

# FUTURE WE WANT

MODEL UNITED NATIONS CONFERENCE



Future We Want  
A Global Initiative For Young Leaders

**14-17 February**  
**DUBAI**



# ECONOMIC & FINANCIAL COMMITTEE

**20**  
**23**

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# LETTER FROM THE CHAIR

Dear Delegates,

It is with great pleasure that we welcome you to the United Nations General Assembly Second Committee (ECOFIN) at the Future We Want Model United Nations Conference! Throughout this conference, we are looking forward to rigorous debate and brilliant compromise as you work to resolve some of the most pressing issues facing our planet. The two issues you will be debating over the next few days—climate change and poverty eradication—impact all 7.8 billion of Earth's people, yourselves included, and demands the attention of each and every global citizen. At the end of 2019, Greta Thunberg became the youngest individual named as Time Magazine's Person of the Year in recognition of her remarkable activism in the fight against climate change. Concurrently, nearly 27,000 politicians, diplomats, and activists, as well as 190 nations, met in Madrid, Spain for the 25th annual Climate Change Conference to evaluate previous commitments to combating temperature increases and carbon emissions and attempt to negotiate newer and more comprehensive agreements. In the end, after seventeen days, the conference concluded without any tangible progress as the goals of the 2015 Paris Agreement appear less likely to achieve. In the long term, costs for failing to meet these goals will be crippling. Undoubtedly, combating climate change and altering established practices to reduce carbon emissions does not and will not occur cheaply; however, the economic strain to nations both developed and still developing will be monumental if effective solutions cannot be rapidly implemented to ensure the success of the Agreement and the Sustainable Development Goals.

Across the globe, changing climate causes rippling effects across populations which drastically and detrimentally impact the quality of life for these communities and nations. As temperatures increase, sea levels rise, oceans turn more acidic, and more severe droughts occur, eradicating poverty becomes a greater challenge to overcome. Such an enormous task cannot be solved by a single nation, corporation, or individual; teamwork is a vital asset. Only by coordinating and strengthening the partnership between the public aid given for the eradication of poverty, with private pursuits can positive gains be made.

Climate change and poverty eradication are at the heart of the 2030 Sustainable Development Goal and to achieve these goals is to find meaning solutions for these existential threats. You will be challenged. You will be pushed to explore new perspectives. But most importantly, you will work to find meaningful solutions to the challenges that threaten to negatively define the present and the future. Now is the time to face these issues head-on and begin to build the future we want.

Best of luck, delegates!



# INTRODUCTION TO THE COMMITTEE

**Topic Area A:** The economic strain due to climate change and its implications

**Topic Area B:** Strengthening Public Private Partnership in the pursuit of the eradication of poverty

The United Nations Economic and Financial Committee (ECOFIN) was established in 1945 as the Second Committee of the General Assembly to serve as the UN's largest body dealing with matters related to economic and financial issues. Originally the mission of ECOFIN was related to the re-establishment of international peace, security and stability; dealing with the financial issues over the founding of the post-war recuperation and the recovery of international economies. To this date, the agenda items allocated to this committee are organized in 11 clusters:

1. Macroeconomic policy;
2. Operational activities for development;
3. Financing for development;
4. Groups of countries in special situations;
5. Globalization and interdependence;
6. Eradication of poverty;
7. Sustainable development;
8. Information and communication technologies for development;
9. Agriculture development, food security and nutrition;
10. Human settlements and sustainable urban development; and
11. Sovereignty of the Palestinian people over their natural resources.

In addition, the Committee considers the issue of global partnership on a biennial basis.

The second committee is the highest deliberative body of the United Nations that is absolutely dedicated to the topics mentioned above.

As a subsidiary committee of the General Assembly, this organ works under the same rules and general mandates established in both the United Nations Charter and the General Assembly Handbook. For instance, according to article 9 of the UN Charter, this committee is acquiesced by the totality of Member States of the organization; each member, in conformity of article 18 of the UN Charter, is assigned with one (equally powered) vote.



Since its formation following the Second World War, this Committee of the General Assembly has met 74 times in ordinary yearly periods. Ordinary sessions begin each year in early October (after UNGA Week) and aims to conclude it in the last week of November; short extensions are often granted until early to mid-December to conclude the discussions over the items of the proposed agenda.

As the records demonstrate, the committee has been able to act on more than 40 draft proposals each year regarding a range of topics included in its mandate. After a general debate at the beginning of the Committee's work, the individual items are debated and voted during the first four weeks of the session period. Immediately before general discussion of an item, Secretary General reports can be introduced by the "Author Department" and followed by a Q&A session. Negotiations on draft proposals are conducted throughout the duration of the Committee's sessions. The Committee also meets annually in a joint meeting with the Economic and Social Council to further discuss any topic of greater urgency. It is necessary to remember that this committee does not have the power to issue binding resolutions, therefore, it isn't possible to force any Member State or any International Organization to perform any specific task. But, considering the legitimacy of the United Nations General Assembly and the International Law Instruments issued each year, any resolution passed on this committee will have an impact on International Law and on the International and each Member State Nationals Political Landscaping.

Following articles 13 and 58 of the Charter, this committee as a subsidiary organ of the General Assembly has the power to coordinate and give recommendations to other subsidiary bodies and programs inside the United Nations System. This power was given to the committee to help it achieve the goals of those organs. Also, the Second Committee receives annual reports from the United Nations Environment Assembly of the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and the Governing Councils of the three Rio Conventions (Biodiversity, Climate Change and Desertification) and of the United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN Habitat). This way, the committee on behalf of the General Assembly as a whole, can: (1) address the data reported and act in any way is convenient; and (2) feedback and correct the work of the subsidiary bodies.

Finally, it is vital to understand that the United Nations identifies financial assistance, both public and private as one of the most important aspects for achieving the Sustainable Development Goals, making ECOFIN a unique committee in this regard. Additionally, ensuring that national economies, as well as the global economy, can become 'greener' fall under the scope of this committee once more highlighting its important role in the fight against climate change and poverty, as well as in the success of the SDGs.



# TOPIC AREA A: THE ECONOMIC STRAIN DUE TO CLIMATE CHANGE AND ITS IMPLICATIONS

I. Introduction and Definition

II. Timeline of UN's Commitments towards the economic strain due to climate change and its implications

III. Discussion of the topic

IV. Bloc Positions

V. Recommended Sources and Further Research

VI. Questions to Consider

VII. Conclusion

VIII. Works Cited

## I. Introduction and Definition

Combating climate change lies at the heart of the United Nations' Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) influencing how nations develop their societies and economies in ways which are not detrimental to the health of the planet. Of the 17 targets the UN has identified in the SDGs, nearly all of them are influenced or impacted (directly or indirectly) by the negative impacts climate change. Simply stated, halting and reversing the harmful effects of climate change will allow for the global community to better achieve the mission of the SDGs—ensuring a sustainable future for all people in all nations. To do so, goals thirteen, fourteen, and fifteen challenge the international to directly take action to combat climate change, conserve and sustainably use the world's maritime resources, and restore, protect, and responsibly utilize on-land resources, respectively.



Yet, it is important to note that this committee (ECOFIN), while driven in part by finding solutions to climate change, is not centered around it. Rather this topic will focus on the economic strain climate change has on global economies and how to best alleviate them. However, this relationship between economy and climate change is seen directly in a number of the SDGs. In particular, goals eight, nine, and twelve focus on transforming economies and industry sectors with more sustainable practices.

Undoubtedly, climate change fuels natural disasters which have a detrimental impact on the economic strength of the global community and the nations which comprise of it; moreover, it hinders their ability to achieve the SDGs. Relevant examples include (but are certainly not limited to) droughts which result in the reduction of crop yields, rising sea levels which threaten to drown financial and population hubs, and wildfires which destroy or severely damage national infrastructure including factories and other centers of economic productivity. These natural disasters, exacerbated by humans, result in greater famine and water shortages, more dangerous human settlements, and weaker institutions both economic and social—all of which are the opposite of what the SDGs hope to achieve. In the long run, such a world would not be in the best interest of any member of the UN and it is imperative that solutions to protect macro- and microeconomic activities are found. These aforementioned examples highlight the negative economic strain of climate change and its associated implications. In this connect, negative economic strain can be defined as the hardships which arise as a direct or indirect result of climate change such as reduced economic growth, direct loss of an export market, or even the monetary cost in the aftermath of a large storm or other natural disaster.

