cannot be avoided through mitigation or adaptation, including irreversible economic and non-economic losses.

Loss and Damage Fund

An international funding mechanism established to assist vulnerable countries in responding to climate-related losses and damages.

Mitigation

Policies and actions designed to reduce greenhouse gas emissions or increase carbon absorption in order to limit future climate change.

National Adaptation Plan (NAP)

A national strategy developed to identify climate risks and guide long-term adaptation planning.

Nationally Determined Contribution (NDC)

A country's climate action plan submitted under the Paris Agreement outlining its targets, policies, and measures for reducing emissions and adapting to climate change.

Nature-Based Solutions (NbS)

Actions that protect, restore, or sustainably manage ecosystems while addressing climate change and providing benefits for biodiversity and human well-being.

Net Zero

A condition in which greenhouse gas emissions released into the atmosphere are balanced by their removal, resulting in no net increase.

Non-Party Stakeholders

Organizations and actors that participate in climate action but are not Parties to the UNFCCC, including businesses, cities, civil society organizations, indigenous peoples, and academic institutions.

Paris Agreement

The 2015 international treaty adopted under the UNFCCC that seeks to limit global warming while strengthening adaptation and climate resilience.

Party

A country or regional economic integration organization that has ratified the UNFCCC or one of its related agreements.

Renewable Energy

Energy derived from naturally replenishing sources such as solar, wind, hydroelectric, geothermal, and biomass.

Resilience

The capacity of systems, communities, and ecosystems to withstand, adapt to, and recover from climate-related disruptions.

Sustainable Development

Development that meets present needs without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs while balancing economic, social, and environmental objectives.

Technology Transfer

The sharing of environmentally sound technologies, technical knowledge, and expertise between countries to support climate action.

Transparency Framework

The reporting and review system established under the Paris Agreement to monitor progress, build trust, and improve accountability among Parties.

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC)

The international treaty adopted in 1992 that provides the legal framework for global cooperation on climate change and underpins the annual COP process.

Vulnerability

The degree to which a system, community, or ecosystem is susceptible to the adverse effects of climate change due to exposure, sensitivity, and limited adaptive capacity.

4. Introduction to the Committee

The Conference of the Parties (COP) is the supreme decision-making body of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) and serves as the principal forum for international climate negotiations. Bringing together nearly every sovereign state in the world, COP provides governments with an opportunity to review progress under the Convention, negotiate new commitments, strengthen existing mechanisms, and coordinate collective responses to one of humanity's most complex global challenges.

Since the UNFCCC entered into force in 1994, annual COP meetings have evolved into the largest international gatherings dedicated to climate governance. Over the course of three decades, these conferences have facilitated landmark agreements that continue to shape global climate policy, including the Kyoto Protocol and the Paris Agreement. Together, these instruments have established the legal and institutional foundations for reducing greenhouse gas emissions, strengthening climate resilience, and supporting sustainable development.

Despite these accomplishments, the international climate regime now faces a different challenge than it did in previous decades. The question confronting policymakers is no longer whether climate change requires international action, but rather how existing commitments can be implemented effectively. While many countries have announced ambitious emissions reduction targets and long-term climate strategies, substantial gaps remain between political commitments and practical implementation. Limited financial resources, unequal access to technology, competing development priorities, geopolitical tensions, and institutional capacity constraints continue to slow progress across many regions of the world.

Accordingly, the primary objective of COP31 is to encourage delegates to explore practical solutions capable of transforming commitments into measurable outcomes. Discussions within this committee should emphasize implementation mechanisms rather than solely expanding political ambition. This includes examining methods to improve climate finance, accelerate technology transfer, strengthen institutional capacity, promote sustainable

industrial development, support vulnerable communities, and ensure that climate policies remain socially equitable and economically viable.

The Conference of the Parties operates according to principles established within the UNFCCC, including sustainable development, international cooperation, precautionary action, intergenerational equity, and the principle of common but differentiated responsibilities and respective capabilities (CBDR-RC). These principles recognize that while climate change is a shared global challenge, countries possess different historical responsibilities for greenhouse gas emissions and varying capacities to respond. Consequently, negotiations frequently involve balancing environmental objectives with developmental needs, particularly for emerging economies and least developed countries.

Unlike many multilateral organizations that rely on formal voting procedures, COP negotiations are conducted almost entirely through consensus. This distinctive approach encourages extensive consultation among Parties and requires delegates to seek broadly acceptable compromises rather than narrow majorities. As a result, successful delegates must demonstrate strong diplomatic skills, carefully evaluate the interests of other negotiating partners, and remain open to constructive compromise without abandoning their national positions.

In addition to government representatives, the Conference of the Parties welcomes participation from numerous observer organizations, including United Nations agencies, scientific institutions, intergovernmental organizations, Indigenous representatives, youth organizations, non-governmental organizations, businesses, and academic experts. Although these stakeholders do not possess formal voting rights, they contribute technical expertise, policy recommendations, and practical experience that frequently influence negotiations and strengthen the quality of international decision-making.

The work conducted during COP31 extends beyond the conference itself. Decisions adopted by the Conference of the Parties influence national legislation, international investment, technological innovation, private sector strategies, and global sustainable development efforts. Consequently, delegates should recognize that the committee represents not merely a diplomatic simulation but a reflection of ongoing international efforts to address one of the defining policy challenges of the modern era.

5. Understanding the United Nations Climate Regime

a. The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC)

The international climate regime is founded upon the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), the principal international treaty dedicated to addressing climate change. Adopted on 9 May 1992 during the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED), commonly referred to as the Rio Earth Summit,

the Convention entered into force on 21 March 1994. Today, the UNFCCC enjoys near-universal participation, with 198 Parties, making it one of the most widely supported international environmental agreements in history.

The Convention was negotiated in response to growing scientific consensus that human activities, particularly the combustion of fossil fuels, industrial production, and large-scale deforestation, were increasing atmospheric concentrations of greenhouse gases. These emissions were recognized as a major contributor to global warming, posing significant risks to ecosystems, economies, and human societies. Rather than prescribing immediate legally binding emissions reductions, the Convention established a long-term framework through which states could cooperate to address climate change while recognizing differing national circumstances.

Article 2 of the Convention sets forth its ultimate objective: the stabilization of greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere at a level that prevents dangerous anthropogenic interference with the climate system. This objective is intended to be achieved within a timeframe that allows ecosystems to adapt naturally to climate change, ensures that food production is not threatened, and enables sustainable economic development.

The UNFCCC is guided by several principles that continue to shape international climate negotiations. The most influential of these is the principle of ****common but differentiated responsibilities and respective capabilities (CBDR-RC)****. This principle acknowledges that while climate change is a shared global challenge requiring collective action, countries possess different historical responsibilities for greenhouse gas emissions and different capacities to address them. Developed countries, having contributed a greater share of cumulative historical emissions, are therefore expected to take the lead in reducing emissions and supporting developing countries through financial assistance, technology transfer, and capacity-building initiatives.

Other guiding principles include precautionary action, which encourages governments to act even when scientific uncertainty remains; intergenerational equity, emphasizing the responsibility to protect the environment for future generations; and sustainable development, recognizing that climate policies should complement rather than hinder economic and social progress.

Importantly, the Convention itself establishes institutions and guiding principles rather than detailed implementation measures. The responsibility for negotiating specific commitments rests with the Parties, who meet annually through the Conference of the Parties to evaluate progress and adopt new decisions.

b. The Evolution of the Climate Regime

Since its establishment, the UNFCCC has evolved considerably in response to scientific developments, political realities, and changing economic conditions. The climate regime can broadly be understood through three distinct phases.

The first phase focused on establishing international recognition of climate change as a shared global concern. During the early Conferences of the Parties, negotiations concentrated on creating institutions, developing reporting mechanisms, and building confidence among Parties. These discussions ultimately resulted in the adoption of the Kyoto Protocol in 1997.

The second phase emphasized legally binding emissions reductions for industrialized countries. The Kyoto Protocol introduced binding targets for developed nations listed in Annex I of the Convention while placing fewer obligations upon developing countries. Although groundbreaking, this approach generated significant political challenges, as some major emitters either withdrew from the Protocol or never became Parties, limiting its overall effectiveness.

The third phase began with the adoption of the Paris Agreement in 2015. Rather than imposing legally binding emission reduction targets upon a limited group of countries, the Paris Agreement requires every Party to submit nationally determined contributions (NDCs) reflecting its own national circumstances and capabilities. This approach significantly broadened participation while creating a more flexible framework for progressively increasing climate ambition over time.

Today, international negotiations increasingly focus not on establishing new global objectives but on implementing existing commitments. Questions surrounding climate finance, adaptation, technological cooperation, institutional capacity, and accountability have become central themes within the climate regime, reflecting the growing recognition that implementation represents the greatest obstacle to effective climate action.

c. The Conference of the Parties (COP)

The Conference of the Parties (COP) serves as the supreme governing body of the UNFCCC. It consists of representatives from every Party to the Convention and convenes annually to review implementation, evaluate scientific developments, negotiate policy decisions, and strengthen international cooperation.

Each annual conference is hosted by a different Party and chaired by a Presidency selected according to regional rotation. The Presidency plays a crucial diplomatic role throughout the conference by facilitating negotiations, organizing consultations, proposing compromise language, and encouraging consensus among Parties. Although the Presidency does not possess authority to impose decisions, its leadership frequently influences the pace and direction of negotiations.

COP conferences have evolved far beyond traditional diplomatic meetings. Today they bring together tens of thousands of participants, including heads of state, ministers, diplomats, scientists, international organizations, businesses, financial institutions, Indigenous representatives, youth movements, academic experts, and civil society organizations. While only Parties may formally adopt decisions, observer organizations contribute technical expertise, policy analysis, and practical recommendations that often shape negotiation outcomes.

The responsibilities of the Conference of the Parties include reviewing implementation of the Convention, adopting decisions that guide future climate policy, establishing subsidiary bodies when necessary, supervising financial mechanisms, promoting technology cooperation, facilitating adaptation efforts, and strengthening international collaboration across numerous policy areas.

d. The Paris Agreement and Nationally Determined Contributions

The Paris Agreement fundamentally reshaped international climate governance by introducing a bottom-up approach centered upon Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs). Rather than assigning emission reduction targets through international negotiations, each Party determines its own climate commitments according to national circumstances.

Under the Agreement, Parties are expected to submit updated NDCs every five years, with each successive contribution representing a progression beyond previous commitments. This principle, commonly referred to as the "ratchet mechanism," is intended to encourage increasing ambition over time.

NDCs differ considerably among countries. Some prioritize rapid emissions reductions through renewable energy expansion and industrial decarbonization, while others focus on adaptation measures, climate resilience, forest conservation, or sustainable agriculture. The diversity of NDCs reflects differing economic structures, levels of development, energy systems, and national priorities.

To evaluate collective progress, Parties participate in the Global Stocktake, a comprehensive assessment conducted every five years. The Stocktake examines whether current national efforts remain sufficient to achieve the long-term goals of the Paris Agreement and identifies areas requiring greater international cooperation.

e. The Institutional Architecture of the UN Climate Regime

The Conference of the Parties is supported by several institutions responsible for scientific assessment, technical implementation, and policy development.

The UNFCCC Secretariat, headquartered in Bonn, Germany, provides administrative and technical support to the Convention. Its responsibilities include organizing conferences, coordinating negotiations, maintaining official documentation, assisting Parties in reporting requirements, and facilitating communication among stakeholders.

Scientific guidance is primarily provided by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC). Although the IPCC does not negotiate climate policy, its assessment reports synthesize the latest peer-reviewed scientific research concerning climate change, its impacts, future risks, and potential response options. These reports frequently provide the scientific foundation upon which political negotiations are conducted.

Negotiations are also supported by two permanent subsidiary bodies established under the Convention:

The Subsidiary Body for Scientific and Technological Advice (SBSTA) considers scientific findings, technological developments, methodological standards, and research relevant to climate policy.

The Subsidiary Body for Implementation (SBI) focuses on implementation, transparency, reporting obligations, financial mechanisms, adaptation programs, and institutional capacity building.

Together, these institutions ensure that climate negotiations remain informed by both scientific evidence and practical implementation experience.

f. Consensus-Based Decision Making

Unlike many international organizations, the Conference of the Parties rarely relies upon formal voting procedures. Instead, decisions are almost universally adopted through consensus.

Consensus does not require every Party to express complete agreement with every aspect of a proposal. Rather, it indicates that no Party formally objects to the adoption of the decision. This approach reflects the global nature of climate governance and encourages solutions capable of securing broad international support.

Consensus-based negotiations require extensive consultation, compromise, and diplomatic flexibility. Draft decisions frequently undergo dozens of revisions as delegates negotiate individual paragraphs, definitions, financial commitments, reporting requirements, and implementation timelines. Even seemingly minor wording changes may carry significant political or legal implications.

