

Self-governance in global climate policy: An essay

Aviel Verbruggen*, University of Antwerp

www.avielverbruggen.be

December 26, 2015

Contents

14	Preface.....	2
15	Why an essay?	3
16	Principles subscribed.....	3
17	Practical things	4
18	Acronyms	5
19	1 Glossary.....	6
20	2 Climate Policy legends.....	10
21	Legend n°1: A globally uniform carbon price is necessary and (almost)	
22	sufficient to manage the climate commons.....	10
23	Legend n°2: The world is well advancing towards Sustainable Development.	13
24	3 Paris COP21 and multilevel governance.....	17
25	Multilevel governance	19
26	4 COP challenges and alternatives	21
27	1. Zero-sum versus common resolve	21
28	2. Attributes of the COP processes	21
29	3. Self-governance by sovereign nations	23
30	4. Transfers.....	24
31	5. Ostrom menu for Self-governance of the Global climate commons	26
32	Box 1. Urgency to protect.....	27
33	Box 2. Spearhead policy: eliminate energy-related CO ₂ emissions.....	29
34	Box 3. Transfers.....	33
35	Box 4. Participation & Compliance.....	33
36	Box 5. Pledge & review (P&R).....	35
37	Box 6. Binding yearly commitments.....	37
38	Box 7. Monitoring – Reporting – Verification (MRV) at the UNFCCC level.....	39
39	6 Summary	43
40	7 Concluding	46
41	Bibliography	47
42		
43		

· Refer as: Verbruggen, Aviel (2015). Self-governance in global climate policy: An essay.
Essay EM-1. University of Antwerp. DOI: 10.13140/RG.2.1.1512.7128 (ResearchGate)
Comments are solicited; co-authorship is welcomed: aviel.verbruggen@uantwerpen.be

1 Preface

2 On December 12, 2015, COP21 in Paris adopted the Paris Agreement. The
3 unanimous adoption prompted praise and high expectations. The agreement,
4 however, is a grey text, opaque or silent about how the global atmosphere and
5 climate commons may be governed. Scientific and societal media burst from
6 many ideas and proposals about proper global policy regimes. This essay distills a
7 consistent architecture from the diverse propositions, with Elinor Ostrom's studies
8 and recommendations playing the leading role. Elinor Ostrom (1933-2012) is the
9 first and only female Economics Nobel price (2009) winner.

10 When the entitled appropriators of a commons resource pool are sovereign, self-
11 governance is unavoidable. Sovereignty is real in case of the global atmosphere
12 and climate commons. There is no world authority imposing mandatory rules.
13 Privatization of the atmosphere and climate commons is neither desirable, nor
14 feasible. The global community governs the global climate commons with a
15 framework convention (UNFCCC 1992) and by follow-up COP agreements. Since
16 1995 yearly COP meetings delivered the Kyoto Protocol (COP03, 1997), the
17 Copenhagen Accord (COP15, 2009), and the Paris Agreement (COP21, 2015).
18 Notwithstanding the massive mobilization of participants and audience at the
19 yearly December COP events, the approaches tried year after year book little
20 success: Timely and effective greenhouse gas emissions reductions are not
21 occurring on the required scale.

22 This essay extends the findings by long-time experts in governing local commons
23 (Ostrom 1990, Bromley ed. 1992) to governance of the global atmosphere and
24 climate commons. Ostrom (1992) has given the hint: "*The general principles
25 involved in solving large-scale commons problems are similar, however far more
26 difficult and costly. Institutional designs relying on nested structures of smaller
27 organizations within larger organizations are most likely needed*". The essay's
28 focus is on the UNFCCC, as being the top of a nested, multi-leveled governance
29 structure. This structure is largely existent. Highlight its strong hubs, clarify the
30 interconnections among the many centers, and complete a few links are sufficient
31 for a workable global climate policy regime. The UNFCCC is the top of the
32 multilevel construction, and should limit its actions to top executive tasks.