Economic strain can be defined in an additional way as the monetary cost imposed by the impacts of climate change. As newer and more comprehensive goals are set for nations to achieve regarding environmentalism and sustainability, especially in energy and manufacturing sectors, it requires changing technologies. For example, in a nation which has relied on coal and fossil fuels for power for decades now needs to explore greener alternatives to these cheap and relatively abundant ‘dirty fuel’ options. Scientific research and development on alternative energy sources, as well as nationwide shifts to reusable methods of generating power, is expensive. The International Energy Agency in 2008 estimated the total cost for the world to ‘go green’ would be about \$45 trillion USD (Galey). Recent findings provide support for the overwhelming cost for governments associated with cleaner energy sources and a less than positive impact on the market (Capodilupo).



Finally, as aforementioned, this committee is concerned more with the economic and financial impacts of climate change than on debating the science behind it. However, climate change, and the various impacts it will take center stage in this committee's debates and should therefore be clearly defined. The United Nations Framework Commission on Climate Change defines climate change as "a change of climate which is attributed directly or indirectly to human activity that alters the composition of the global atmosphere and which is in addition to natural climate variability observed over comparable time periods" (Kyoto Protocols).

The London School of Economics and Political Science (LSE) expands upon this definition to note various impacts and risks climate change has on human populations. These include, but are not limited to "Destabilisation of ice sheets and glaciers and consequent sea level rise[;] Stronger tropical cyclones[;] Extreme heat impacts[;] More frequent and intense floods and droughts[;] Disruptions to oceanic and atmospheric circulation[; and] Destruction of biodiversity and collapse of ecosystems" in addition to the impacts these risks cause to global markets (such as drought's impact on food production, etc) (DeFries et al). The dais encourages delegates to further explore how climate change can impact so many aspects of the global community.

## II. Timeline of UN's Commitments towards the economic strain due to climate change and its implications

The United Nations System has adopted several International Law Instruments regarding the economic strain due to climate change and its implications. The Instruments listed on this section are, to the chairs opinion, the base documents to comprehend the UN's efforts regarding this matter. This timeline reflects in brief data the efforts of the International Community in general and of the United Nations to build a sustainable future.

1. 1972: United Nations Conference on the Human Environment, adoption of the Declaration of Stockholm.
2. 1992: Adoption of the Earth Summit of Rio de Janeiro. The "Earth Summit" created the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC).
3. 1997: Adoption of the Kyoto Protocol.
4. 2000: Adoption of the Millennium Development Goals Agenda.



5. 2014: Adoption of the Resolution 26/27 of the Human Rights Council. The HRC emphasized the need for all States to enhance international dialogue and cooperation to address the adverse impacts of climate change on the enjoyment of human rights including the right to development. It called for dialogue, capacity-building, mobilization of financial resources, technology transfer, and other forms of cooperation to facilitate climate change adaptation and mitigation, in order to meet the special needs and circumstances of developing countries.

6. 2015: The General Assembly adopts resolution 70/1 in which where approved the 2030 Agenda of 17 Sustainable Developments Goals.

It is suggested by the dais that for your own individual nations (and those of your allies and potential bloc) you explore these pieces of international law in greater depth. Additionally, this is not a complete list and you should go in-depth about past action the UN has taken on this matter which is not reflected in this list or in the background guide; doing so will help with the writing of resolution in committee, as well access what past action has had success, and which initiatives need to be revisited.

### III. Discussion of the Topic at Hand

Human influence on the Earth's climate in pursuit of greater economic prosperity is not a new phenomenon. In the mid-Nineteenth Century the Industrial Revolution spread across Europe and America, driving the further development of nations such as Germany, the United Kingdom, and the United States. The results of industrialism lead to great economic success in these nations, however, the industrial process began to alter the global temperatures by releasing previously unrealized quantities of greenhouse gases. ("Climate Change: Annual Greenhouse Gas Index...") Since then, the environmental impact caused by the industrial processes has remained the same—or gotten worse—resulting in the dire situation confronting the global community now (DeFries et al.)

#### *Long Term Global Economic Impact*

Predicting the specific impact of climate change on the global economy is difficult, yet this has not prevented experts and economists from trying. At the end of 2018, the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change reported that “aggregate losses across the world economy have a more than 50 percent chance of being greater than 2 percent of global GDP” (Glasmeier and Liverman).



Another study undertaken by The Economist's Intelligence Unit (EIU), found that by 2050, the global economy would be three percent smaller than baseline predictions and regional real Gross Domestic Product loss would be, on average, between 1.1 percent and nearly 5 percent (See Figure 1: Average GDP Loss-- by region) ("Resilience to Climate Change? A New Index Shows Why Developing Countries Will Be Most Affected by 2050.")

**Average GDP loss - by region**  
(Real GDP loss by 2050)



Source: The Economist Intelligence Unit.

Scholars at the University of Oxford are far more pessimistic in their research. If the world is to reach temperature more than 2°C above current readings, economists predict that global GDP should shrink between 2.5 and 7.5 percent, pushing the upper limits of other noted research. This type of reduction in global GDP would result in losses totaling more than \$10 trillion USD (Beals). In the longer run, by the turn of the century (2100), global temperatures could be 4°C warmer than they are today, resulting in a 30 percent contraction in the global GDP according to the same research (Beals).

While seeming numerically insignificant, losses at two or even three percent would have consequential impacts on the global economy. The EIU found that in a world with no adverse impacts from climate change, the global economy is estimated to reach \$258 trillion USD. However, by factoring in climate change, the global economy could lose as much as \$8 trillion USD resulting in a global economy at \$250 trillion USD (Galey). Additional research from a number of other private, public, and international organizations find similar conclusions for the global economy as a whole as the ones presented above.



## *Potential Subtopics for Discussion and Moderated Caucuses*

The following subsections are an exploration of potential economic implications of climate change, however, they are not the only implications. Delegates should use this as a guide and as a starting-point for their own research; you should not rely on these few examples alone. Moreover, during debate, these subtopics can serve as potential proposals for moderated caucuses or be split further for a more comprehensive discussion.

### A. Food/Agricultural Production

The ability of people around the globe to produce and consume food is intrinsically tied to the health of the world's ecosystem and its climate. This single industry accounts for nearly a third of the entire globe's GDP and in regions and states elsewhere, agriculture is a more significant component of the economy ("Agriculture Overview"). Indeed, the World Bank notes that agriculture is "two to four times more effective in raising incomes among the poorest compared to other sectors" and it employs just shy of two-thirds of all poor working adults ("Agriculture Overview"). The protection of this vital sector of the economy should be a top concern for nations; simply stated, the collapse of this single industry would cripple economies at every level and cause rippling effects including poverty. There is no single aspect of climate change which harms the production of food, rather a myriad of factors combine to impact and weaken the agriculture industry. Droughts, as a result of increased global temperatures, are perhaps the most common implication of climate change and the one which worries farmers across all regions (according to the 2015 Global Attitudes Survey).