Although consensus strengthens the legitimacy of adopted decisions, it also creates challenges. A relatively small number of Parties—or in some cases a single Party—may delay negotiations or prevent adoption of decisions by maintaining objections. Consequently, COP negotiations are often characterized by prolonged consultations, ministerial meetings, informal discussions, and carefully negotiated compromise texts.

g. Negotiating Blocs

While each Party negotiates as a sovereign state, countries frequently cooperate through negotiating blocs that represent shared political, economic, or geographical interests. These coalitions allow states with similar priorities to coordinate positions, strengthen bargaining power, and present unified proposals during negotiations.

Among the most influential negotiating groups are the Group of 77 and China (G77 and China), representing the interests of developing countries; the European Union (EU), which negotiates as a coordinated regional bloc; the Umbrella Group, composed primarily of developed economies outside the EU; the Alliance of Small Island States (AOSIS), which advocates for ambitious climate action due to the existential threat posed by sea-level rise; the Least Developed Countries (LDC) Group, focusing on adaptation and capacity building; the African Group of Negotiators (AGN); the Arab Group; the BASIC countries (Brazil, South Africa, India, and China); and the Environmental Integrity Group (EIG).

Although these coalitions facilitate coordination, they are not monolithic. Individual member states often possess distinct domestic priorities and may diverge from bloc positions during specific negotiations. Delegates should therefore research both their country's national position and the broader objectives of any negotiating group to which it belongs.

h. From Ambition to Implementation

As the international climate regime enters its fourth decade, the central challenge has shifted. Scientific understanding of climate change is stronger than ever, and the overwhelming majority of countries have adopted long-term climate strategies and emissions reduction targets. Yet implementation remains uneven across regions.

Many countries continue to face financial constraints, limited institutional capacity, insufficient access to clean technologies, and competing development priorities. At the same time, increasing climate impacts place growing pressure on governments to strengthen adaptation measures while maintaining economic growth and improving living standards.

Consequently, contemporary climate diplomacy increasingly emphasizes implementation rather than negotiation of new objectives. Discussions now focus on how existing commitments can be financed, monitored, and translated into measurable outcomes. This shift reflects the recognition that achieving international climate goals depends not only

on political ambition but also on practical governance, sustained investment, technological cooperation, and effective international partnerships.

This implementation-oriented perspective forms the foundation of the discussions at COP31 and will guide delegates throughout this committee as they seek realistic, equitable, and actionable solutions to the challenges of global climate governance.

6. Historical Evolution of Global Climate Governance

a. Early International Environmental Cooperation

Although climate change became a prominent issue in international politics only in the late twentieth century, concerns regarding the relationship between environmental degradation and economic development emerged much earlier. During the post-war period, rapid industrialization, population growth, and increasing consumption generated unprecedented environmental pressures. Air pollution, water contamination, deforestation, biodiversity loss, and resource depletion became matters of international concern, prompting governments to recognize that many environmental challenges extended beyond national borders.

The first major milestone in global environmental diplomacy was the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment, held in Stockholm, Sweden, in 1972. As the first global conference devoted entirely to environmental issues, the Stockholm Conference marked a turning point by establishing environmental protection as an international policy priority. The conference adopted the Stockholm Declaration, which outlined twenty-six principles for environmental governance, and led to the creation of the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP). Although climate change was not yet the central focus of international discussions, the conference established institutional foundations that would later support global climate governance.

Throughout the 1970s and 1980s, scientific understanding of Earth's climate system advanced rapidly. Researchers increasingly concluded that rising concentrations of carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases, largely resulting from human activities, were contributing to global warming. At the same time, improvements in climate modeling enabled scientists to project future temperature increases and their potential impacts on ecosystems, economies, and societies.

Recognizing the need for an authoritative scientific body capable of assessing climate research, the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) and UNEP jointly established the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) in 1988. Unlike a research institution, the IPCC evaluates and synthesizes existing peer-reviewed scientific literature to provide policymakers with comprehensive assessments of climate science. Since its establishment, the IPCC's assessment reports have served as the principal scientific foundation for international climate negotiations.

The publication of the IPCC's First Assessment Report in 1990 concluded that climate change posed a serious global threat and recommended the negotiation of an international treaty. This recommendation directly contributed to the negotiations that produced the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change.

b. The Rio Earth Summit and the Birth of the UNFCCC

The growing scientific consensus on climate change culminated in the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED), commonly known as the Rio Earth Summit, held in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, in June 1992. The conference represented one of the largest diplomatic gatherings in history and fundamentally reshaped international environmental governance.

The Earth Summit produced several landmark agreements, including Agenda 21, the Rio Declaration on Environment and Development, the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD), and the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC).

Unlike later climate agreements, the UNFCCC did not impose binding emissions reduction obligations. Instead, it established a legal and institutional framework through which countries could cooperate to stabilize greenhouse gas concentrations while pursuing sustainable development. The Convention recognized that developed countries had contributed most of the historical greenhouse gas emissions and therefore should assume greater responsibility in addressing climate change. This principle, known as common but differentiated responsibilities and respective capabilities (CBDR-RC), remains one of the cornerstones of international climate negotiations.

The Convention entered into force in 1994, creating the institutional architecture that continues to govern international climate diplomacy today.

c. The First Conferences of the Parties

The First Conference of the Parties (COP1) convened in Berlin, Germany, in 1995. Delegates quickly recognized that the voluntary commitments established under the UNFCCC were insufficient to address rapidly increasing global greenhouse gas emissions. Consequently, Parties adopted the Berlin Mandate, initiating negotiations toward stronger commitments for developed countries.

These negotiations ultimately resulted in the Kyoto Protocol, adopted during COP3 in Kyoto, Japan, in 1997.

The Kyoto Protocol represented the first international agreement to establish legally binding greenhouse gas emission reduction targets. However, these obligations applied primarily to developed countries listed in Annex I of the Convention. Developing countries,

including rapidly industrializing economies, were not required to accept binding emission reduction targets, reflecting the principle of CBDR-RC.

The Protocol introduced several innovative market-based mechanisms designed to reduce the cost of emissions reductions. These included International Emissions Trading, the Clean Development Mechanism (CDM), and Joint Implementation (JI). Together, these mechanisms enabled countries to pursue emissions reductions through international cooperation while encouraging investment in low-carbon technologies.

Although historically significant, the Kyoto Protocol faced substantial political and practical challenges. The United States signed but never ratified the agreement, while Canada later withdrew. Furthermore, the Protocol did not include binding commitments for several major emerging economies whose emissions increased significantly during the following decades. These limitations ultimately reduced its effectiveness in addressing global emissions growth.

d. From Kyoto to Paris

The first decade of the twenty-first century demonstrated that climate change could not be effectively addressed without broader participation from all major emitters. Negotiations increasingly focused on developing a more inclusive international framework.

At COP13 in Bali (2007), Parties adopted the Bali Road Map, launching negotiations for a comprehensive agreement that would eventually succeed the Kyoto Protocol. The Bali Action Plan expanded discussions beyond mitigation to include adaptation, technology transfer, climate finance, and capacity building, reflecting the growing recognition that climate change required a multidimensional policy response.

Expectations were particularly high for COP15 in Copenhagen (2009). Many observers anticipated the adoption of a comprehensive legally binding agreement. However, negotiations proved politically contentious, and delegates ultimately produced the Copenhagen Accord, a political agreement rather than a legally binding treaty. While widely viewed as disappointing at the time, the Accord introduced several concepts that later became central to the Paris Agreement, including voluntary national climate pledges and the long-term objective of limiting global warming.

Subsequent conferences gradually rebuilt international momentum. The Cancún Agreements (2010) formally recognized the objective of limiting global warming to below 2°C above pre-industrial levels and established institutions addressing adaptation, technology transfer, and climate finance.

At COP17 in Durban (2011), Parties adopted the Durban Platform for Enhanced Action, initiating negotiations toward a universal climate agreement applicable to all

countries. This represented a significant departure from the Kyoto model by recognizing that effective climate governance required participation from both developed and developing countries.

e. The Paris Agreement

The adoption of the Paris Agreement at COP21 in 2015 is widely regarded as one of the most significant achievements in international environmental diplomacy. Unlike the Kyoto Protocol, which established binding targets for a limited group of developed countries, the Paris Agreement requires every Party to prepare and regularly update Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs) reflecting its own national circumstances and capabilities.

The Agreement established three overarching objectives:

- Limiting the increase in global average temperature to well below 2°C above pre-industrial levels while pursuing efforts to limit warming to 1.5°C.
- Enhancing adaptation and resilience to the impacts of climate change.
- Aligning financial flows with pathways toward low-emission and climate-resilient development.

The Paris Agreement also introduced a transparency framework requiring Parties to report progress regularly and participate in the Global Stocktake, a collective assessment conducted every five years to evaluate implementation and identify opportunities for strengthening climate action.

Importantly, the Paris Agreement shifted the international climate regime away from negotiating emissions targets toward facilitating national implementation. Countries retained flexibility in determining their own climate policies while accepting responsibility for progressively increasing ambition over time.

f. From Paris to COP31: From Ambition to Implementation

Following the adoption of the Paris Agreement, international climate diplomacy entered a new phase. The principal objective was no longer to negotiate a universal framework, but to ensure that the commitments made under the Agreement could be effectively implemented. This transition fundamentally altered the nature of Conference of the Parties (COP) negotiations. While previous conferences had concentrated on defining long-term goals and legal obligations, subsequent meetings increasingly focused on implementation, transparency, financing, technological cooperation, and accountability.

The years immediately following the Paris Agreement were dedicated to translating its broad commitments into an operational framework. At COP22 in Marrakesh (2016), Parties reaffirmed their commitment to the Agreement despite political uncertainty surrounding global climate policy. Negotiations centered on developing the rules and

procedures necessary to implement the Agreement, particularly regarding transparency, reporting requirements, and financial support for developing countries. Although few major political decisions were adopted, COP22 marked the beginning of the implementation phase of the Paris framework.

At COP23 in Bonn (2017), under the presidency of Fiji, climate negotiations placed increased emphasis on adaptation and the needs of vulnerable communities. Small Island Developing States (SIDS) received greater international attention as rising sea levels, increasingly severe tropical storms, and coastal erosion underscored the disproportionate impacts of climate change on countries with limited adaptive capacity. The conference also strengthened the participation of indigenous communities through the establishment of the Local Communities and Indigenous Peoples Platform, recognizing the value of traditional knowledge in climate adaptation and environmental stewardship.

The following year, COP24 in Katowice (2018) produced one of the most significant outcomes since Paris through the adoption of the Paris Rulebook. This comprehensive package established detailed guidelines for implementing the Paris Agreement, including standardized reporting procedures, transparency mechanisms, accounting methodologies, and review processes. By creating common reporting standards applicable to all Parties while maintaining flexibility for countries with differing capacities, the Rulebook significantly improved the transparency and credibility of international climate governance.

Progress slowed during COP25 in Madrid (2019), where negotiations struggled to reach consensus on several contentious issues, particularly the rules governing international carbon markets under Article 6 of the Paris Agreement. Disagreements concerning emissions accounting, environmental integrity, and the prevention of double counting prevented a comprehensive agreement. Although many observers viewed the conference as disappointing, it highlighted the growing complexity of climate negotiations as Parties shifted from establishing broad principles to resolving highly technical implementation challenges.

The COVID-19 pandemic resulted in the postponement of COP26 until 2021, creating an unprecedented disruption to the annual negotiation process. During this period, governments faced the simultaneous challenges of managing public health crises, economic recovery, and climate action. Many policymakers argued that post-pandemic recovery programs should accelerate investments in clean energy, sustainable infrastructure, and green technologies, thereby linking economic reconstruction with long-term climate objectives.

g. Renewed Momentum: Glasgow and Beyond

When delegates finally convened at COP26 in Glasgow (2021), expectations were exceptionally high. The conference produced the Glasgow Climate Pact, which reaffirmed the objective of limiting global warming to 1.5°C and called upon Parties to strengthen their Nationally Determined Contributions before the end of 2022. The Pact represented the first COP decision to explicitly reference the need to accelerate efforts toward reducing unabated

coal power and inefficient fossil fuel subsidies, reflecting growing international recognition that transforming energy systems would be essential to achieving global climate goals.

COP26 also finalized negotiations on Article 6 of the Paris Agreement, establishing rules governing international carbon markets after years of negotiations. These agreements aimed to facilitate international cooperation while strengthening environmental integrity and reducing the risk of double counting emissions reductions. Nevertheless, debates regarding the effectiveness, transparency, and fairness of carbon markets have continued in subsequent conferences.

One year later, COP27 in Sharm el-Sheikh (2022) focused heavily on adaptation, resilience, and climate justice. The conference's most significant achievement was the historic agreement to establish a Loss and Damage Fund, acknowledging that many vulnerable countries were already experiencing irreversible climate impacts despite contributing minimally to historical greenhouse gas emissions. The decision represented an important recognition that adaptation alone cannot fully address the consequences of climate change and that international solidarity requires financial support for countries suffering unavoidable climate-related losses.