33 The results and principles described by Ostrom and her colleagues are applicable
34 by incorporating the abundant literature on climate policy architectures or
35 regimes (e.g., Aldy and Stavins eds. 2007, Hahn and Ulph eds. 2012, Cramton et
36 al. eds 2015, Barrett et al. eds. 2015). The outcome of combining the many
37 sources is thwarting the approach of traditional economics, official policies of
38 market-based economies (for example the European Union), and the course
39 followed by the COPs.

40 The analysis tries a rational approach for speeding up global climate policy to a
41 pace effective in certainly staying below risky +2°C atmospheric warming.
42 UNFCCC's global climate policy is the pinnacle of extended, multi-leveled and
43 nested constructions. Below UNFCCC level, all mitigation and adaptation activities
44 occur in national and local contexts. UNFCCC's core task is safeguarding and
45 managing the climate commons, by preventing GHG emissions' continuation and
46 growth. Successful prevention is difficult to visualize and enforce, but crucial for
47 respecting the 2°C limit. A rational approach recognizes the specificity of issues
48 like mitigation, adaptation, finance, technology, capacity building. This essay
49 focuses only one issue, albeit the principal one, mitigation of energy-related
50 carbon dioxide (CO₂) or in other language: preventing the continuation and

1 growth of energy-related emissions until the full elimination of energy-related CO₂
2 emissions is achieved. It requires quitting fossil fuels as an energy source, fully
3 and as soon as possible.

4

5 **Why an essay?**

6 How to keep overview when thousands of people debate climate policies, which
7 were tried, prepared, or proposed? Publications and propositions on climate policy
8 differ by various aspects: discipline and affiliation of the authors, explicit or
9 implicit assumptions, values, goals, limits in scope and information, and more.

10 Some authors ventilate dissatisfaction about the ongoing global policy-making
11 process, but their criticisms and alternatives are mostly overruled by mainstream
12 beliefs and practices, prolonging the usual policies. The slow and fragile progress
13 by customary climate policy however reveals the urgent need for drastically
14 different pathways. In first order, the supply and use of energy present practices
15 need reframing and rebounding in a sustainable development perspective. Again
16 a contentious topic of endless study and debate.

17 Covering a minor part of the debates already leads to tomes of text. Yet, my
18 ambition is to review the important topics in an essay of limited length, and in a
19 language accessible to an audience interested in climate policy. This essay
20 provides information, recipes, tips, and a few warnings. The formal mindset of
21 QED (Quod Erat Demonstrandum) is avoided. Proofing works via testing practical
22 recipes and their results. This stimulates the readers' creativity in associating own
23 experiences with the presented information and suggestions. Feedback by
24 readers is appreciated.

25 This essay is modular. Most parts can be consulted independently. This applies to
26 the glossary (chapter 1), legends (chapter 2), COP21 agreement and decision
27 (chapter 3), challenges and alternatives (chapter 4). Having considered the four
28 chapters is helpful in absorbing the grand menu (chapter 5), proposing a
29 comprehensive and consistent composition of essential ingredients of workable
30 global climate policy. The menu applies Elinor Ostrom's concepts about self-
31 governance on the global climate commons. All modules (in chapter 6 called
32 'boxes') are open for criticism and improvement, with a focus on practice, reality
33 and diversity. With an open mind, the available and new contributions can be
34 converted into improved propositions.

35 Finally, this essay is less formal in referencing. Including all the references that
36 informed and inspired me on climate policy issues over the last twenty-five years,
37 would swell the text, and deteriorate its practicality. Hence the bibliography
38 section holds an extensive (still incomplete) list of publications consulted, not all
39 of them referenced in the text. Comments and suggestions of readers about
40 completing the essay and about improved referencing are solicited. Co-authorship
41 is welcomed.