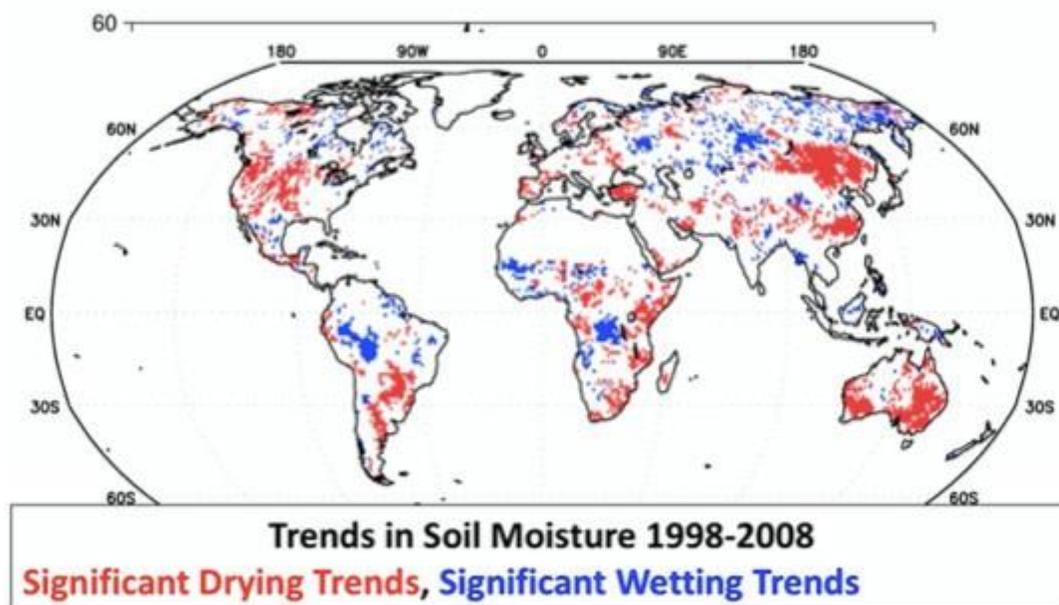
Drought occurs when soil dries as a result of increased evaporation which removes water and moisture from the air. Scientists agree that this cycle is driven by the greenhouse gases which warm the air above land and water ("The Facts About Climate Change and Drought"). The consequences of drought are severe. A lack of water can result in poor soil conditions, making it impossible to plant crops or maintain pastures for livestock use; can lead to the death of already planted crops and can fatally dehydrate animals raised for consumption; and a combination of dry soil with little rainfall can adversely impact crop yields which rely on rain for nourishment. However, even when the rain comes, conditions often go from bad to worse and what little agriculture/crops survived the initial drought are put in greater danger. Extremely dry soil is unable to absorb rainwater when it falls causing it to flood fields and if a flow is strong enough, can uproot crops already weakened by a lack of water ("Climate Change and Agriculture"). Not all floods are directly connected to drought conditions and in many places swelling riverbanks and rising sea levels (as a result of ice melt and other aspects of climate change) saturate



crops with deadly amounts of water. Figure 2 below, “Evidence of Global Drying in Past Decade”, from the United States’ NASA agency highlights the global trends of which areas are more prone to drought (in red) and those which are more susceptible to flooding (blue).

Undoubtedly, the direct economic impacts of lost agriculture as a result of drought and flooding are clear to see. Yet, these conditions have a cascading effect, which the University of Nebraska’s National Drought Mitigation Center compares to the toppling of dominos and highlights dozens of economic, environmental, and social impacts for society (see “How Does Drought Affect Our Lives in Works Cited section). The Food and Agriculture Organization notes that when agriculture is lost because of climate change, it can trigger mass migration of farmers and those they feed in search of food adding even greater economic strain on governments to mitigate crisis (“Drought”).

## Evidence of Global Drying in Past Decade



The implications of climate change on agriculture are not uniform across regions, countries, and communities. While impacts to the agriculture industry of a developed nation, such as the United States, can cause economic strain and hardship, the adverse impact on developing nations is even more crippling and these governments often do not have the needed emergency funds on hand. Perhaps the most hard-hit region in all of this is Sub-Saharan, which relies on rainfed crops for 70% of its agricultural production. This “reliance on seasonal rainfall for agriculture makes Southern Africa more vulnerable to food insecurity and the negative effects of climate change” and thus has a high potential to feel economic strain worse than other

nations (Mawere and Mubaya). Furthermore, the IPCC estimates “that by 2020, between 75 and 250 million people in Africa will be exposed to increased water stress due to climate change” taking its toll on the fragile local and rural economies of the region creating the domino effect mentioned above.

Whatever the specific impacts--- be it drought, flooding, increased proliferation of diseases affecting plant and livestock--- “climate change... aggravates the challenges faced by the agriculture sector, negatively affecting both crop and livestock systems” (Mawere and Mubaya). A failure to find meaningful solutions will result in a failure to implement the SDGs and encourage economic growth.

Similarly, the need to reform the industry as a whole and modify its methods of production is well overdue. Agriculture remains one of the most ecologically unsustainable practices and the “Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) estimates that agriculture is responsible for one-quarter of anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions” (O’Brien). The model of the modern agricultural industry is designed to feed billions of people worldwide, however to do so, it “depends upon fossil fuels to make fertilizer, process food, and ship it long distances.” Cash crops, such as corn and soybeans, have forced farmers to engage in monocultural practices which “treats the farm as a crop factory rather than a managed ecosystem...” which in turn “...amplifies climate impacts such as changes in crop viability and encroaching pests” in addition to drought and poor soil management.

Moreover, to ensure demand is met, forests are felled and land cleared for cattle-grazing or farmland resulting in the further emission of stored greenhouse gases in trees and other fauna. As noted elsewhere in this background guide, the transition from current practices and methods to greener technologies and more sustainable methods will have great initial costs. Once again, delegates will need to weigh the costs of inaction and the status quo with the cost of proactive and reactive solutions.

## B. Economic Impact of Natural Disaster/Severe Weather Events

Despite our collective attempts throughout the millennia, humanity has yet to fully command a control over the weather. Yet, in recent decades, natural weather events we have become more severe and thus more costly, both in terms of dollars and lives. Some of these natural disasters and weather events, such as earthquakes, volcanic activity, or tornadoes, have no direct link to climate change (however it is important to note that indirect consequences of these disasters, such as tsunamis and landslides, can be made more extreme by climate change).



Other natural disasters and severe weather events, such as rain and thunderstorms wildfires, droughts and floods (as noted above), blizzard and frigid weather, and perhaps hurricanes/typhoons/cyclones (Ocko and Sun)\*. The ‘normal threshold’ for storm intensity has increasingly become higher and higher and “Mega-storms... have gone from occurring once every 100 years, to once every 16 years” (“Climate Impacts”). The costs of preparation and response as a result of these storms has increased each and every year. While it is nearly impossible to find, estimates for the combined costs for hurricanes, fires, and floods cost the world \$150 billion USD in 2019 and that price is only expected to increase in 2020 and in the coming years if climate change is not appropriately addressed (Zaidy). This is an exorbitant amount of money and much of it could be saved for other uses if the global community takes steps to combat climate change (and thus breaking this self perpetuating loop).

It should be noted, however, that this figure accounts only for the damages as a result of storms (such as the need for insurance). The total cost of these events is likely much more expensive when one factors in losses to sectors of the economy. For example, hurricanes in the Atlantic Ocean and Gulf of Mexico threaten the American oil industry (including moored tankers and refinery facilities); fires in South America, Western United States, and Australia (See Conclusion) have destroyed hectares of arable land and factories, and floods across the Indian subcontinent and Western Africa have resulted in the destruction of crops, the spread of disease, and the degradation of already weakened infrastructure. These examples (and many more) all require additional funds to solve on top of the damage costs associated directly with the storms themselves. Delegates must consider the economic strain on nations as a result of lost industry from natural disasters and severe weather events.

In addition to the direct costs of storms, an economic hardship is also felt in the longer run as communities struggle to rebuild, businesses rebound and regrow their sales, and people return to the ruins of their neighborhoods. This lengthy road to recovery will slow down financial growth, placing an even greater strain on the economy.

### C. Island Nations and Coastal Cities

SDG 11 challenges the global community to “make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable,” however, climate change threatens to make this goal unattainable.