While the establishment of the Loss and Damage Fund was widely welcomed, delegates also recognized that agreeing to create a funding mechanism represented only the first step. Determining how the fund would be governed, financed, and implemented would become major priorities in subsequent negotiations.

h. The Global Stocktake and the Shift Toward Implementation

COP28 in Dubai (2023) marked another milestone through the conclusion of the First Global Stocktake, the first comprehensive assessment of collective progress under the Paris Agreement. The Stocktake concluded that although meaningful progress had been achieved in expanding renewable energy, improving climate governance, and increasing national commitments, current efforts remained insufficient to achieve the Agreement's long-term temperature goals.

The assessment identified significant implementation gaps across multiple sectors. Global greenhouse gas emissions remained substantially above pathways consistent with limiting warming to 1.5°C. Adaptation efforts were expanding but continued to lag behind increasing climate risks. Climate finance remained inadequate, particularly for adaptation and vulnerable developing countries. Furthermore, technological and institutional disparities continued to limit implementation capacity across much of the developing world.

Rather than calling primarily for more ambitious targets, discussions increasingly emphasized improving implementation mechanisms. Delegates recognized that achieving existing commitments required more effective financial systems, stronger institutions, expanded technological cooperation, improved accountability, and closer coordination

between governments, international organizations, financial institutions, businesses, and civil society.

This marked an important evolution in climate diplomacy. Success could no longer be measured solely by the announcement of ambitious goals but increasingly depended upon the capacity of countries to translate commitments into measurable outcomes.

i. Recent Developments and the Road to COP31

Subsequent Conferences of the Parties continued to reinforce this implementation-oriented approach. Discussions increasingly concentrated on expanding access to climate finance, accelerating clean energy deployment, strengthening adaptation planning, improving climate-resilient infrastructure, supporting sustainable industrial transformation, and enhancing international cooperation on technology transfer and capacity building.

Growing geopolitical tensions, inflationary pressures, supply chain disruptions, and concerns regarding energy security further complicated negotiations. Many governments faced the challenge of balancing climate objectives with economic competitiveness, energy affordability, and domestic political considerations. At the same time, increasingly frequent heatwaves, floods, droughts, wildfires, and other extreme weather events reinforced the urgency of strengthening implementation efforts.

The international community also recognized that climate action could not be pursued independently of broader development objectives. Policies addressing poverty reduction, public health, food security, water management, urban planning, biodiversity conservation, and industrial development became increasingly integrated within climate strategies. As a result, negotiations expanded beyond emissions reductions to encompass sustainable development in its broadest sense.

By the time delegates gather for COP31, the international climate regime has entered a period defined not by the absence of commitments but by the challenge of fulfilling them. Most Parties have adopted long-term climate strategies, submitted nationally determined contributions, and expressed support for achieving the objectives of the Paris Agreement. The central question is therefore no longer what the international community seeks to accomplish, but how these objectives can be implemented effectively, equitably, and at the scale required.

For delegates participating in this committee, this historical evolution provides essential context. The discussions at COP31 build upon more than three decades of international cooperation, scientific advancement, and institutional development. Understanding this progression enables delegates to appreciate that contemporary negotiations are less concerned with establishing new principles than with strengthening the mechanisms capable of transforming existing commitments into tangible results.

7. Key Climate Concepts

a. Climate Change

Climate change refers to long-term alterations in the Earth's climate system, including changes in average temperatures, precipitation patterns, wind systems, and the frequency or intensity of extreme weather events. While natural climate variability has always existed, the overwhelming scientific consensus concludes that the rapid warming observed since the Industrial Revolution is primarily the result of human activities.

The burning of fossil fuels, industrial production, transportation, agriculture, and land-use changes have significantly increased atmospheric concentrations of greenhouse gases, enhancing the natural greenhouse effect and causing global temperatures to rise. According to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), human influence on the climate system is unequivocal, with observed impacts affecting every region of the world.

Climate change is not solely an environmental issue. It has become a multidimensional challenge influencing economic development, food security, public health, migration, biodiversity, infrastructure, and international security. Consequently, addressing climate change requires coordinated action across numerous sectors and policy areas.

b. Greenhouse Gases (GHGs)

Greenhouse gases are atmospheric gases that absorb and re-emit infrared radiation, trapping heat within the Earth's atmosphere. This natural greenhouse effect is essential for maintaining temperatures suitable for life. However, increased concentrations of greenhouse gases resulting from human activities intensify this effect, leading to global warming.

The principal greenhouse gases considered under the UNFFCCC include:

- Carbon dioxide (CO₂)
- Methane (CH₄)
- Nitrous oxide (N₂O)
- Hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs)
- Perfluorocarbons (PFCs)
- Sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆)
- Nitrogen trifluoride (NF₃)

Carbon dioxide remains the largest contributor to anthropogenic climate change due to its abundance and long atmospheric lifetime. Methane, although less prevalent, possesses a significantly higher warming potential over shorter time periods, making methane reduction an increasingly important component of climate policy.

c. Mitigation

Mitigation refers to actions undertaken to reduce greenhouse gas emissions or enhance the capacity of natural systems to absorb carbon from the atmosphere. The objective of mitigation is to limit the magnitude of future climate change.

Common mitigation strategies include expanding renewable energy, improving energy efficiency, electrifying transportation, reducing industrial emissions, protecting forests, restoring degraded ecosystems, promoting sustainable agriculture, and developing low-carbon technologies.

International climate negotiations often focus on mitigation because reducing emissions remains essential for limiting future warming. However, mitigation policies frequently require substantial financial investment, technological innovation, and structural economic transformation, making implementation politically and economically complex.

d. Adaptation

While mitigation addresses the causes of climate change, adaptation seeks to reduce its consequences. Adaptation refers to adjustments in natural or human systems that minimize vulnerability to actual or expected climate impacts.

Examples of adaptation include constructing flood defenses, improving drought-resistant agriculture, strengthening water management systems, developing climate-resilient infrastructure, implementing early warning systems, restoring wetlands, and enhancing disaster preparedness.

Even if global emissions were to decline rapidly, many climate impacts are expected to continue due to the long-term accumulation of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere. Consequently, adaptation has become an increasingly important component of international climate policy, particularly for countries that are highly vulnerable to climate-related hazards.

e. Climate Resilience

Climate resilience describes the capacity of societies, ecosystems, institutions, and economies to anticipate, withstand, recover from, and adapt to climate-related shocks and stresses.

Rather than focusing solely on disaster response, resilience emphasizes long-term preparedness and the ability to maintain essential functions despite changing climatic conditions. Investments in resilient infrastructure, healthcare systems, agriculture, transportation, and urban planning can significantly reduce the social and economic impacts of climate-related disasters.

Building resilience has become particularly important for developing countries, many of which experience disproportionate climate impacts despite contributing relatively little to global greenhouse gas emissions.

f. Sustainable Development

Sustainable development is defined as development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. This concept, first popularized by the Brundtland Commission in 1987, underpins modern international climate policy.

Climate action and sustainable development are mutually reinforcing. Expanding renewable energy, improving public transportation, enhancing energy efficiency, promoting sustainable agriculture, and protecting ecosystems can simultaneously reduce emissions, improve public health, create employment opportunities, and strengthen long-term economic growth.

Members should recognize that climate policies are rarely evaluated solely according to their environmental benefits. Governments also consider their economic costs, social implications, and contributions to broader development objectives.

g. Climate Finance

Climate finance refers to financial resources dedicated to supporting mitigation and adaptation activities.

These resources originate from both public and private sources and may include grants, concessional loans, commercial investment, guarantees, insurance mechanisms, and blended finance instruments.

Climate finance plays a central role in international negotiations because many developing countries lack sufficient financial capacity to implement ambitious climate policies independently. Financial support enables investments in renewable energy, resilient infrastructure, sustainable agriculture, disaster preparedness, and technological innovation.

Although developed countries have committed to mobilizing substantial financial resources for developing countries, significant disagreements persist regarding funding levels, accessibility, transparency, and the balance between mitigation and adaptation financing.

h. Loss and Damage

Loss and damage refers to the adverse consequences of climate change that cannot be avoided through mitigation or adaptation alone.

Examples include permanent land loss resulting from sea-level rise, destruction caused by extreme weather events, irreversible biodiversity loss, displacement of communities, cultural heritage loss, and economic damages associated with climate-related disasters.

The concept has become increasingly significant within international climate negotiations because many vulnerable countries argue that they are experiencing severe climate impacts despite contributing minimally to historical greenhouse gas emissions.

Recent COP conferences have advanced international discussions regarding financial mechanisms capable of supporting countries experiencing irreversible climate impacts. However, important questions remain concerning funding sources, governance structures, eligibility criteria, and long-term implementation.

i. Just Transition

A just transition refers to the process of transforming economies toward low-carbon development while ensuring that workers, businesses, and communities are not disproportionately disadvantaged during this transition.

Decarbonization often affects industries such as coal mining, oil and gas production, heavy manufacturing, and conventional power generation. Without appropriate policies, workers may experience unemployment, declining incomes, and regional economic decline.

A just transition therefore emphasizes workforce retraining, social protection, education, economic diversification, and community investment to ensure that climate action promotes both environmental sustainability and social equity.

Increasingly, governments recognize that successful climate policies must maintain public support by addressing employment, affordability, and economic competitiveness alongside emissions reductions.

j. Technology Transfer and Capacity Building

Technology transfer refers to the international sharing of knowledge, equipment, technical expertise, and innovation necessary to support climate action.

Many developing countries require access to renewable energy technologies, energy-efficient manufacturing processes, climate monitoring systems, sustainable agricultural techniques, and resilient infrastructure. International cooperation can accelerate deployment while reducing implementation costs.

Capacity building complements technology transfer by strengthening institutional expertise, governance structures, regulatory systems, and human resources. Effective implementation depends not only on technology itself but also on the administrative capacity to plan, finance, regulate, and maintain climate-related initiatives.

Technology transfer and capacity building remain central components of international cooperation under the UNFCCC.

k. Carbon Markets

Carbon markets create economic incentives for reducing greenhouse gas emissions by assigning financial value to emissions reductions.

Under emissions trading systems, governments establish an overall emissions limit while allowing regulated entities to buy and sell emission allowances. Organizations capable of reducing emissions at lower cost may sell unused allowances to others, thereby encouraging cost-effective mitigation.

International carbon markets established under Article 6 of the Paris Agreement aim to facilitate cooperation among countries while ensuring environmental integrity. However, delegates should recognize that carbon markets remain politically sensitive due to concerns regarding transparency, emissions accounting, market oversight, and equitable participation.

l. Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs)

Nationally Determined Contributions are national climate action plans submitted under the Paris Agreement.

Each NDC outlines a country's mitigation objectives, adaptation priorities, implementation strategies, and, in many cases, financial or technological needs. Unlike the Kyoto Protocol, the Paris Agreement allows countries to determine their own commitments according to national circumstances.

Every five years, Parties are expected to submit progressively more ambitious NDCs reflecting advances in scientific understanding, technological development, and national capacity.

m. The Global Stocktake

The Global Stocktake is a comprehensive assessment conducted every five years under the Paris Agreement to evaluate collective progress toward achieving its long-term objectives.

Rather than assessing individual countries, the Stocktake examines overall global progress regarding mitigation, adaptation, finance, technology transfer, and capacity building. Its findings are intended to inform future NDCs and encourage stronger implementation efforts.

The first Global Stocktake concluded that although substantial progress has been made, current national commitments remain insufficient to achieve the temperature goals established under the Paris Agreement. Consequently, improving implementation has become one of the defining priorities of contemporary climate diplomacy.

8. Stakeholders

The complexity of climate change extends beyond the capacity of any single government or institution to address it independently. While the Conference of the Parties (COP) remains an intergovernmental forum where decisions are formally adopted by Parties to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), the negotiation process is influenced by a broad network of international organizations, financial institutions, scientific bodies, civil society organizations, Indigenous communities, the private sector, and local governments. Each stakeholder contributes unique expertise, resources, and perspectives that shape the development and implementation of global climate policy.

Understanding the interests and responsibilities of these stakeholders enables delegates to better appreciate the collaborative nature of international climate governance and develop more comprehensive policy proposals.

a. Member States

Member States are the primary actors within the UN climate regime. As Parties to the UNFCCC and the Paris Agreement, national governments negotiate international commitments, implement domestic climate policies, report their progress, and participate in annual Conferences of the Parties.

Despite sharing a common objective of addressing climate change, Member States differ considerably in their economic development, historical emissions, energy systems, institutional capacity, geographic vulnerability, and political priorities. These differences frequently influence negotiation positions.