42 **Principles subscribed**

43 A set of principles guide the analysis and propositions:

- 44 1) The drastic and urgent changes in energy supplies and use request exploration
45 of non-conventional approaches and solutions (think out of the box). It is unlikely
46 for people and organizations rooted in the fossil fuel era and with major interests
47 in the continuation of present lifestyles to find the disruptive pathways needed.
- 48 2) Endowed nations realize first the renewable energy transitions, opening roads
49 for the developing nations (if not this way, forget about a sustainable future)

1 3) Propositions respect five overarching principles (Verbruggen 2011):
 2 • Universality: global issues are assessed and solved from a universal vision
 3 • Sovereignty: sovereign nations request balanced and fair approaches
 4 • Diversity: only specific solutions are effective, efficient, and fair
 5 • Transparency: for real and persistent commitment in common resolve
 6 • Realism: change asks resources, time and organization; inaction brings
 7 catastrophe
 8 4) Sustainable development as mission. The principal dimensions of sustainable
 9 development are governance and equity. The commonplace 'present generations
 10 bring offers for future generations' when they address climate change, conflicts
 11 with the polluter pays principle. Present generations do not own rights of littering
 12 the atmosphere, but duties to urgently stop littering and clean the mess.
 13

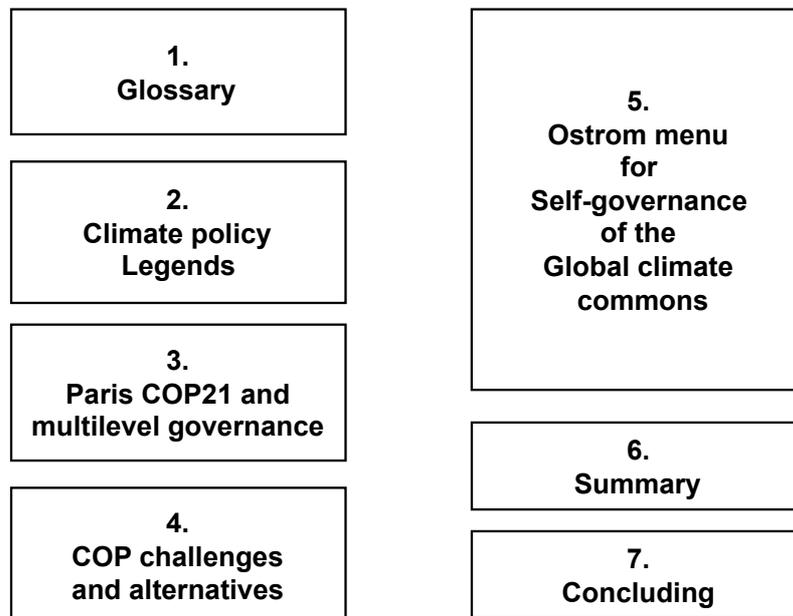
14 **Practical things**

15 When referring to another chapter, section or figure of the text, vertical brackets
 16 [.] are used.

17 Referencing in the text is limited; the bibliography at the end holds more sources
 18 consulted.

19 The essay is structured by providing four introductory chapters (left side of
 20 following scheme). The main chapter 5 outlines the self-governance architecture.
 21 Figure 6 is a flowchart of the architecture's constituent components. Chapter 6 is
 22 a Summary of the major properties of the self-governance propositions of chapter
 23 5. A brief Concluding (chapter 7) ends the essay.
 24

The structure of the essay



25

1

2 **Acronyms**

3 **BRI:** Budget Reform Index

4 **CDM:** Clean Development Mechanism (adopted at COP03)

5 **CO₂:** carbon dioxide (long-living greenhouse gas; the emissions are mainly due to
6 fossil fuel combustion and explosions (internal combustion engines); land use and
7 deforesting are the second source)

8 **COP:** Conference of Parties (of the UNFCCC), since 1997 convening yearly in
9 another place of the globe