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\* Scientists are still divided on the correlation between climate change and hurricanes/typhoons. However, hurricanes and typhoons are strengthened by warmer waters and air which are more abundant as a result of rising global temperatures. See: <https://spaceplace.nasa.gov/hurricanes/en/>



This subtopic will focus discussion on two areas of potential economic concern: the impact of rising seas on the economies of island nations and the consequences of rising oceans in major coastal cities.

Of all nations who suffer from the impacts of climate change, island nations perhaps suffer the worse. As the UN puts it, island nations “are the countries most affected by climate change but, given that they are generally producing little of the harmful greenhouse gases that are fueling climate change, they are also the countries least responsible for the problem” (“Island Nations on Climate Crisis Frontline ‘Not Sitting Idly by’ | UN News). Melting ice from the Arctic and Antarctic have caused the seas to rise by 5-8 inches (13-20 cm) since 1900 and scientists predict that eventually, by the turn of this century, seas will have risen by as much as a meter (Kemp et. al.). This is for bad island nations; as the seas continue to rise, habitable land at lower elevations becomes submerged forcing entire populations and villages to higher (and drier) ground. However, many island nations, particularly those in the Pacific Ocean, the difference between lower elevation and higher elevation is only a few meters leaving islanders with nowhere to go as the situation deteriorates. Economically, rising seas turn a difficult financial situation into a near impossible one. Small Island Developing States (SIDS) have been recognized by the UN for their “small size, remoteness, narrow resource and export base, and exposure to global environmental challenges and external economic shocks, including to a large range of impacts from climate change and potentially more frequent and intense natural disasters” (“Small Island Developing States .:. Sustainable Development Knowledge Platform.”). As a result, according to data from the World Bank, many island nations in the Pacific and Caribbean have some of the lowest GDPs and fill the bottom of the list (“Report for Selected Countries and Subjects”). Because these nations struggle economically, their ability to respond to the types of natural disasters mentioned above is severely limited, further perpetuating poverty and thus fueling a continuous loop. Take Fiji for example. As a result of severe weather, the island nation loses “assets worth 5% of its GDP each year” and that figure is expected to grow in the coming decades” (Worland). Times Magazine notes that in previous years, a single storm could result in a loss of nearly a fifth of the nation’s GDP. Furthermore, the remoteness of Fiji, coupled with the aftermath of storms, makes the delivery of food next to impossible and “constant turbulence has imperiled [its] industry” (Worland). Fiji is not alone; other nations in the Pacific, including Tuvalu, Kiribati and the Marshall Islands, as well as nations in the Caribbean (such as those of the Lesser Antilles) face similar situations, or worse. In 2014, the former president of Kiribati, Anote Tong, announced that his government had bought land on the island of Fiji in the event that Kiribati ever needed to be evacuated as a result



of climate change. For the price of nearly \$10 million, a 5460 acre plot was purchased to ensure that Kiribadians would have a place to call home. This purchase came after the President of Fiji “assured ‘that the people of Kiribati will have a home if their country is submerged by the rising sea level as a result of climate change’” (Government of Kiribati). However, the special relationship that exists between Kiribati and Fiji does not exist with other nations in the region and climate migration is a growing concern that will only get worse as time passes. Indeed, other island nations, such as Tuvalu, maintain an official position which spurs evacuations (Roy). Displaced from their home islands, Pacific Islanders will likely migrate to neighboring island nations seeking refuge and assistance; the economic strain on the receiving nations as a result of this will be immense and will not likely abate quickly. Younger populations, struggling to find decent education and employment also leave the island in droves, causing a brain drain and thus exacerbating a worsening problem (Roy). How can nations prepare for this eventuality? What steps should the international community take to ensure the protection of island nations against climate change and what economic strains will that cause?

A second important element of this discussion is in regards to the vulnerabilities of coastal cities and massive population centers. New York City, Miami, Mumbai, Hong Kong, Shanghai, Tokyo, and Cape Town are all examples of mega-cities built right on the water’s edge and in the next thirty years, scientists predict that large portions of these cities (if not the entire metropolitan area) will be submerged (for maps see: Lu and Flavelle). These cities are vital to their countries; they are important centers of population and in best case scenarios, urbanization allows for economic growth and upward mobility. Internationally, too, these cities are financial powerhouses; businesses, financial systems, and tourist attractions help these cities maintain their prestige. New York, Tokyo, and Shanghai hosts the world’s four largest stock exchanges with market capitalization exceeding an estimated \$43 trillion USD which accounts for more than 50% of the world’s traded capital.

For better or worse, these stock exchanges are powerful and influential on the global economy; a collapse of these systems would have catastrophic impacts on the global system. Therefore, these economic systems need to be protected, relocated, or otherwise insured from rising seas for the sake of the global economy. A collapsed financial system is not the only economic challenge facing cities-- infrastructure failure is also a very real concern. Flooded streets not only displace people and businesses, they also damage expensive skyscrapers, destroy parks, threaten roads, and disable power stations. The most strenuous economic headache for these cities is the impact on underground facilities and infrastructure such as subway tunnels and power/electricity systems.



In 2012, Hurricane Sandy highlighted the vulnerabilities of the New York City's subway system as storm surges flooded tunnels and stations, causing the system to come to a complete shutdown. When the clouds cleared and the damage was assessed, the repair costs totaled approximately \$5 billion USD and some lines took more than a year to repair ("The Subway, After Sandy"). As storms continue to increase in intensity and flooding become a new 'normal,' the New York City subway system will continue to be damaged by storm surges and tides.

It is not economical to spend \$5 billion USD after every storm to repair a system that will soon be underwater again. While after the storm, the city began to "incorporating flood-protection measures" these measures would cost millions, if not billions of dollars (Navarro). Additional underground infrastructure, such as electricity generators, cables, and transformers have been damaged by flood water resulting in potentially deadly power outages across the city. The city's main electricity provider estimated that "adaptations like installing submersible switches and moving high-voltage transformers above ground level would cost at least \$250 million [USD]" however, noted that the utility company lacked the funds to undertake this project fully and could only make \$24 million USD worth of improvements (Navarro). In total, the New York City has pleaded nearly \$2 billion USD in private and public money to environmental projects to get the city ready for the worse which is yet to come (Navarro). Delegates will need to figure out how to protect cities from feeling these impacts and ensure their economic growth remains secure

These three subtopics represent some of the central issues this topic forces us to consider. As noted at the beginning of this section, however, they are not the only issues related to this topic and we caution you against focusing only on these three. Additional subtopics (which we will not expand on further in this background guide in the interest of time) may include: potential threats to international (or regional) peace and security and the economic cost of such instability; the cost of large scale climate migration; the race for newly uncovered resources as a result of melting ice and the economic windfall provided by such discoveries (particularly in the Arctic); and the cost of converting from current methods and technologies to more sustainable and 'greener' practices. For this topic, as well as Topic B, you are advised to do as much research as possible; by expanding upon the material provided in this section (and the guide as a whole), you will become a more informed delegate and contribute better to discussions.

## IV. Block Positions

Climate change is an issue which has no respect for arbitrary national borders and no single nation can be spared from it. As evidenced by the near universal ratification of the Paris Agreement (and to some regards the Kyoto Protocol), nations recognize the importance of and agree to the targets they themselves have set, yet they still have widely differing views on how these targets should be achieved.

Richer nations, especially members of the European Union or the OECD, will perhaps have an easier time navigating the adverse economic strain of climate change and be able to better mobilize resources to combat its implications. However, developing nations, particularly those in Africa and South East Asia, will feel the economic strain of climate change more adversely.

Despite efforts from the global communities, economies are still driven by industries which have proven harmful impacts such as the Gulf states and members of the Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC). These nations will likely struggle to find solutions to the issue at hand, while managing to protect their economies and main export industries. Conversely, nations heavily invested in sustainability and widespread implementation of green technologies, such as those in Scandinavia and the Nordic Community, will likely face different economic strains from climate change and have unique ideas of how to mediate such strain. A final group already mentioned in this background guide is the collection of island nations who bear the brunt of this crisis. In 2015, these nations were instrumental in crafting the Paris Agreement in these same nations have the ability to be key players in our committee.