Developed countries often prioritize technological innovation, emissions reductions, and carbon market development while simultaneously facing domestic political and economic considerations associated with industrial transformation. Developing countries generally emphasize sustainable development, poverty reduction, climate finance, technology transfer, and institutional capacity building. Small Island Developing States (SIDS) and Least Developed Countries (LDCs), whose contributions to global emissions remain relatively

limited, often advocate for ambitious global action due to their heightened vulnerability to climate impacts.

As sovereign actors, Member States remain responsible for determining their own climate policies while fulfilling commitments undertaken through international agreements.

b. The UNFCCC Secretariat

The UNFCCC Secretariat serves as the administrative body supporting the implementation of the Convention, the Kyoto Protocol, and the Paris Agreement. Headquartered in Bonn, Germany, the Secretariat facilitates negotiations, organizes annual COP meetings, manages official documentation, supports reporting requirements, coordinates communication among Parties, and provides technical assistance where appropriate.

Although the Secretariat does not participate in political negotiations or determine policy outcomes, its administrative functions are essential for maintaining continuity across successive Conferences of the Parties. The Secretariat also assists countries in fulfilling reporting obligations, collecting emissions data, and implementing transparency mechanisms established under international agreements.

c. The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC)

The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) represents the principal scientific authority informing international climate negotiations.

Established jointly by the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) and the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) in 1988, the IPCC does not conduct original scientific research. Instead, it assesses and synthesizes thousands of peer-reviewed scientific publications to produce comprehensive assessment reports evaluating the causes, impacts, and projected consequences of climate change, along with potential response options.

The credibility of the IPCC derives from its rigorous review process and broad international participation. Governments frequently rely upon IPCC findings when designing domestic climate policies and negotiating international agreements. Although political decisions remain the responsibility of Member States, scientific assessments published by the IPCC provide the evidentiary foundation for many climate negotiations.

d. United Nations Agencies

Numerous United Nations agencies contribute to global climate governance by supporting implementation, financing, humanitarian assistance, and sustainable development.

The United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) promotes environmental protection, supports international environmental agreements, and assists governments in

developing environmental policies. UNEP also publishes scientific assessments and facilitates capacity-building initiatives across numerous environmental sectors.

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) assists countries in integrating climate action into national development strategies. Through technical assistance, institutional support, and development financing, UNDP helps governments strengthen resilience, improve governance, and implement sustainable development initiatives.

The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) contributes to climate adaptation through sustainable agriculture, forestry, fisheries, and food security programs. Climate-resilient agricultural practices have become increasingly important as changing weather patterns threaten global food production.

The World Meteorological Organization (WMO) provides climate monitoring, weather forecasting, and scientific observations essential for understanding long-term climate trends and improving disaster preparedness.

Together, these agencies support implementation by providing technical expertise, research, and operational assistance beyond the negotiation process itself.

e. International Financial Institutions

Achieving international climate objectives requires substantial financial investment. Consequently, multilateral development banks and international financial institutions play an increasingly significant role in supporting implementation.

The World Bank Group, regional development banks, and other international financial institutions finance renewable energy projects, resilient infrastructure, sustainable transportation systems, disaster risk reduction initiatives, water management, and climate adaptation programs. Many also provide technical assistance, concessional loans, guarantees, and investment advisory services.

In recent years, international financial institutions have faced increasing calls to reform lending practices, mobilize greater private investment, simplify access to climate finance, and better address the needs of vulnerable developing countries.

f. The Private Sector

Private companies increasingly influence the success of global climate action. Businesses contribute significantly to greenhouse gas emissions through industrial production, transportation, agriculture, and energy generation. At the same time, they possess substantial financial resources, technological expertise, and innovative capacity capable of accelerating climate solutions.

Many corporations have adopted emissions reduction targets, invested in renewable energy, developed low-carbon technologies, improved energy efficiency, and strengthened sustainability reporting. Financial institutions are also increasingly incorporating climate-related risks into investment decisions.

However, debates continue regarding corporate accountability, transparency, environmental claims, and the effectiveness of voluntary commitments. Delegates should therefore recognize that while private-sector participation is essential for achieving global climate objectives, appropriate regulatory frameworks remain equally important.

g. Civil Society Organizations

Civil society organizations play an important role in promoting transparency, public awareness, and accountability within international climate governance.

Environmental organizations, research institutions, humanitarian organizations, professional associations, and community groups frequently participate as accredited observers during COP meetings. Although they cannot formally negotiate or vote, these organizations provide technical expertise, conduct independent research, monitor negotiations, advocate for vulnerable populations, and encourage governments to strengthen climate commitments.

Many civil society organizations also implement projects directly within communities, supporting ecosystem restoration, disaster preparedness, renewable energy deployment, education, and sustainable development initiatives.

h. Indigenous Peoples and Local Communities

Indigenous Peoples possess generations of knowledge regarding ecosystem management, biodiversity conservation, sustainable agriculture, and natural resource stewardship. Increasingly, international climate negotiations recognize that this traditional knowledge complements scientific research and contributes to more effective adaptation strategies.

Many Indigenous communities also inhabit regions highly vulnerable to climate change, including forests, coastal zones, mountain regions, and the Arctic. Climate impacts may threaten not only livelihoods but also cultural heritage, languages, and traditional ways of life.

The participation of Indigenous representatives within COP negotiations has expanded considerably over recent years, reflecting growing recognition that inclusive decision-making strengthens both environmental outcomes and social justice.

i. Youth and Future Generations

Young people have become increasingly influential participants within international climate discussions. Youth organizations contribute policy proposals, participate in consultations, organize educational initiatives, and advocate for more ambitious and equitable climate action.

Their participation reflects the principle of intergenerational equity, which recognizes that decisions made today will significantly influence the environmental, economic, and social conditions experienced by future generations.

Many governments now include youth representatives within national delegations, while international institutions increasingly support youth participation through advisory platforms, educational initiatives, and consultation mechanisms.

j. Academic and Scientific Institutions

Universities, research institutes, and scientific organizations contribute evidence necessary for informed policymaking. Climate science, economics, engineering, agriculture, public health, law, and social sciences all provide valuable insights regarding both the causes of climate change and potential policy responses.

Scientific institutions also develop emissions inventories, climate models, technological innovations, adaptation strategies, and policy evaluations that guide decision-makers. Effective climate governance depends upon maintaining strong connections between scientific knowledge and public policy.

9. Committee Structure and Negotiation Process

The Conference of the Parties differs significantly from most committees commonly simulated in Model United Nations. Unlike the General Assembly, which often relies on formal speeches followed by the drafting and voting of resolutions, COP negotiations are characterized by continuous consultation, technical discussions, and consensus-building. Delegates spend a substantial portion of the conference negotiating draft language, consulting with regional partners, and working toward agreements that can receive broad international support.

Understanding the institutional structure of the Conference of the Parties is therefore essential for effective participation. Delegates should recognize that successful climate negotiations depend not only on persuasive public speaking but also on diplomacy, coalition-building, and the ability to reconcile competing national interests.

a. The COP Presidency

Each Conference of the Parties is hosted by a Party to the UNFCCC, which assumes the role of the COP Presidency for that session. The Presidency is responsible for guiding negotiations, facilitating dialogue among Parties, coordinating ministerial consultations, and encouraging consensus throughout the conference.

Unlike a government delegation, the Presidency is expected to remain impartial. Its objective is not to advance its own national interests but to assist Parties in reaching mutually acceptable outcomes. Throughout negotiations, the Presidency frequently organizes informal consultations, proposes compromise language, identifies areas of agreement, and encourages constructive dialogue between negotiating groups.

During moments of political disagreement, the Presidency often plays a crucial mediating role by consulting individually with delegations, revising draft texts, and presenting balanced proposals capable of attracting broad support.

In a Model United Nations simulation, the dais typically performs many of these responsibilities by moderating debate, facilitating negotiations, and ensuring that committee proceedings remain productive and orderly.

b. The Bureau

The Bureau supports the work of the Conference of the Parties by assisting with procedural matters and ensuring the effective organization of negotiations. Within the actual UNFCCC process, the Bureau consists of representatives elected from different regional groups, promoting equitable geographic representation.

The Bureau assists the Presidency in organizing meetings, coordinating committee activities, and addressing procedural issues that arise during negotiations. Although it does not determine substantive policy outcomes, its administrative responsibilities contribute significantly to the efficient functioning of the conference.

c. Subsidiary Bodies

Much of the technical work undertaken within the UN climate regime occurs outside the annual COP plenary through permanent subsidiary bodies established under the Convention.

The Subsidiary Body for Scientific and Technological Advice (SBSTA) provides scientific and technical guidance to the Conference of the Parties. It considers developments in climate science, technological innovation, methodological standards, emissions accounting, and research relevant to climate policy.

The Subsidiary Body for Implementation (SBI) focuses on practical implementation of the Convention and the Paris Agreement. Its responsibilities include transparency, reporting obligations, financial mechanisms, adaptation planning, institutional capacity building, and administrative matters.

These subsidiary bodies prepare technical recommendations that inform negotiations at the Conference of the Parties, allowing ministers and senior negotiators to focus on broader political questions.

d. Negotiating Blocs

Given the diversity of Parties participating in climate negotiations, countries frequently coordinate their positions through negotiating blocs. These coalitions strengthen bargaining power, facilitate information sharing, and enable countries with common interests to negotiate more effectively.

The Group of 77 and China (G77 and China) represents the largest coalition of developing countries. Although its members possess diverse economic circumstances, the group generally advocates increased climate finance, technology transfer, capacity building, and recognition of common but differentiated responsibilities.

The European Union (EU) negotiates as a coordinated regional bloc and has historically supported ambitious emissions reductions, stronger transparency mechanisms, expanded renewable energy deployment, and enhanced international cooperation.

The Umbrella Group includes several developed economies outside the European Union, such as Australia, Canada, Japan, New Zealand, Norway, and the United States. While members often share similar perspectives on market-based approaches and technological innovation, positions may differ depending on domestic political priorities.

The Alliance of Small Island States (AOSIS) consists of countries facing severe threats from sea-level rise and other climate impacts. As many of its members confront existential risks associated with climate change, the alliance consistently advocates ambitious mitigation efforts, expanded adaptation finance, and effective implementation of the Loss and Damage Fund.

The Least Developed Countries (LDC) Group emphasizes adaptation, resilience, institutional capacity building, and financial support. Many of its members possess limited administrative and financial resources while simultaneously experiencing significant climate vulnerability.

Other influential negotiating groups include the African Group of Negotiators (AGN), the Arab Group, the BASIC countries (Brazil, South Africa, India, and China), and the Environmental Integrity Group (EIG).

e. Observer Organizations

One distinguishing feature of the Conference of the Parties is the extensive participation of observer organizations. Accredited observers include United Nations agencies, intergovernmental organizations, non-governmental organizations, research institutions, businesses, youth organizations, Indigenous representatives, labor unions, and professional associations.

Observers cannot formally negotiate or adopt decisions. Nevertheless, they influence negotiations by providing technical expertise, publishing policy analyses, organizing side events, facilitating dialogue among stakeholders, and advocating for particular policy approaches.

The growing participation of observer organizations reflects recognition that effective climate governance extends beyond governments alone. Successful implementation depends upon cooperation among public institutions, private enterprises, scientific communities, and civil society.

f. Formal and Informal Negotiations

Although plenary meetings receive considerable public attention, much of the substantive work during a Conference of the Parties occurs through informal negotiations.

Formal sessions provide opportunities for Parties to deliver national statements, introduce proposals, and adopt final decisions. These meetings follow established procedural rules and produce official conference records.

Informal consultations, by contrast, allow delegates to negotiate specific policy language in a more flexible setting. Small groups of interested Parties frequently meet to resolve disagreements, revise draft decisions, clarify technical issues, or explore potential compromises before proposals are presented in formal sessions.

Contact groups and informal consultations are especially important when negotiations involve complex issues such as climate finance, emissions accounting, technology transfer, or carbon markets. These smaller discussions often determine the content of final agreements before they reach plenary.

g. Consensus-Based Decision Making

Perhaps the most distinctive feature of the Conference of the Parties is its reliance on consensus.

Unlike many international organizations that adopt decisions through majority voting, COP negotiations generally continue until no Party formally objects to the proposed outcome. This practice reflects the understanding that durable climate agreements require broad international support.

Consensus encourages inclusivity and strengthens the legitimacy of adopted decisions. At the same time, it presents significant challenges. Because every Party possesses the ability to raise objections, negotiations may become lengthy and politically complex. Delegates must therefore demonstrate patience, flexibility, and a willingness to identify mutually acceptable compromises.

For this reason, successful COP negotiations rarely produce absolute winners or losers. Instead, outcomes typically reflect carefully negotiated balances among competing national priorities.

h. Draft Decisions

Unlike many UN committees, the Conference of the Parties does not adopt resolutions in the traditional United Nations General Assembly format. Instead, Parties negotiate Conference Decisions, which provide political guidance regarding implementation of the Convention and the Paris Agreement.

For the purposes of this United Nations committee, delegates may be asked to draft resolutions that resemble traditional UN documents while incorporating the practical orientation of COP decisions. Effective documents should move beyond broad declarations and instead include specific implementation measures, realistic funding mechanisms, institutional responsibilities, reporting frameworks, and timelines for action.

Delegates should avoid drafting proposals that merely encourage climate action in general terms. Instead, they should focus on identifying practical solutions that governments can realistically implement through international cooperation.

i. Negotiation Strategies

Successful delegates in COP31 should approach negotiations with both flexibility and strategic thinking.

Comprehensive preparation begins with understanding a country's Nationally Determined Contribution (NDC), emissions profile, economic structure, energy mix, climate vulnerabilities, and foreign policy priorities. Delegates should also familiarize themselves with the objectives of their negotiating bloc while recognizing opportunities for cross-regional cooperation.

Throughout negotiations, delegates should prioritize evidence-based policymaking. Scientific findings, economic feasibility, and implementation capacity should inform policy proposals. Likewise, delegates should recognize that ambitious commitments are unlikely to succeed without corresponding financial resources, technological support, institutional capacity, and political acceptance.

Finally, delegates should remember that climate diplomacy is fundamentally collaborative. The objective of COP31 is not to defeat opposing viewpoints but to develop practical solutions capable of attracting broad international support. Proposals that acknowledge differing national circumstances, balance environmental ambition with economic development, and provide realistic implementation pathways are most likely to achieve consensus.

10. Agenda Introduction

a. A New Phase of Climate Governance

Over the past three decades, international climate diplomacy has evolved from establishing a legal framework for cooperation to defining ambitious global objectives. Today, however, the international community faces a fundamentally different challenge. The principal issue is no longer the absence of commitments, but the implementation of those that already exist.

Nearly every Party to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) has adopted a Nationally Determined Contribution (NDC) under the Paris Agreement, and many governments have announced long-term strategies aimed at achieving net-zero greenhouse gas emissions during the second half of the twenty-first century. Significant progress has also been made in expanding renewable energy, improving energy efficiency, strengthening climate legislation, and increasing public awareness of climate-related risks.

Despite these achievements, scientific assessments consistently indicate that current implementation efforts remain insufficient to achieve internationally agreed climate objectives. While ambition has increased considerably, implementation has not progressed at the same pace. Financial constraints, institutional weaknesses, technological disparities, geopolitical tensions, and competing development priorities continue to delay meaningful action in many parts of the world.

As a result, contemporary climate diplomacy increasingly focuses on closing the gap between commitments and outcomes.

b. The First Global Stocktake

One of the most significant developments in recent climate negotiations was the completion of the First Global Stocktake (GST) under the Paris Agreement.

The Global Stocktake serves as a collective assessment of global progress toward achieving the long-term goals of the Paris Agreement. Rather than evaluating individual countries, it examines worldwide trends in mitigation, adaptation, climate finance, technology development, and international cooperation.

The findings of the First Global Stocktake presented a mixed assessment of international progress.

On one hand, governments have substantially expanded renewable energy deployment, strengthened climate legislation, increased investment in clean technologies, and integrated climate considerations into national development strategies. Many countries have adopted more ambitious emissions reduction targets than existed before the Paris Agreement, while businesses, financial institutions, and local governments have become increasingly engaged in climate action.

On the other hand, the Stocktake concluded that current efforts remain inadequate to place the world on a pathway consistent with achieving the long-term temperature goals of the Paris Agreement. Greenhouse gas emissions continue to exceed levels compatible with limiting global warming to well below 2°C while pursuing efforts toward 1.5°C. Adaptation efforts remain uneven across regions, and financial support for vulnerable countries continues to fall short of identified needs.

The Global Stocktake therefore represents more than a scientific assessment—it provides a roadmap for future negotiations by identifying where implementation must accelerate.

c. Global Emissions Trends

Global greenhouse gas emissions have continued to increase over recent decades despite significant advances in renewable energy and climate policy.

Rapid economic growth, urbanization, industrial expansion, increasing energy demand, and continued dependence on fossil fuels have contributed to sustained emissions growth in many regions. Although several developed economies have begun reducing domestic emissions, these reductions have often been offset by increasing emissions elsewhere.

The energy sector remains the largest source of global greenhouse gas emissions, followed by industry, transportation, agriculture, buildings, and land-use change. Decarbonizing these sectors requires long-term investment, technological innovation, regulatory reform, and international cooperation.

At the same time, renewable energy technologies have experienced remarkable growth. Declining costs of solar and wind power, expanding battery storage, improvements in electric mobility, and increased private-sector investment have accelerated the global energy transition. Nevertheless, renewable energy deployment alone remains insufficient without corresponding improvements in electricity infrastructure, industrial decarbonization, and energy efficiency.

d. The Implementation Gap

The implementation gap refers to the difference between existing climate commitments and the actions required to achieve them.

Many countries have adopted ambitious climate targets, yet implementation frequently encounters practical obstacles. Financial limitations may delay renewable energy investments. Institutional capacity constraints can hinder policy enforcement. Technological barriers restrict access to advanced clean technologies, particularly in developing countries. Political transitions may alter national priorities, while economic crises can reduce available public investment.

Implementation gaps also exist between sectors. Progress in renewable electricity generation has generally exceeded progress in transportation, heavy industry, aviation, shipping, agriculture, and urban infrastructure. Similarly, adaptation planning has expanded considerably, yet many vulnerable communities continue to lack adequate resources for implementation.

Closing these gaps requires more than additional political commitments. It demands effective institutions, stable financing, international cooperation, technological innovation, transparent monitoring, and long-term policy consistency.

e. Climate Finance as an Enabling Mechanism

Among all issues discussed within international climate negotiations, climate finance remains one of the most consequential.

Implementing climate policies requires substantial investment in renewable energy, resilient infrastructure, sustainable agriculture, clean transportation, ecosystem restoration, disaster preparedness, research, education, and technological innovation. While many developed economies possess relatively greater financial capacity, numerous developing countries face significant budgetary limitations alongside pressing development priorities.

International climate finance therefore seeks to mobilize financial resources capable of supporting mitigation and adaptation efforts where domestic resources alone are insufficient.

However, climate finance extends beyond the total amount of funding available. Delegates must also consider questions regarding accessibility, transparency, efficiency, predictability, and accountability. Many countries argue that existing financing mechanisms remain overly complex, slow to distribute resources, or insufficiently responsive to local needs.

Improving climate finance is therefore not solely a matter of increasing funding but also of strengthening the institutions responsible for delivering it effectively.

f. The Importance of a Just Transition

Efforts to reduce greenhouse gas emissions inevitably require significant economic transformation.

Many countries continue to rely heavily upon fossil fuel extraction, carbon-intensive industries, and conventional manufacturing for employment, public revenue, and economic development. Rapid decarbonization without adequate planning may generate social and economic disruption, particularly for workers and communities dependent upon these industries.

The concept of a just transition emphasizes that climate action should promote both environmental sustainability and social inclusion. Policies supporting workforce retraining, economic diversification, education, social protection, and regional development can reduce the negative consequences associated with structural economic change.

For developing countries, the challenge is particularly complex. Governments must simultaneously pursue economic growth, poverty reduction, industrialization, and emissions reductions. International cooperation therefore plays an essential role in ensuring that climate action contributes to sustainable development rather than constraining it.

g. Sustainable Development and Climate Action

Climate policy cannot be considered independently of broader development objectives.

Access to affordable energy, clean water, healthcare, education, transportation, housing, and employment all influence a country's capacity to implement climate policies.

Likewise, investments that promote sustainable development frequently generate climate benefits by improving energy efficiency, reducing pollution, protecting ecosystems, and strengthening resilience.

Consequently, climate negotiations increasingly recognize that mitigation, adaptation, and sustainable development are mutually reinforcing rather than competing objectives.

11. Current Situation

More than three decades have passed since the adoption of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, and over a decade has elapsed since the Paris Agreement established a universal framework for international climate cooperation. During this period, climate governance has expanded considerably. Governments have introduced national climate legislation, financial institutions have integrated climate risks into investment decisions, renewable energy technologies have become increasingly competitive, and public awareness of climate change has reached unprecedented levels.

These developments demonstrate that international cooperation has produced measurable progress. Nevertheless, scientific assessments consistently conclude that existing efforts remain insufficient to achieve the long-term objectives of the Paris Agreement. The defining challenge of contemporary climate governance is therefore no longer establishing political ambition but ensuring that existing commitments are translated into practical, measurable, and equitable outcomes.

Understanding the current state of global climate action requires examining developments across multiple sectors, including energy, finance, adaptation, food systems, urban development, technology, biodiversity, and international cooperation.

a. Global Emissions: Progress Amid Continuing Growth

Greenhouse gas emissions remain the most important indicator of global climate progress. While numerous countries have successfully reduced emissions through cleaner electricity generation, improved energy efficiency, and industrial modernization, global emissions remain historically high.

Several factors explain this trend. Population growth, urbanization, industrial expansion, rising living standards, and increasing energy demand have offset many emissions reductions achieved through technological improvements. Emerging economies continue to require significant energy resources to support economic development, while developed economies face the challenge of decarbonizing existing industrial systems without undermining economic competitiveness.

Importantly, emissions are distributed unevenly. Historical responsibility for climate change remains concentrated among industrialized economies that have emitted greenhouse

gases for more than a century. Current annual emissions, however, increasingly reflect rapid industrialization and population growth across a wider range of countries.

This distinction between historical emissions and current emissions remains central to international negotiations. Developed countries frequently emphasize the importance of reducing present and future emissions globally, whereas developing countries often stress historical responsibility and the principle of common but differentiated responsibilities and respective capabilities (CBDR-RC).

Consequently, climate negotiations are shaped not only by scientific evidence but also by differing interpretations of fairness, equity, and responsibility.

b. The Global Energy Transition

Energy systems lie at the heart of climate policy. Electricity generation, transportation, manufacturing, buildings, and industry collectively account for the majority of anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions.

The past decade has witnessed remarkable progress in renewable energy deployment. Declining production costs, technological innovation, supportive public policies, and increasing private investment have transformed renewable energy from a niche sector into one of the fastest-growing components of the global economy. Solar and wind energy have become economically competitive in many markets, while battery storage technologies continue to improve the reliability of renewable electricity systems.

Electrification has likewise expanded into transportation through increasing adoption of electric vehicles and the gradual development of supporting infrastructure. Many governments have also introduced policies promoting energy efficiency, sustainable buildings, and cleaner industrial production.

Despite these advances, fossil fuels continue to dominate global primary energy consumption. Coal remains essential to electricity generation in several countries, while oil continues to power the majority of global transportation. Natural gas has emerged as an important transition fuel in many regions due to its lower carbon intensity relative to coal, though debates continue regarding its long-term role within low-carbon energy systems.

Energy security has become an increasingly significant consideration in climate policy. Geopolitical instability, supply chain disruptions, fluctuating fuel prices, and concerns regarding energy affordability have demonstrated that successful decarbonization must also ensure reliable and accessible energy supplies. Consequently, governments increasingly pursue policies that balance emissions reductions with energy resilience and economic stability.

c. Adaptation: Preparing for an Unavoidable Reality

While mitigation seeks to reduce future climate change, adaptation recognizes that many climate impacts are already unavoidable.

Communities worldwide increasingly experience more frequent and severe heatwaves, floods, droughts, storms, wildfires, and coastal erosion. These events affect agricultural productivity, water availability, public health, transportation networks, biodiversity, and economic development.

Governments have responded by strengthening disaster preparedness systems, improving flood management infrastructure, investing in climate-resilient agriculture, restoring ecosystems, and developing national adaptation strategies. Advances in climate monitoring, early warning systems, and satellite technologies have further enhanced the capacity of many countries to anticipate climate-related hazards.

Nevertheless, adaptation remains unevenly distributed. Wealthier countries generally possess greater financial and institutional capacity to strengthen resilience, whereas many developing countries continue to face substantial resource constraints despite experiencing disproportionately severe climate impacts.

This disparity has contributed to growing international recognition that adaptation deserves equal attention alongside mitigation. Increasing resilience is now viewed not as an alternative to emissions reductions but as an essential component of comprehensive climate policy.

d. Climate Finance: The Foundation of Implementation

Few issues influence international climate negotiations more profoundly than climate finance.

Virtually every aspect of climate action requires substantial financial investment including renewable energy deployment, adaptation infrastructure, technological innovation, sustainable agriculture, ecosystem restoration, disaster preparedness, and institutional capacity building.

Over the past decade, climate finance has expanded considerably. Public investment has increased, multilateral development banks have incorporated climate considerations into lending strategies, and private financial institutions have developed new investment instruments focused on sustainability. Green bonds, sustainability-linked finance, blended finance mechanisms, and climate investment funds have become increasingly prominent components of the global financial system.