These differing views are what give rise to spirited debate and serve as the foundation of a nation's position on an issue. You are encouraged to deeply learn your country's perspective to build a secure position. Work with those your country shares similar perspectives and experiences with, but delegate, do not forget that expanding the circle of discussion is necessary to even get halfway to a meaningful solution.

## V. Recommended Sources and Further Research

Paris Climate Agreement

[https://unfccc.int/sites/default/files/english\\_paris\\_agreement.pdf](https://unfccc.int/sites/default/files/english_paris_agreement.pdf)

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change

<https://unfccc.int/resource/docs/convkp/conveng.pdf>



The World Bank Group's Action Plan on Climate Change Adaptation and Resilience: Managing Risks for a More Resilient Future  
<http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/519821547481031999/The-World-Bank-Groups-Action-Plan-on-Climate-Change-Adaptation-and-Resilience-Managing-Risks-for-a-More-Resilient-Future.pdf>

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<https://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/fandd/2019/12/pdf/fd1219.pdf>

The United Nations SDG Knowledge Platform  
<https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org>

"Climate Crisis Could See 'Collapse' of Some Economies without Diversification, Warns UN Trade Chief | UN News." United Nations, United Nations, 11 Sept. 2019  
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Additional World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF) Materials related to Climate Change

Policies of your specific country-- Domestic and International

## VI. Questions to Consider

1. What is the state of your nation's economy and how critical is it in the local, or global economy? What drives import, and more importantly, export markets?
2. What steps has your country taken to fulfill commitments of the Paris Agreement and/or other relevant international frameworks? How have they succeeded?
3. How have natural disasters impacted your nation? What types of natural disasters cause the greatest damage? What is the total cost per each national disaster? How could this money be better spent on domestic improvements for the population or global improvements?



4. Where will funding for potential solutions come from?
5. How will short-term/emergency solutions differ from more long-term solutions? How can these long term solutions build off of short term fixes.
6. What actions can nations take to fulfill their commitments under the Paris Agreement while also ensuring strong economic growth?
7. What responsibilities do wealthier nations (and nations which are more secured a gainst climate change) have to support poor and less secure nations?
8. Is there any positive aspects of climate change and its implication (such as greater access to natural resources, new trade routes, etc)? Do these benefits outweigh the well-known costs of climate change?

## VII. Conclusion

At the time of writing this background guide, more than six million hectares of land have been scorched in some of the nation's worst bushfire with thousands more yet to be contained by professional and volunteer fire brigades ("Australia Fires: A Visual Guide to the Bushfire Crisis"). In the span of three months, the estimated cost of the fires stands between \$3-\$13 billion, roughly equating to between .25 percent and 1 percent of the nation's entire GDP growth; moreover, the government has pledged 1.4 billion USD for aid and recovery, driving the cost of these endless fires higher. Economically, the nation has been hit hard, yet these loses do not even begin to illustrate additional impacts including the loss of plant and animal live (and diversity), personal property, and business (Derwin; Waterfield). Fueled by temperatures exceeding 40° Centigrade, as well as dry conditions, it is undeniable that these fires are the result of a changing climate and Australia is not alone in feeling these implications. Dry conditions and increasingly warming temperatures have fueled fires in the Amazon Rainforest and the American state of California resulting in billions, if not trillions, of dollars in direct response and longer-term economic impacts.

The world is at a critical time in history and immediate action is not only required, but demanded by peoples across the planet. Failure to act will result in more severe fires, storms, and other natural disasters, which would place crippling strain on economies across the globe. This problem is translation, even more so in the globalized system encouraged by the United Nations and the post World War II global community where the destruction of one nation's economy can have rippling regional or international impacts. For decades now, many member states of the UN have been unwilling to address climate change and have counted with policies that further exacerbate it. Certainly, these leaders



be them in politics, business, or other spheres of civil society— failed to address the problem when it was more manageable and have left a dying planet for the younger generations. It is incumbent upon you, delegate, to learn from the mistakes of the previous generations and take meaningful action on ensuring the strength of the economy in the face of climate change. Through united efforts and coordinated action from each member state of this body, the problems of the past can be kept from destroying the future.

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# TOPIC AREA B: STRENGTHENING PUBLIC PRIVATE PARTNERSHIP IN THE PURSUIT OF THE ERADICATION OF POVERTY

## I. Introduction and Definition

## II. Timeline of the UN's Commitments towards Strengthening Public Private Partnership in the pursuit of the eradication of poverty

## III. Discussion of the topic

## IV. Bloc Positions

## V. Recommended Sources and Further Research

## VI. Questions to Consider

## VII. Conclusion

## VIII. Works Cited

## I. Introduction and Definition

The first Sustainable Development Goal (SDGs) is “No Poverty” and of the 17 SDGs there is a significant emphasis on attempts to decrease the struggles of the impoverished. According to the World Bank, in 2015 10 percent of the world’s population lives on less than 1.9\$ a day in comparison to 36 percent back in 1990. While the number of people living in extreme poverty has decreased, one cannot deny that those impoverished are deprived of some of their basic rights. Today, more than half of the people living in Sub-Saharan regions are living in extreme poverty and it is expected that by 2030, 9 out of 10 living in Sub-Saharan regions will be living in such conditions. As such global efforts, most notably through the promotion of the SDGs, are underway in order to ensure that every person lives the life



they are entitled to, comfortably.

The differentiation between monetary poverty and non-monetary poverty should be clearly defined; monetary poverty is when individuals are incapable of making enough money to provide the bare minimum, non-monetary poverty on the other hand is when individuals are incapable of gaining access to amenities or services they are entitled to such as education, healthcare or proper infrastructure. As such it is worth mentioning that in the multidimensional view of poverty, lack of access to education, utilities and healthcare is 50 percent higher than monetary poverty. Hence, poverty should not only be tackled by dealing with access to money, but rather by also approaching gender, socio-economic and geographical factors. By tackling different views of why certain societies live in poverty, one can enable themselves to understand why individuals live in such situations, be it due to the lack of access to education, proper services and institutions or even gender differences.

Those who are capable of leaving poverty due to several reasons however, are always prone to fall back into it due to several reasons such as economic shock or recession, food insecurity or even climate change (World Bank, 2019). For example, slightly more than half of the American population experiences poverty at least once before the age of 65 with a very high chance to cycle in and out of poverty throughout their lives. It is worth mentioning that half of those that leave poverty are highly likely to fall back into it within 5 years due to different reasons and of those who spend more than 5 years in poverty, there is a two thirds chance to fall back into it. This poses a great challenge in the fight against poverty as such situations can sometimes be hard to deal with considering that some reasons of falling back into poverty can be out of our control such as economic recession, war or even natural disasters (Lei, 2009).