However, important challenges remain.

Many developing countries continue to report that available financial resources are insufficient to meet implementation needs. Accessing international climate finance often requires complex administrative procedures and institutional capacity that some countries struggle to maintain. Furthermore, mitigation projects generally attract greater financial support than adaptation initiatives, despite increasing demand for climate resilience particularly renewable energy investments.

Another challenge concerns the mobilization of private capital. Public funding alone cannot finance the scale of investment required for global decarbonization. Consequently, governments increasingly seek policies capable of reducing investment risk, encouraging private-sector participation, and leveraging international financial institutions to mobilize significantly larger financial flows.

As implementation becomes the central priority of international climate governance, climate finance increasingly represents not merely a policy issue but the enabling mechanism upon which many other climate objectives depend.

e. Sustainable Agriculture and Food Systems

Agriculture occupies a unique position within the global climate agenda. Unlike many other sectors, agriculture is simultaneously a contributor to climate change and one of the sectors most vulnerable to its impacts. Crop production, livestock farming, fertilizer use, and land-use change contribute significantly to greenhouse gas emissions, while changing weather patterns directly affect agricultural productivity, food security, and rural livelihoods.

Climate change has altered growing seasons, increased the frequency of droughts and floods, intensified pest outbreaks, and reduced agricultural productivity in many regions. These developments have important implications for global food markets, particularly as the world's population continues to grow and demand for food increases.

In response, governments and international organizations have increasingly promoted climate-smart agriculture, an approach that seeks to improve agricultural productivity while reducing greenhouse gas emissions and strengthening resilience to climate impacts. Climate-smart practices include precision irrigation, drought-resistant crop varieties, sustainable soil management, agroforestry, improved livestock management, and digital monitoring technologies.

However, implementing these measures often requires financial investment, technical expertise, and institutional support that remain inaccessible to many farmers, particularly in low-income countries. Smallholder farmers frequently face difficulties accessing credit, insurance, modern equipment, and climate information services, limiting their capacity to adapt to changing environmental conditions.

Food security has therefore become an increasingly important component of climate negotiations. Delegates should recognize that ensuring stable food production while reducing emissions presents one of the most significant long-term challenges facing the international community.

f. Water Resources and Climate Security

Water is one of the resources most directly affected by climate change. Rising temperatures, shifting precipitation patterns, melting glaciers, and increasing evaporation have altered the availability and distribution of freshwater resources across many regions.

Some countries experience prolonged droughts that reduce agricultural productivity, limit hydroelectric generation, and threaten drinking water supplies. Others face increasingly severe floods that damage infrastructure, contaminate water resources, and displace communities. In coastal regions, sea-level rise contributes to saltwater intrusion, reducing the availability of freshwater for agriculture and domestic use.

Water insecurity has implications that extend beyond environmental concerns. Competition over limited water resources may intensify social tensions, increase migration, disrupt economic development, and complicate regional cooperation. Although climate change is rarely the sole cause of conflict, it can exacerbate existing political and economic vulnerabilities.

Recognizing these challenges, governments have increasingly invested in integrated water resource management, improved irrigation systems, watershed restoration, desalination technologies, wastewater recycling, and early warning systems. Nevertheless, access to these solutions remains highly unequal, reinforcing the importance of international cooperation, financial assistance, and technology transfer.

g. Cities, Infrastructure, and Urban Development

Urban areas have become central to both the causes of and solutions to climate change. More than half of the world's population lives in cities, and urban centers account for a substantial share of global energy consumption, greenhouse gas emissions, and economic activity.

Rapid urbanization creates opportunities for sustainable development through improved public transportation, energy-efficient buildings, modern waste management systems, and compact urban planning. Well-designed cities can reduce emissions while improving public health, economic productivity, and quality of life.

At the same time, many cities remain highly vulnerable to climate impacts. Coastal cities face rising sea levels and storm surges, while inland urban areas increasingly

experience extreme heat, flooding, and water scarcity. Aging infrastructure often lacks the resilience necessary to withstand more frequent and intense climate-related hazards.

As a result, governments have increasingly prioritized investments in climate-resilient infrastructure. Such investments include flood protection systems, sustainable drainage networks, green public spaces, resilient transportation systems, modern electricity grids, and energy-efficient construction.

Urban climate policy also depends heavily upon local governments. Although international climate agreements are negotiated by national governments, municipal authorities frequently possess direct responsibility for transportation, land-use planning, waste management, and public infrastructure. Strengthening cooperation between national and local governments has therefore become an important element of effective implementation.

h. Biodiversity, Forests, and Nature-Based Solutions

Healthy ecosystems play an essential role in regulating the global climate. Forests, wetlands, mangroves, peatlands, and oceans absorb significant quantities of carbon dioxide while simultaneously supporting biodiversity, protecting water resources, and reducing disaster risks.

Deforestation and ecosystem degradation, however, continue to undermine these natural climate functions. Expanding agriculture, illegal logging, infrastructure development, mining, and unsustainable land management contribute to biodiversity loss while reducing the capacity of ecosystems to store carbon.

Consequently, international climate policy increasingly emphasizes nature-based solutions. These approaches seek to address climate change by protecting, restoring, and sustainably managing natural ecosystems.

Examples include large-scale reforestation and afforestation projects, wetland restoration, mangrove conservation, sustainable forest management, regenerative agriculture, and ecosystem-based adaptation. Beyond reducing emissions, these initiatives provide additional benefits such as improved water quality, enhanced biodiversity, reduced flood risk, and strengthened rural livelihoods.

Nevertheless, members should recognize that nature-based solutions are not substitutes for emissions reductions. While ecosystem restoration can make substantial contributions to climate mitigation, long-term success ultimately depends upon reducing greenhouse gas emissions across all sectors of the economy.

i. Technology, Innovation, and Digital Transformation

Technological innovation has become one of the most significant drivers of climate action. Advances in renewable energy, energy storage, hydrogen production, carbon capture technologies, sustainable materials, and digital monitoring systems have expanded the range of available policy options available to governments.

Digital technologies are increasingly transforming climate governance. Artificial intelligence can improve energy management, optimize electricity grids, monitor deforestation, forecast extreme weather events, and enhance disaster response. Satellite observations provide increasingly accurate information regarding emissions, land-use change, and ecosystem health, strengthening transparency and accountability.

The expansion of digital technologies also improves implementation by enabling governments to monitor progress more effectively, evaluate policy outcomes, and identify emerging climate risks.

However, technological progress remains uneven. Significant disparities persist regarding research capacity, digital infrastructure, technical education, and access to advanced technologies. Many developing countries continue to depend upon international partnerships to acquire the expertise and equipment necessary to implement sophisticated climate solutions.

Technology transfer therefore remains a cornerstone of international climate cooperation. Delegates should consider not only how innovative technologies can be developed, but also how they can be deployed equitably across countries with differing levels of economic and institutional capacity.

j. Private Investment and International Cooperation

Achieving the objectives of the Paris Agreement requires investment on a scale that cannot be provided by governments alone. While public finance plays an essential role in supporting implementation, private investment increasingly determines the pace of the global transition toward sustainable development.

Institutional investors, commercial banks, insurance companies, pension funds, and multinational corporations have become major participants in climate finance. Environmental, Social, and Governance (ESG) frameworks, sustainability reporting standards, and climate-related financial disclosures have encouraged many businesses to integrate climate considerations into long-term investment strategies.

Nevertheless, significant barriers continue to discourage private investment in many developing countries. Political uncertainty, regulatory instability, limited financial markets,

and inadequate infrastructure increase investment risks, reducing the attractiveness of many climate-related projects.

International cooperation therefore remains essential. Multilateral development banks, international financial institutions, export credit agencies, and development partners increasingly seek to reduce investment risks through guarantees, blended finance mechanisms, technical assistance, and concessional lending. By combining public and private resources, these institutions aim to mobilize significantly greater investment than governments could provide independently.

This evolving financial landscape reflects a broader transformation in climate governance. Implementation is no longer viewed solely as the responsibility of national governments but as a collaborative effort involving international organizations, financial institutions, businesses, research institutions, and civil society.

12. Major Challenges

a. Introduction

The international community has reached an unprecedented level of agreement regarding the urgency of climate action. Nearly every country has acknowledged the scientific consensus on climate change, adopted national climate commitments under the Paris Agreement, and participated in successive Conferences of the Parties (COPs). Yet the existence of international agreements has not automatically translated into effective implementation.

This disparity between political commitment and practical action is often described as the implementation gap. It reflects the reality that climate policies are rarely limited by scientific knowledge alone. Instead, implementation is influenced by financial capacity, institutional strength, technological development, economic priorities, geopolitical conditions, and domestic political considerations.

Implementation therefore represents one of the most complex challenges in international governance. Countries must simultaneously pursue emissions reductions, economic development, energy security, social stability, and sustainable growth while responding to increasingly visible climate impacts.

The following sections examine the principal barriers that continue to slow global climate implementation.

b. Financing the Global Transition

Perhaps no issue generates more discussion during climate negotiations than finance. Ambitious climate objectives require enormous investments in renewable energy, resilient infrastructure, sustainable transportation, ecosystem restoration, research and development, education, disaster preparedness, and institutional capacity.

Although international climate finance has increased significantly over the past decade, available resources remain insufficient relative to estimated implementation needs. Many developing countries continue to face limited fiscal capacity while simultaneously confronting pressing priorities such as healthcare, education, poverty reduction, and economic development.

Even when funding is available, accessing international financial mechanisms can be challenging. Complex application procedures, reporting requirements, institutional limitations, and lengthy approval processes often delay project implementation. Smaller and less-developed countries may lack the administrative capacity necessary to prepare competitive funding proposals or manage large-scale international projects.

Furthermore, climate finance remains unevenly distributed. Mitigation projects, particularly those involving renewable energy generation, often attract greater investment because they generate measurable financial returns. Adaptation projects, by contrast, frequently produce social and environmental benefits that are more difficult to monetize, making them less attractive to private investors.

Closing the implementation gap therefore requires not only increasing financial resources but also improving their accessibility, efficiency, transparency, and long-term predictability.

c. Development and Decarbonization

One of the most politically sensitive issues within international climate negotiations concerns the relationship between economic development and emissions reductions.

Many developed economies began industrializing more than a century ago using fossil fuels as their primary source of energy. As a result, they accumulated substantial wealth while contributing significantly to historical greenhouse gas emissions.

Many developing countries argue that they should retain sufficient policy flexibility to pursue industrialization, poverty reduction, and infrastructure development before undertaking rapid decarbonization. They emphasize that limiting access to affordable energy could constrain economic growth, employment, and improvements in living standards.

Developed countries generally acknowledge historical responsibility while emphasizing that current and future emissions reductions must involve all major economies if international climate objectives are to be achieved.

This debate illustrates one of the central dilemmas confronting climate diplomacy: how can countries pursue sustainable development without repeating carbon-intensive development pathways followed during earlier industrialization?

Resolving this challenge requires balancing environmental objectives with economic opportunity, social equity, and national development priorities.

d. Energy Security and the Global Transition

Energy systems form the foundation of modern economies. Reliable access to electricity and fuel supports healthcare, education, manufacturing, transportation, communication, and virtually every aspect of contemporary society.

Climate policy therefore cannot focus exclusively on emissions reductions without considering energy security.

Recent geopolitical developments have demonstrated how disruptions in global energy markets can influence national climate policies. Supply chain interruptions, fluctuating fuel prices, geopolitical conflicts, and increasing electricity demand have encouraged some governments to prioritize short-term energy security alongside long-term decarbonization objectives.

Many countries therefore face difficult policy choices. Accelerating renewable energy deployment may reduce emissions but requires substantial investment in electricity grids, storage technologies, and transmission infrastructure. Maintaining existing fossil fuel infrastructure may enhance short-term reliability but risks delaying long-term emissions reductions.

An effective implementation strategy must therefore recognize that climate ambition and energy security are complementary rather than competing objectives. Reliable, affordable, and sustainable energy systems remain essential for maintaining public support throughout the transition.

e. Adaptation and the Growing Resilience Gap

For many years, mitigation dominated international climate negotiations. Today, however, adaptation has become equally important.

Climate impacts are already affecting communities across every continent. Heatwaves, floods, droughts, sea-level rise, and changing precipitation patterns increasingly threaten food production, water resources, infrastructure, biodiversity, and public health.

Despite growing recognition of these risks, adaptation efforts remain uneven. Wealthier countries often possess greater financial resources, stronger institutions, and more advanced infrastructure capable of reducing climate vulnerability. Conversely, many developing countries experience greater exposure to climate hazards while possessing fewer resources for adaptation.

This imbalance contributes to what is commonly described as the adaptation gap which is the difference between the adaptation measures required and those actually implemented.