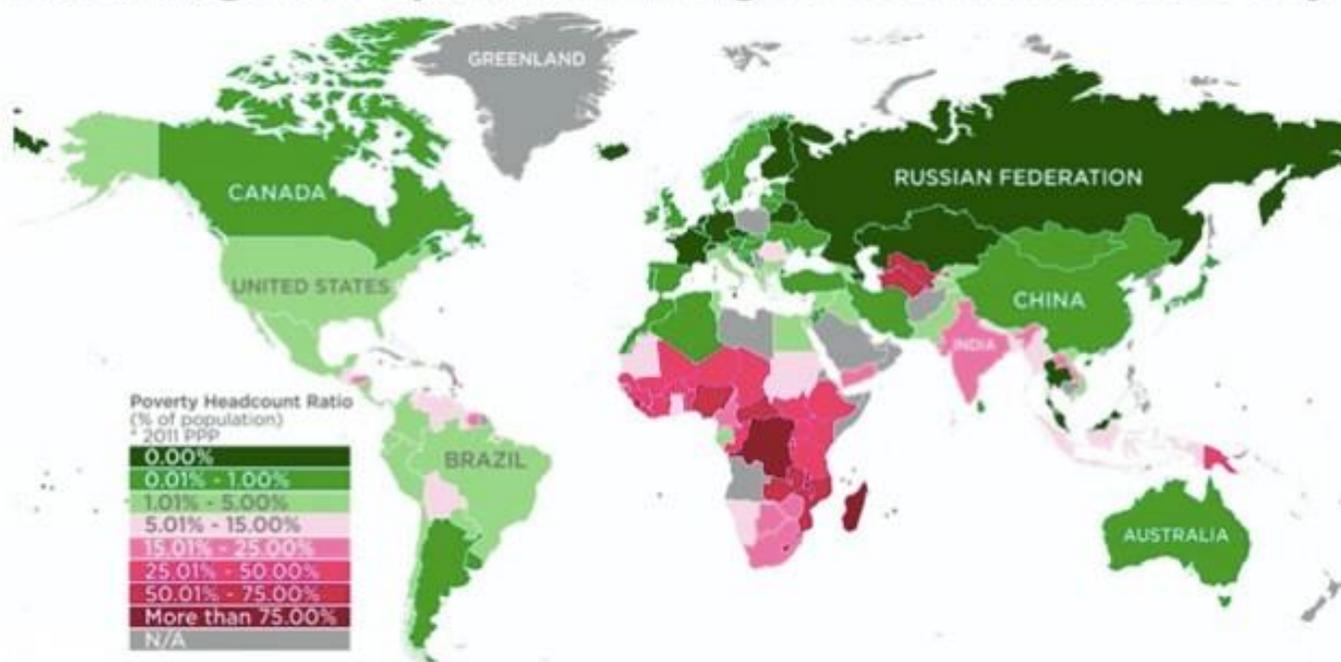
Of the many approaches to fight poverty, Public-Private Partnerships (PPPs) have been on the rise with more than 134 developing countries adopting the method. Essentially a PPP is a contractual method through which public and private institutions contractually acknowledge a partnership in order to deliver public assets or services such as modern infrastructure. There is a fine line that exists between PPPs and privatization however, where privatization is the complete transfer of public services or assets to a private organisation while a PPP is based on cooperative work. Today, around 15 to 20 percent of the total infrastructure investment in countries that adopted PPPs comes from the means of these partnerships. Around 79 billion USD is being annually invested through PPPs in conventional and non-conventional sectors in order to help advance developing countries, most



notably in health and education, two sectors that show a great challenge in non-monetary poverty. Numerous global organisation and United Nations bodies have joined the movement of encouraging PPPs in order to support developing nations including the World Bank, ECOSOC, ECOFIN and even local ministries (World Bank, 2015).

As such, this committee will be tackling the subject of Public-Private Partnerships and its importance in the eradication of poverty, seeing as the use of PPP frameworks is now on the rise and has shown great success in avoiding the dangers of privatizing governmental assets and services while maintaining high integrity in what is delivered to the people. Today, the use of the PPP framework is becoming more common, especially due to the fact that the approach behind its framework is loose and does not have bound rules. Governments and nations have the freedom to approach the method with what they see fit for both their people and capabilities, this makes it possible for nations with lower financial or technical capabilities to partner with private organisations in order to develop their weaker assets or services in hopes of giving the impoverished their rights (APMG, 2019).

## People Living in Extreme Poverty Percentage of Population Living on less than \$1.90 a day\*



## II. Timeline of the UN's Commitment towards Strengthening Public Private Partnership in the pursuit of the eradication of poverty

The history of PPPs dates back to 1992 when the John Major government of the United Kingdom introduced what is known as a Private Finance Initiative (or PFI) which is essentially the first programme that adopted what is today known as a Public-Private Partnership. The United Kingdom now has the leading PPP structure with around 24% of its public investment coming from PPPs. For this part, PPP investments will be tackled in 2 very prominent regions, Africa and Europe.

### In Africa:

Around 30 countries have adopted certain laws concerning the encouragement of PPPs, most notably South Africa, which now has the largest solar energy market as a result of increase in Public-Private investments, making also the leading country in the African continent in terms of PPP. However, other countries such as Ethiopia, Namibia, Botswana and Zambia have taken the liberty to transform such a framework and have organised challenging bidding wars where the winning independent solar power producer is contracted with the government through a PPP to deliver solar energy (Dorothal, ECOFIN, 2019). Concerning infrastructure however, African states are impeded by lack of development which has hindered their capabilities to achieve Sustainable Development Goals. The increase in PPPs however have led to significant developments in certain sectors, an example would be that today 77% of the African people have access to safe water in comparison to 51% back in 1990. In other sectors, such as energy, little progress has been seen due to several reasons such as the ones discussed before about bidding wars.

The true issue in Sub-Saharan Africa is that PPPs remain a small market where 48% of PPP investment in the past 25 years has been concentrated in several countries, most notably South Africa, Nigeria, Kenya, and Uganda (Rana, Izuwah, 2018). The Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations, for example, lead a dialogue in mid-2019 revolving around PPP investments in the agricultural sectors in Africa where Deputy Regional Representative for Africa, Jocelyn Brown Hall noted that “Despite the enormous opportunities, Africa’s agricultural sector is less attractive to private sector investors due to an array of constraints including low volumes and inconsistent quality of produce, lack of business skills and limited access to domestic and regional markets,” showing



that potential exists but the agricultural sector of African states is one of high risk and requires rather great attention by private investors in order to ensure success. This was followed by a statement by the representative from African Union Commission (AUC), Komla Bissi, who said, “African governments alone would not be able to implement their National Agricultural Investments Plans (NAIPs) as capital investments needed and the technical skills required to transform the agricultural sector would require private sector investment and expertise,” as such noting the importance of implementing a Public-Private framework in order to further developing agriculture in Africa. FAO has since started providing policy guidance and capacity development of sustainable and inclusive agribusiness in Africa backed by a Public-Private framework in hopes of providing job opportunities and income to the people and the government alike. This initiative is particularly relevant considering the growth in food demand due to population growth and increased urbanization causing the agribusiness sector to further dwindle (FAO, 2019). Similarly, lack of growth in the energy sector in Africa has also drawn attention where a report by the World Bank back in 2017 indicated that the implementation of a Public-Private framework in African nations where the private sector is to finance, build and maintain Africa’s electricity infrastructure, significant progress can be seen. The implementation of an Independent Power Transmission model (or IPT) has been seen in several other nations, such as Brazil, Chile, India, Peru and the Philippines, has shown significant success in delivering electricity to the people. In addition to delivering power to the people in a region where 2 out of 3 people do not have access to electricity, this can also provide job opportunities and further development in infrastructure as a result of monetary returns due to the project (World Bank, 2017).

### In Europe:

Since the early 1990s, 1749 PPPs have harnessed almost 336 billion euros, most of which have been implemented in the field of transport, and in 2016, the transport sector accounted for almost one third of Public-Private investments. The issue that lies in the European Union however is that very little of the EU’s fund goes towards PPPs and similar frameworks; for example, from 2000 till 2014, 84 Public-Private Partnership based investments received a total of 29.2 billion euros, only around 19 percent of which came from the EU. In addition, the development of such partnerships requires strict administrative capability which is ensured by having significant institutional and legal frameworks and considerable experience in the implementation of PPP projects. Such expertise are currently very limited in the EU and only in a small number of member states considering that the implementation of PPP frameworks only started less than 30 years ago (Europa, 2018). Most recently in 2019, the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe met in Geneva where the importance of the use of PPPs to promote the Sustainable



n order to measure how certain partnerships can bring the European Union closer to sustainable development with proper social inclusion, environmental sustainability and an evaluation process among many other suggested mechanisms (UNECE, 2019).

### III. Discussion of the Topic at Hand

Since its inception, the concept of PPPs (or what was initially known as a Private Finance Initiative - PFI) has developed from simply a method to encourage private sector investments in public assets and services and more into a way to possibly achieve the Sustainable Development Goals. In 2012, the volume of PPP investments worldwide reached an all time high of 158 billion USD, however in 2013 a 40 percent decline in PPP investments was witnessed and since then such frameworks have been on the rise again (PPIAF, 2016). Public-Private Partnership play a greater role than only supporting infrastructure investment, it has also helped in achieving several Sustainable Development Goals such as gender equality. The World Bank Group published a report in 2019 about the initiatives of the WBG to integrate women in the movement of PPPs and infrastructure.

The report recognises that there are easily identifiable challenges such as different educational opportunities for boys and girls in different societies and other challenges that are considered “invisible” such as the “gender norms” and behaviors that dictate differences between men and women that are seldom spoken about, most notably societal roles and decision making. The WBG report mentions learning from infrastructure building investments (that are based on PPPs) in order to include equal presence of men and women in the development of infrastructure projects. It is generally acknowledged that the inclusion of women in the workplace has not been heavily supported in the past, especially in developing countries and the empowerment of the presence of women in economic sectors both helps achieving gender equality and poverty reduction by providing jobs for women in impoverished nations thus decreasing both the gender and wage gap (PPP Knowledge Lab, 2019).

On another note, there are many challenges that are faced with the implementation of PPPs in developing countries. According to a research by the Public-Private Partnership Legal Resource Center (or PPPLRC), of the many issues faced by poorer settlements is the illegal nature of these sub-urban settlements, making



the delivery of infrastructure and services to these settlements impossible due to the residing factor. Consequently, the development of many services such as electricity and water delivery and even education an inhibited right, let alone the development of infrastructure in these areas through PPPs. In addition, the nature of developing nations makes it unlikely for private institutions to invest into delivery services in the nation, hence the country is left controlled by ad hoc delivery services usually controlled by unofficial channels of cartels. Such channels can lead to the monopolization of the service and its delivery channel making it even harder for investors to find incentive or purpose to invest in such areas. The combination of illegal settlements and under-developed infrastructure make such areas good targets for cartels and organised groups to alternative methods of service delivery. Another reason why PPP investment is hard to apply in poorer developing countries is the presence of corrupt judicial or governmental services; in its core essence, the PPP framework requires a formal agreement to be developed between the public sector and the private parties/investors, yet when a government or judicial systems remains corrupt it becomes unlikely that investors or private companies are to engage in PPP agreements. The reform of the judicial system or corrupt government can take years before change is seen and as such creates an impediment in the development of the nation economically in order to eliminate poverty. Lastly, among the many issues that poorer countries face is the implementation of tariffs that are usually a key component in the PPP framework. When multiple PPP based projects are implemented on a national scale, several tariffs can be expected to be imposed on the people for the purpose of cost recovery. Nations with lower income will as such be unable to deliver these tariffs hurting the development and leave progress very limited making it hard to provide and deliver services and even job opportunities (PPPLRC, 2019).

In light of the challenges PPPs are being implemented in poorer nations with minimal degrees of success, some examples include:

A. The Leased Drinking Water Supply Utility in Urban and Suburban Centers in Cameroon:

The lease was established in 2008 between the Government of Cameroon, the Cameroon Water Utilities Corporation (CAMWATER) and Camerounaise Des Eaux (CDE), with a set structure of regulation for the “privatization” of the water delivery network in Cameroon in light of the water crisis with around 30 to 40 percent of the population having access to clean water. The lease states that the contracting company is to deliver water to any individual willing to become a subscriber on the condition that the company is to provide a channel of delivery while ensuring its smooth operation with no shortages or outages. The private companies behind the PPP are Office National de l’Eau Potable (ONEP)



Delta Holding and Inegma, all of which originate from Morocco; these companies won a 10-year lease with CAMWATER which led to the establishment of CDE. The World Bank named the partnership as the first true South-South PPP in the African Region. The issue that arose from the merger, however, is that former employees of the National Water Supply Company of Cameroon (SNEC) were now mostly contracted employees working for CDE, were threatening to go on strike over lost benefits such as social insurance and retirement pay, including accrued unpaid salaries. An emergency meeting was then held between CAMWATER, CDE and the Ministry of Labour and Social Security where 385 million FCFA were set aside to settle unpaid salaries. This still left many begging the question of how the lost benefits are to be compensated and where the funds are to be bought from (PSIRU, 2018).

Furthermore, the general development of drinking water delivery network was not that significant. From 1990 till 2008, the percentage of people with access to drinking water rose from 50 percent to 74 percent prior to the privatization. However, from 2008 till 2015 the percentage only rose to 76 percent with the annual average increase dropping significantly from 1.33 percent to 0.28 percent. Despite a 15 million USD investment from multiple ends including the PPP contract and the GPOBA, the public sector performed significantly better before the introduction of private companies to control the progress. As a matter of fact, in recent years Cameroon still suffered from water shortages and outages due to the limited progress done on infrastructure despite the contractual rules stating that the contracting company is to take care of re-established and revitalizing delivery channels in return for tariffs to be gathered from subscribing users. Unlike many PPP contracts where the public sector is responsible for rebuilding the infrastructure concerned with the project, the CDE contract stated that the private company is to take care of that in hopes of adopting better rehabilitation technologies from the contracting company in order to better develop the infrastructure. This proved to be false though as in the 2015 “Leasing and Concessions Follow-up Committee for Portable Supply” meeting, it was found that 24 percent of water was lost during distribution due to improper infrastructure. In early 2016, Cameroon President, Paul Biya, announced that the 10 year contract will not be renewed in light of multiple failures to deliver what is promised in addition to unpaid water bills due to poor performance causing the government to compensate a total of 101 million FCFA or the equivalent of 19 million USD. Since then, the Government of Cameroon has set out to establish other deals with different multinational companies in hopes of fortifying the water sector in Cameroon. As such, most recently in 2016, the Government of Cameroon signed a 152 million USD deal with the British company Biwater aiming to refurbish the deliver lines and channels of



drinking water in 14 different locations across Cameroon in hopes of reducing the amounts of water shortages. The project has since been underway with increasing interest from Biwater in the extension of the project further(CDE, 2010).

However, not all PPP projects in poorer nations seem to face challenges and eminent risk, some are met with limited risk and great outcomes as a result of proper planning and calculated decision making, a solid example would be the Kayes Thermal Power Plant project of Mali:

#### B. Kayes Thermal Power Plant of Mali:

After 16 months of construction, in late October 2018, Albatros Energy Mali (AEM) announced the start of operations 3 days ahead of schedule showing the promising potential of the 90MegaWatt Independent Power Provider(IPP) project set to deliver energy for the next 20 years. Mali is considered among the 25 poorest countries worldwide with only about 25.6 percent of the 17.6 million populace having access to electricity. Before the establishment of the AEM PPP project, Electricite Du Mali (EDM) met 50 percent of domestic power consumption through its delivery network with the rest being delivered through expensive and inefficient embedded generation methods in smaller areas where the channel could not reach, some methods used were microdiesel generators. The installed electricity plants can generate up to 325MW yet only a small portion actually makes it to the people due to the absence of proper efficient delivery networks. However, with an average economic growth of 4.5 percent per year and an urging need for more infrastructure in the ever-growing urban Mali, it became apparent that EDM's efforts will not be able to meet the requirements. As such the AEM IPP project started in 2009 when developers signed a memorandum of understanding with the Government of Mali to deliver 51MW through a thermal power station using refurbished generators over a 10 year period. After being met with an Ebola outbreak in 2013, the project was hindered by many fears but after Mali being declared Ebola free in 2015, the project resumed in 2016 with even better hopes.

The Kayes Thermal Power Plant IPP project was less concerned with economic outcome and more with community development. This was made especially true seeing as the Kayes Thermal Plant developed by AEM resides 9.5KM away from the town of Kayes and close to the village of Medine; this level of proximity has enabled AEM to cooperate with nearby towns and villages to ensure the highest level of socio-economic sustainable development in these areas. Alongside employing the local workforce in the building of the power plant which helps induce economic development, a series of priority projects were initiated in Medine



including the provision of basic healthcare facilities including medicine dispensaries, the consultation of nurses and doctors to ensure integrity and an ambulance service that covers Medine and surrounding villages and towns. Additionally, AEM started showing progress on the Clean Drinking Water Programme in Medine which is aimed towards ensuring that the people of Medine who represent a vital workforce for the Kayes Thermal Plant, receive proper drinking water alongside other services (Infrastructure Investor, 2019).