Closing this gap requires long-term investment, institutional strengthening, knowledge sharing, and greater integration of adaptation into national development planning. Delegates should recognize that resilience is not achieved through isolated infrastructure projects alone but through comprehensive planning across agriculture, healthcare, urban development, water management, and disaster preparedness.

f. Technology Transfer and Capacity Building

Technological innovation has expanded the range of available climate solutions, yet unequal access to technology continues to hinder implementation.

Many developing countries require access to advanced renewable energy systems, climate monitoring technologies, resilient agricultural practices, digital infrastructure, and specialized technical expertise. While international cooperation has improved technology sharing, important barriers remain.

High costs, intellectual property considerations, limited technical education, inadequate infrastructure, and shortages of skilled personnel may delay technology deployment. Furthermore, introducing advanced technologies without corresponding institutional capacity often limits their long-term effectiveness.

Capacity building therefore remains as important as technology transfer itself. Governments require trained professionals, effective regulatory institutions, reliable data systems, and transparent governance structures capable of supporting implementation over many decades.

Strengthening domestic institutions ultimately determines whether climate policies produce durable and measurable outcomes.

g. Accountability, Transparency, and Measuring Progress

International agreements depend upon trust among Parties. Governments must have confidence that commitments made during negotiations are being implemented fairly and transparently.

The Paris Agreement strengthened transparency through common reporting frameworks, regular progress assessments, and the Global Stocktake. Nevertheless, measuring implementation remains challenging.

Countries possess differing statistical capacities, institutional resources, and monitoring systems. Certain emissions sources are easier to measure than others, while adaptation outcomes are often more difficult to quantify than mitigation efforts.

Furthermore, questions remain regarding how implementation should be evaluated. Should progress be measured according to emissions reductions alone? Should resilience, biodiversity protection, technological innovation, and sustainable development receive equal consideration?

Developing credible, transparent, and comparable monitoring systems remains essential for strengthening international confidence and encouraging greater cooperation.

h. Geopolitics and International Cooperation

Climate diplomacy does not occur in isolation from broader international relations. Economic competition, armed conflict, trade disputes, sanctions, supply chain disruptions, and shifting geopolitical alliances all influence climate negotiations.

Periods of geopolitical instability may reduce available financial resources, disrupt technology cooperation, complicate international trade, and divert political attention toward immediate security concerns. At the same time, strategic competition may accelerate innovation in renewable energy, clean technologies, and sustainable manufacturing.

These competing dynamics illustrate that climate cooperation must remain resilient despite changing geopolitical circumstances.

Members should therefore consider how international institutions can strengthen cooperation even during periods of political uncertainty. Mechanisms that promote dialogue, scientific collaboration, technology exchange, and predictable financing may contribute to maintaining long-term implementation despite broader geopolitical challenges.

i. Balancing Equity with Ambition

Perhaps the most enduring challenge in international climate governance is balancing equity with ambition.

Countries differ substantially in their historical emissions, economic capacity, population size, technological development, energy resources, and vulnerability to climate impacts. Policies that appear reasonable for one country may be economically or politically unrealistic for another.

International climate agreements therefore seek to combine universal participation with differentiated responsibilities. This balance remains difficult to achieve. Excessive flexibility may reduce overall ambition, while excessively uniform obligations may overlook legitimate differences in national circumstances.

Successful implementation requires policies that are both environmentally effective and politically equitable. Delegates should therefore evaluate proposals not only according to their potential environmental benefits but also according to their fairness, feasibility, and capacity to attract broad international support.

j. Moving from Commitments to Results

The defining challenge of COP31 is no longer establishing new principles but improving implementation of existing commitments.

Scientific knowledge, technological innovation, and political awareness have advanced significantly over recent decades. The remaining challenge lies in translating these achievements into practical outcomes capable of reducing emissions, strengthening resilience, mobilizing investment, and supporting sustainable development.

Achieving this objective requires cooperation among governments, international organizations, financial institutions, businesses, researchers, civil society, and local communities. No single actor possesses sufficient authority or resources to address climate change independently.

For members, implementation should therefore be understood as a process rather than a single policy objective. Effective climate governance depends upon financing, technology, institutions, transparency, international cooperation, and public support working together within a coherent and long-term framework.

As the international community enters a new phase of climate diplomacy, success will increasingly be measured not by the number of commitments announced but by the extent to which those commitments produce tangible, measurable, and lasting results.

13. Previous International Efforts

a. Introduction

The international climate regime has evolved through successive agreements, financial mechanisms, and institutional reforms over more than three decades. Each new initiative has sought to address shortcomings identified in previous negotiations while responding to advances in scientific knowledge, technological development, and changing political realities.

Although these efforts have contributed significantly to the development of global climate governance, none has fully resolved the challenge of implementation. Some mechanisms have successfully mobilized international cooperation and financial resources, while others have encountered political disagreements, institutional limitations, or insufficient participation.

b. The Kyoto Protocol: Binding Commitments with Limited Participation

The Kyoto Protocol, adopted in 1997 and entering into force in 2005, represented the first international agreement to establish legally binding greenhouse gas emission reduction targets for developed countries.

The Protocol reflected the principle of Common but Differentiated Responsibilities and Respective Capabilities (CBDR-RC) by recognizing that industrialized countries had contributed the majority of historical greenhouse gas emissions and therefore should assume greater responsibility for early mitigation efforts.

Kyoto introduced innovative mechanisms, including international emissions trading, Joint Implementation (JI), and the Clean Development Mechanism (CDM), which allowed countries to cooperate in reducing emissions while encouraging investment in lower-carbon development.

Despite these innovations, the Protocol faced significant limitations. Participation remained incomplete, with some major emitters either not ratifying the agreement or withdrawing from its commitments. Rapid economic growth in several emerging economies also altered the global emissions landscape, reducing the effectiveness of an agreement that imposed binding obligations on only a limited group of countries.

The Kyoto Protocol demonstrated that legally binding commitments alone are insufficient without broad international participation. It also highlighted the importance of flexibility, transparency, and ensuring that climate agreements reflect evolving global economic realities rather than historical conditions alone.

c. The Paris Agreement: Universal Participation

Recognizing the limitations of previous approaches, the Paris Agreement introduced a fundamentally different model of international cooperation.

Rather than imposing uniform emission reduction targets, the Agreement allows each Party to determine its own Nationally Determined Contribution (NDC) while committing all countries to progressively strengthen their climate ambition over time.

This flexible framework significantly increased participation. Nearly every country in the world now contributes to international climate action through nationally determined commitments tailored to domestic circumstances.

The Paris Agreement also established a long-term temperature objective, strengthened transparency arrangements, encouraged adaptation planning, promoted climate finance, and introduced the Global Stocktake as a mechanism for periodically evaluating collective progress.

The Paris Agreement demonstrated that universal participation can be achieved through flexibility and nationally determined implementation. However, flexibility also creates new challenges. Because countries determine their own commitments, overall global ambition depends upon domestic political will, institutional capacity, and sustained international cooperation.

Implementation therefore remains the defining challenge of the Paris framework.

d. The Green Climate Fund

The Green Climate Fund (GCF) was established to support developing countries in implementing mitigation and adaptation measures.

As the largest multilateral climate finance mechanism under the UNFCCC, the Fund finances projects related to renewable energy, climate-resilient infrastructure, sustainable agriculture, forest conservation, water management, disaster preparedness, and institutional strengthening.

The Fund has supported hundreds of projects across developing countries while encouraging cooperation among governments, multilateral development banks, international organizations, and private-sector partners.

Nevertheless, important challenges remain. Many developing countries have expressed concerns regarding lengthy approval procedures, administrative complexity, limited institutional capacity for preparing proposals, and the overall scale of available funding relative to growing implementation needs.

Climate finance is essential for implementation, but effectiveness depends not only on the quantity of funding available. Accessibility, efficiency, transparency, and institutional capacity are equally important determinants of successful implementation.

e. The Adaptation Fund

The Adaptation Fund was established to finance projects specifically designed to strengthen resilience to climate change in vulnerable countries.

Unlike broader financing mechanisms that support both mitigation and adaptation, the Adaptation Fund focuses on practical measures that reduce climate risks faced by communities already experiencing climate impacts.

Projects supported by the Fund include flood protection infrastructure, drought management, climate-resilient agriculture, coastal protection, ecosystem restoration, disaster risk reduction, and community-based adaptation initiatives.

The Fund has demonstrated that relatively targeted investments can produce significant local benefits. However, available resources remain considerably smaller than estimated global adaptation needs.

Adaptation projects often deliver immediate social and environmental benefits but remain consistently underfunded relative to mitigation initiatives. Strengthening resilience therefore requires greater political attention and more balanced allocation of international financial resources.

f. Article 6 and International Carbon Markets

One of the most technically complex components of the Paris Agreement concerns Article 6, which establishes mechanisms allowing countries to cooperate voluntarily in achieving their climate commitments.

International carbon markets seek to improve economic efficiency by enabling emissions reductions to occur where they can be achieved at lower cost. Countries may cooperate through the transfer of internationally recognized mitigation outcomes while maintaining overall environmental integrity.

Supporters argue that well-designed carbon markets can mobilize private investment, reduce implementation costs, encourage innovation, and increase international cooperation.

Critics, however, have raised concerns regarding transparency, double counting, environmental integrity, and the possibility that carbon markets could delay domestic emissions reductions if not carefully regulated.

Following years of negotiations, Parties finalized key elements of the Article 6 rulebook, providing greater clarity regarding accounting methodologies, reporting requirements, and safeguards.

Market mechanisms can contribute to implementation when supported by robust governance, transparent accounting, and effective oversight. Strong regulatory frameworks are essential for maintaining credibility and ensuring genuine emissions reductions.

g. The Loss and Damage Fund

As climate impacts intensified, vulnerable countries increasingly argued that mitigation and adaptation alone could not address irreversible climate-related losses.

This recognition led to the establishment of the Loss and Damage Fund, intended to support countries experiencing severe climate impacts that cannot be fully prevented through adaptation measures.

The creation of the Fund represented an important political milestone by acknowledging the growing needs of countries facing irreversible climate consequences.

However, establishing a financial mechanism represents only the beginning of implementation. Questions concerning funding sources, governance structures, eligibility criteria, operational procedures, and long-term sustainability continue to shape international discussions.

Political agreement is only the first step toward effective implementation. Institutional design, sustainable financing, and practical operational arrangements ultimately determine whether international commitments produce meaningful outcomes.

h. The Global Stocktake

The First Global Stocktake provided the most comprehensive assessment of collective progress under the Paris Agreement.

Rather than evaluating individual countries, the Stocktake assessed worldwide implementation across mitigation, adaptation, finance, technology transfer, and capacity building.

Its findings highlighted both achievements and shortcomings. Renewable energy deployment has accelerated, climate governance has strengthened, and international participation has expanded. Nevertheless, global emissions remain inconsistent with long-term temperature goals, adaptation efforts require substantial expansion, and climate finance remains insufficient.

Perhaps most importantly, the Stocktake shifted international attention from announcing new commitments toward evaluating implementation of existing ones.

Regular assessment strengthens accountability and enables evidence-based policymaking. However, assessment mechanisms alone cannot improve implementation unless accompanied by stronger political commitment, financing, and institutional capacity.

i. Cross-Cutting Lessons for COP31

Several important lessons emerge from more than thirty years of international climate cooperation.

First, broad participation is essential. Agreements that fail to include major emitters or vulnerable countries cannot effectively address a global challenge.

Second, flexibility encourages participation but must be accompanied by transparency and accountability to maintain credibility.

Third, implementation depends upon adequate financing, institutional capacity, technological cooperation, and effective governance rather than political declarations alone.

Fourth, climate action cannot be separated from sustainable development. Policies are more likely to succeed when they simultaneously promote economic opportunity, social inclusion, energy security, and environmental protection.

Finally, international cooperation remains indispensable. Climate change transcends national borders, making collective action both necessary and unavoidable.

j. Relevance to COP31

COP31 represents the continuation of a process that has evolved through decades of negotiation, experimentation, and institutional learning.

Members should not view previous agreements as isolated historical events but as interconnected components of an evolving international governance system. Each agreement has contributed valuable experience regarding what enables implementation and what prevents it.

The responsibility of members at COP31 is therefore not to redesign the international climate regime from the beginning, but to build upon these accumulated lessons while addressing the implementation challenges that remain unresolved.

The effectiveness of future climate governance will depend less on creating entirely new institutions than on improving the performance, coordination, accessibility, and accountability of those that already exist.

I think we've reached the part that makes or breaks a COP study guide. Most guides simply list blocs and say "they support climate finance" or "they prioritize mitigation." That isn't very helpful during debate.

Instead, let's write this as a ****negotiation guide****, explaining ***why*** each bloc takes its positions and where compromise is possible.

14. Bloc Positions

a. Introduction

Although every Party to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) negotiates as a sovereign state, climate diplomacy is largely conducted through negotiating blocs. These coalitions enable countries with shared priorities, geographical circumstances, or levels of economic development to coordinate their positions and strengthen their collective influence during negotiations.

Negotiating blocs do not require complete policy uniformity. Member States frequently maintain individual priorities that differ from those of the broader coalition. Nevertheless, bloc coordination remains one of the defining characteristics of Conference of the Parties (COP) negotiations and significantly influences both formal discussions and informal consultations.

Delegates should therefore understand not only the priorities of their assigned country but also the broader objectives of the negotiating group to which it belongs.

b. Group of 77 and China (G77 and China)

The G77 and China is the largest negotiating coalition within the UN climate regime, representing more than one hundred developing countries from Africa, Asia, Latin America, the Caribbean, and the Pacific. Although its members differ significantly in economic structure, political systems, and levels of development, they generally share several common priorities.

The coalition consistently emphasizes the principle of Common but Differentiated Responsibilities and Respective Capabilities (CBDR-RC), arguing that developed countries bear greater historical responsibility for climate change and should therefore assume greater obligations regarding emissions reductions, financial assistance, and technology transfer.

The bloc also advocates increased climate finance, simplified access to international funding, expanded adaptation support, stronger capacity-building initiatives, and equitable implementation of the Paris Agreement.

Because the coalition encompasses highly diverse national interests, achieving internal consensus can sometimes prove challenging. Nevertheless, the G77 and China remains one of the most influential voices advocating implementation that reflects development needs and global equity.

c. European Union (EU)

The European Union has historically positioned itself as one of the strongest advocates for ambitious international climate action. Through coordinated negotiations among its Member States, the EU generally promotes strengthened mitigation commitments, expanded renewable energy deployment, transparent reporting mechanisms, and robust implementation of the Paris Agreement.

The Union has invested heavily in climate legislation, emissions trading systems, sustainable finance, and clean energy technologies. As a result, EU delegations often encourage stronger implementation frameworks supported by measurable targets, transparent monitoring, and international cooperation.

At the same time, the European Union recognizes that implementation requires financial support for developing countries and has consistently contributed to international climate finance mechanisms.

During negotiations, the EU frequently seeks compromises that preserve environmental ambition while maintaining broad international participation.

d. Umbrella Group

The Umbrella Group consists primarily of developed economies outside the European Union, including countries such as Australia, Canada, Japan, New Zealand, Norway, the United Kingdom, and the United States, though participation has varied over time.

Members generally support market-based approaches, technological innovation, private-sector participation, and flexible implementation mechanisms. Carbon markets, clean technology investment, and public-private partnerships frequently receive strong support within the group.

Because members possess diverse domestic political systems and energy structures, positions occasionally differ on specific issues such as fossil fuel transitions, international finance, and regulatory approaches.

Nevertheless, the group generally emphasizes practical implementation, innovation, and economic efficiency as essential components of long-term climate policy.

e. Alliance of Small Island States (AOSIS)

The Alliance of Small Island States represents countries facing some of the most immediate and severe consequences of climate change.

Sea-level rise, coastal erosion, saltwater intrusion, stronger tropical cyclones, coral reef degradation, and changing marine ecosystems present existential challenges for many member states. For some island nations, climate change threatens not only economic development but also territorial integrity and national sovereignty.

Consequently, AOSIS consistently advocates ambitious global mitigation efforts alongside increased adaptation finance and effective implementation of the Loss and Damage Fund.

The alliance also emphasizes that delaying implementation carries disproportionate consequences for highly vulnerable countries. As a result, AOSIS frequently encourages stronger accountability mechanisms and accelerated international cooperation.

f. Least Developed Countries (LDC) Group

The Least Developed Countries Group represents nations that often possess limited financial resources, institutional capacity, and technical infrastructure while simultaneously experiencing high vulnerability to climate impacts.

For many members, adaptation constitutes an immediate development priority. Food security, water management, disaster preparedness, public health, and resilient infrastructure frequently receive greater attention than long-term mitigation policies.

The group therefore advocates increased adaptation finance, simplified access to international funding, technology transfer, institutional capacity building, and greater recognition of countries with limited implementation capacity.

The LDC Group also emphasizes that climate policy should contribute to sustainable development rather than impose additional obstacles to poverty reduction.

g. African Group of Negotiators (AGN)

The African Group of Negotiators represents the collective interests of African countries within the UNFCCC process.

Africa contributes a relatively small share of historical greenhouse gas emissions yet faces significant climate-related risks, including desertification, water scarcity, food insecurity, biodiversity loss, and increasing vulnerability to extreme weather events.

Consequently, the AGN advocates stronger adaptation support, increased climate finance, technology transfer, resilient infrastructure development, and equitable implementation of international agreements.

The group also highlights opportunities associated with renewable energy expansion, sustainable industrialization, and green economic development across the continent.

h. BASIC Countries

The BASIC coalition consisting of Brazil, South Africa, India, and China, brings together four major emerging economies whose positions frequently influence international negotiations.

These countries generally support ambitious climate action while emphasizing the importance of sustainable economic development, poverty reduction, and differentiated responsibilities.

BASIC countries often advocate flexibility regarding implementation timelines, expanded financial support, technology cooperation, and recognition of differing national circumstances.

Given their growing economic influence and substantial emissions profiles, BASIC members frequently occupy a central position within climate negotiations by engaging with both developed and developing country coalitions.

i. Environmental Integrity Group (EIG)

The Environmental Integrity Group consists of a smaller coalition of countries that seek to promote ambitious environmental objectives while encouraging pragmatic and evidence-based implementation.

Members generally support transparent reporting systems, effective multilateral institutions, scientific decision-making, and constructive dialogue among negotiating blocs.

Although smaller than several other coalitions, the EIG often contributes compromise proposals capable of bridging differences between larger negotiating groups.

j. Areas of Consensus and Disagreement

Despite differing national priorities, several areas enjoy broad international support.

Most Parties recognize the importance of implementing the Paris Agreement, strengthening resilience, expanding renewable energy, increasing international cooperation, improving transparency, and mobilizing greater investment for climate action.

However, significant differences remain regarding the distribution of responsibilities, the scale and accessibility of climate finance, the pace of fossil fuel transitions, the design of carbon markets, technology transfer, and mechanisms for monitoring implementation.

Understanding these differences is essential for effective negotiation. Successful delegates should identify areas where compromise is possible rather than focusing exclusively on disagreements.

For example, countries that disagree on emissions targets may nevertheless cooperate on renewable energy research, early warning systems, resilient agriculture, disaster risk reduction, or institutional capacity building.

15. Questions to Consider

- * How can international climate finance become more accessible to countries with limited institutional capacity?
- * What role should multilateral development banks and international financial institutions play in mobilizing private investment?
- * How can adaptation projects attract greater financial support?
- * What mechanisms can improve implementation without creating excessive administrative burdens?
- * How can countries measure implementation consistently while respecting differing national capacities?
- * How can technology transfer be expanded while encouraging continued innovation?
- * What role should digital technologies and artificial intelligence play in implementation?
- * How can capacity building accompany technological cooperation?
- * How can countries strengthen energy security while reducing dependence on fossil fuels?
- * What policies can support workers and communities affected by decarbonization?
- * How should governments balance industrial competitiveness with emissions reductions?
- * Which sectors require immediate adaptation investment?
- * What mechanisms can strengthen disaster preparedness and climate resilience?
- * Which existing international institutions require reform?
- * How can implementation remain effective despite geopolitical tensions?

16. Bibliography

Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. (2014). Climate change 2014: Synthesis report. IPCC. <https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar5/syr/>

Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. (2022). Climate change 2022: Impacts, adaptation and vulnerability. Cambridge University Press. <https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg2/>

Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. (2022). Climate change 2022: Mitigation of climate change. Cambridge University Press. <https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg3/>

Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. (2023). Climate change 2023: Synthesis report. IPCC. <https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/syr/>

International Energy Agency. (2023). Net zero roadmap: A global pathway to keep the 1.5°C goal in reach. IEA. <https://www.iea.org/reports/net-zero-roadmap-2023>

International Energy Agency. (2024). World energy outlook 2024. IEA.

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. (2023). Climate finance provided and mobilised by developed countries in 2013–2022. OECD Publishing.

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. (2023). Investing in climate, investing in growth. OECD Publishing.

United Nations. (1992). United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change. <https://unfccc.int>

United Nations. (1998). Kyoto Protocol to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change. <https://unfccc.int>

United Nations. (2015). Paris Agreement. <https://unfccc.int>

United Nations. (2023). Outcome of the first global stocktake. UNFCCC.

United Nations Development Programme. (2023). Human development report 2023/2024. UNDP. <https://hdr.undp.org>

United Nations Development Programme. (2024). Climate promise 2024. UNDP.

United Nations Environment Programme. (2022). Adaptation gap report 2022. UNEP.

United Nations Environment Programme. (2023). Emissions gap report 2023. UNEP.

United Nations Environment Programme. (2024). Adaptation gap report 2024. UNEP.

United Nations Environment Programme. (2024). Emissions gap report 2024. UNEP.

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change. (1992). Convention text. <https://unfccc.int>

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change. (2021). Glasgow Climate Pact. <https://unfccc.int>

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change. (2022). Sharm el-Sheikh Implementation Plan. <https://unfccc.int>

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change. (2023). UAE Consensus. <https://unfccc.int>

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change. (2023). Technical dialogue of the first global stocktake. <https://unfccc.int>

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change. (2024). Nationally determined contributions registry. <https://unfccc.int/NDCREG>

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change. (2024). National adaptation plans. <https://unfccc.int>

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change. (2024). Introduction to the Conference of the Parties (COP). <https://unfccc.int/process/bodies/supreme-bodies/conference-of-the-parties-cop>

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change. (2024). Introduction to SBSTA. <https://unfccc.int>

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change. (2024). Introduction to SBI. <https://unfccc.int>

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change. (2024). Article 6 implementation resources. <https://unfccc.int>

United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction. (2023). Global assessment report on disaster risk reduction 2023. UNDRR.

United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction. (2024). Early warning for all initiative. UNDRR.

United Nations Conference on Trade and Development. (2023). Trade and development report 2023. UNCTAD.

United Nations Conference on Trade and Development. (2024). World investment report 2024. UNCTAD.

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. (2024). World population prospects 2024. UN DESA.

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. (2024). The sustainable development goals report 2024. UN DESA.

United Nations Human Settlements Programme. (2022). World cities report 2022. UN-Habitat.

United Nations Human Settlements Programme. (2024). Cities and climate action. UN-Habitat.

World Bank. (2022). Country climate and development reports. World Bank.

World Bank. (2023). State and trends of carbon pricing 2023. World Bank.

World Bank. (2024). State and trends of carbon pricing 2024. World Bank.

World Bank. (2024). World development report 2024. World Bank.

World Meteorological Organization. (2023). State of the global climate 2023. WMO.

World Meteorological Organization. (2024). State of the global climate 2024. WMO.

Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. (2022). The state of food and agriculture 2022. FAO.

Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. (2023). The state of food security and nutrition in the world 2023. FAO.

Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. (2024). The state of the world's forests 2024. FAO.

Green Climate Fund. (2024). About the Green Climate Fund. <https://www.greenclimate.fund>

Adaptation Fund. (2024). About the Adaptation Fund. <https://www.adaptation-fund.org>

Climate Investment Funds. (2024). Annual report 2024. Climate Investment Funds.

International Renewable Energy Agency. (2023). World energy transitions outlook 2023. IRENA.

International Renewable Energy Agency. (2024). Renewable capacity statistics 2024. IRENA.

Global Center on Adaptation. (2023). State and trends in adaptation report 2023. Global Center on Adaptation.

International Monetary Fund. (2023). Fiscal monitor: Climate crossroads. IMF.

International Monetary Fund. (2024). World economic outlook 2024. IMF.

International Monetary Fund. (2024). Getting energy prices right. IMF.

Sachs, J. D. (2015). The age of sustainable development. Columbia University Press.

Stern, N. (2007). The economics of climate change: The Stern review. Cambridge University Press.

Keohane, R. O., & Victor, D. G. (2016). Cooperation and discord in global climate policy. *Nature Climate Change*, 6(6), 570–575.

Ostrom, E. (2010). Polycentric systems for coping with collective action and global environmental change. *Global Environmental Change*, 20(4), 550–557.

Victor, D. G. (2011). Global warming gridlock: Creating more effective strategies for protecting the planet. Cambridge University Press.

Bodansky, D. (2016). The Paris climate change agreement: A new hope? *American Journal of International Law*, 110(2), 288–319.

Rajamani, L., & Brunnée, J. (2017). The legitimacy of the Paris Agreement. *Review of European, Comparative & International Environmental Law*, 26(2), 114–117.

United Nations. (2015). Transforming our world: The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. <https://sdgs.un.org/2030agenda>