Such initiative can show how PPPs can go bad or bring nothing but prosperity and sustainable development in light of the presence of both monetary and non-monetary poverty. A country such as Mali may have a growing economy as a poor nation but can be considered severely non-monetary poor due to the lack of services being delivered in the first place, basic services even that sometimes are not available to sustain basic life. Hence, it should be noted that different PPP frameworks are aimed towards different goals, some economic, others social or even socio-economic. The aim of PPPs has always been the integration of the private sector in the public sector in order to improve the status of the nation where governments are incapable of funding projects for sustainable development. Depending on the terms of the partnership it can sometimes see great success and it can sometimes be faced with failure as previously examined.

## IV. Bloc Positions

In the European Union, PPPs are contractually based meaning no “informal” partnerships can be formed. In the European Union cPPPs (or Contractual PPPs) are used to help tackle societal challenges such as climate change, energy and resource efficiency and digitalization. As such in the EU cPPPs focus more on attaining sustainable development rather than tackling poverty seeing the economically and financially advanced nature of the nations in the EU. Europe has so far contributed around 7.1 billion Euros since the establishment of cPPPs to help attain sustainability and are now focusing on ten partnerships most notably, Energy-efficient Buildings, European Green Vehicle initiative and Sustainable Process Industry all of which help tackle climate change for safer environments (EUROPA, 2019).

In the African continent, PPPs have been constantly on the rise, seeing as the majority of African countries are developing nations. As previously discussed in the topic’s discussion, it is evident that the nature of these countries and their establishments does not make them a preferred place for investors, yet against these odds they still attempt to do their best at investing in infrastructure and services.



In the two case studies discussed, it was made clear that the terms of the terms of the partnership alongside the goals can create an impact on the nation. In the Cameroon model, there was a heavy focus on the payout of the CDE and private companies that little regard to investing in infrastructure was seen. While in the AEM model of Mali, the project had intentions to expand beyond simply delivering electricity and making payout, and instead it focuses on integrating the society around it in the development through providing jobs, technical skills and technology alongside other projects to further achieve sustainability such as healthcare, drinking water delivery and an ambulance service. As such, it becomes clear that the African nations are trying to achieve sustainability through PPPs and are well aware of the impact such partnerships can have on their nations.

In the Middle East and MENA region, certain nations have found success in their PPP endeavours such as Jordan. Jordan found significant development through signing multiple PPPs over different sectors including: Assamara Water Treatment Plant, Amman East Power Plant and the Medical and Industrial Hazardous Waste Treatment Plant. Likewise, Morocco has been constantly establishing concessions regarding different public services in hopes of achieving sustainability. Of the many services they have established PPP frameworks, some include urban transport, sanitation and water treatment, water supply and electricity. Generally speaking, the MENA region is significantly active in PPP frameworks and has successfully taken on different PPP endeavours with eminent success with many countries also presenting a local legal framework for the protection of all parties involved (OECD, 2019).

In the South American region, a 5 percent of GDP investment should be done in order to encourage proper development and begin eliminating poverty, however only have of that requirement is being invested. As such, PPP investments have become popularized again in South America since 2005 after declining in the late 90s. In 2005 Latin America and the Carribeans (LAC) invested around 8 billion USD into PPPs which rose to a significant 39 billion USD in 2015. As such the total investments done to PPPs in LAC reached 361.3 billion USD across more than a thousand projects concerning infrastructure most notably in energy and transport. These PPPs have clearly helped overcome several public issues such as inefficiency and lack of technical skills to help the nation progress further. The widest issue faced by these nations, however, is the lack of available funds and budget constraints that placed the LAC region in a critical spot concerning achieving sustainable development. The most notable way of enabling PPPs in the LAC region is through different forms of banks such as multilateral banks (MDBs) that finance a small share of



PPPs in the region, accounting for 3 percent. In addition, the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB) invests in the largest share of PPPs in the LAC region covering 35 percent of projects at 5.8 billion USD invested from 2006 till 2015 in 148 operations (World Bank, 2017).

## V. Recommended Sources and Further Research

Committee on Innovation, Competitiveness and Public-Private Partnerships (CICPPP), a committee that is part of UNECE focusing on implementing PPP in Europe. <https://www.unece.org/ceci/ppp.html>

European Commission - Contractual PPPs, a directory for the different PPPs implemented in the EU. <https://ec.europa.eu/programmes/horizon2020/en/contractual-public-private-partnerships>

PPP frameworks in the Middle East and MENA Region - A study by the World Bank <https://ppp.worldbank.org/public-private-partnership/library/regulatory-frameworks-successful-ppps-mena-countries-emerging-good-practice>.

Policy making in respect to PPPs - OECD <https://www.oecd.org/gov/budgeting/oecd-principles-for-public-governance-of-public-private-partnerships.htm>

OECD Report on PPPs in the MENA Region- [https://www.oecd.org/mena/competitiveness/PPP%20Handbook\\_EN\\_with\\_covers.pdf](https://www.oecd.org/mena/competitiveness/PPP%20Handbook_EN_with_covers.pdf).

A Portrait of PPPs in the LAC Region - World Bank Group <https://blogs.worldbank.org/ppps/portrait-ppps-latin-america>.

PPP Units Around the World - PPLRC <https://ppp.worldbank.org/public-private-partnership/overview/international-ppp-units>.

## VI. Questions to Consider

1. How can the people be protected in the case that PPP does not deliver what is promised?
2. How can the protection of private organizations be ensured considering the great risk they bear?
3. In the case that a government does not deliver its duties in a PPP, how can it be held accountable under jurisdiction?



4. If your country follows a PPP framework, does it focus on monetary or non-monetary poverty? And why?
5. Is the PPP framework applied in your country delivering short-term or long-term development that is sustainable?
6. Has the application of PPP solved certain issues but brought others with? If yes, how are these issues being addressed?
7. Is there a local legal framework for PPPs in your country?
8. Is the PPP focus in your government based on sustainable development or socio-economic progression?

## VII. Conclusion

Throughout this background guide, it was made apparent that PPPs are methods of attaining sustainable development in relation to the 17 Sustainable Development Goals or to help the country advance socio-economically in the case that it lacks certain basic structures and services such as proper infrastructure, education, or even healthcare. Evidently, most regions in the world develop frameworks and partnerships of the Public-Private forms for different purposes depending on the region. In the same region, however, some nations find better development than other considering the nature of the partnership and the way it is approached. In general, most PPPs find success but in certain cases some projects find lack of proper investment of distribution of funds, some others find that what is promised is barely delivered and some even find failure due to bad planning. Due to this, the discussion revolving updating frameworks and supporting the development of proper approaches arises in order to help nations understand how to acquire and maintain solid PPP projects for sustainable development.

The importance of PPPs in bridging the wage gap and even social gap is one that cannot be denied, it has already helped several African nations begin delivering basic rights that in the past seemed impossible to acquire. Furthermore, PPP projects also help developed nations in understanding the framework and how to approach it correctly paving the way to implement it in two different ways: 1) locally in order to avoid conventional methods of product or service delivery and move towards sustainable methods, and 2) regionally and internationally to help developing nations achieve sustainable development while also aiding them in achieving better status.



The international community has been particularly active in aiding one another develop PPP projects and private institutions have been nothing short of helpful. Yet, the structure and implementation remains imperfect with many nations still suffering from corruption, recession and even social issues. It should be the job of the international community to unite and attempt to amend the issues faced in PPPs based on the history of some nations. By doing that, the different PPP frameworks can be turned into a unified model on how to approach different projects in different regions to ultimately achieve sustainable development.

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