10 **Cpp:** average energy-related CO₂ annual emissions per person in a country
11 (summary indicator to monitor a country's emissions intensity)

12 **DPSI@R:** Driving Forces – Pressures – State – Impacts @ Responses (analysis of
13 major environmental issues in their causal sequence, and after evaluation
14 addressed by policy responses)

15 **ETS:** Emissions Trading Scheme (EU's CO₂/ GHG emissions trading system,
16 started in 2005 in follow up of COP03 in Kyoto, 1997)

17 **GCF:** Green Climate Fund (agreed in the Copenhagen Accord of 2009 to transfer
18 a yearly \$100 billion from 2020 onwards)

19 **GDP:** Gross Domestic Product (indicator of total wealth produced by a country
20 during one year); conversion in US\$ currency may use Market Exchange Rates or
21 Purchasing Power Parities. The latter method assesses better wealth of
22 developing countries.

23 **GHG:** Greenhouse Gases (long-living gases in the atmosphere with warming
24 potential covered by the Convention: CO₂, CH₄, N₂O, and three F-gases)

25 **IAEA:** International Atomic Energy Agency (UN organization, functioning as well
26 as promoter as controller of nuclear activities. At the moment very active for the
27 acceptance of nuclear power as low-carbon electricity source)

28 **INDC:** Intended Nationally Decided Contribution (by every Party)

29 **IPCC:** Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change

30 **IPECS:** Individual Parties' Emissions Contraction Scenarios (indicative patterns
31 for contracting and converging of the Cpp of countries)

32 **MRV:** Monitoring-Reporting-Verification (of commitments by Parties)

33 **P&R:** Pledge and Review (of commitments by Parties)

34 **PPP:** Polluter Pays Principle. Recommended by the OECD in 1972, evolving into a
35 spectrum of interpretations: polluters pay only the own abatement expenses
36 (light PPP), or also damage and adaptation expenses (strong PPP), or the
37 extended producer liability (strong version applied on impacts producers may
38 cause without human error)

39 **PWR:** Pressurized Water Reactor (most common nuclear power supply station)

40 **RE:** Renewable Energy / Electricity

41 **SD:** Sustainable Development (as defined in Our Common Future, chapter 2)

42 **SE4All:** Sustainable Energy for All. Initiative of the UN General Assembly to half
43 the energy intensity and double the use of renewable energy in developing
44 countries

45 **TINA:** There Is No Alternative (belief paralyzing creativity and progress)

46 **UNFCCC:** United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (also: the
47 Convention)

48 **WCED:** (UN) World Commission on Environment and Development (published in
49 1987 Our Common Future, stipulating the concept of Sustainable Development)

1 Glossary

No exhaustive glossary is provided, only a few terms, important in the global climate policy discussion.

1. **Commons** (common-pool resource; public goods): natural or man-made resources sufficiently large that it is costly to exclude users. Two main aspects of commons are: 1) access to use, related to the cost of achieving physical exclusion; 2) rivalry in use, related to congestion and depletion. *Freeriding* erodes commons, eventually to full loss. To avoid this tragedy Hardin (1968) proposes 'mutual coercion mutually agreed upon'. The usual shorthand solutions (privatization or enforcement imposed by outside force) are not feasible in case of the global commons atmosphere and climate, accessible by sovereign nations and their inhabitants. Ostrom (1990) argues that stable institutions of *self-government* can be created (this creation being again a collective dilemma). Three puzzles are to be solved: 1) supply a new set of rules; 2) credible commitments (based on reciprocity, trust and fairness); 3) mutual monitoring. Without monitoring, there can be no credible commitment; without commitment, there is no reason to propose new rules. The global atmosphere and climate commons require nested polycentric organizations within a globally comprehensive multi-level architecture. The diversity of the global actors and organizations at the nested levels asks for differentiated approaches and solutions.
2. **Complexity** (term generally used with imprecise meaning). A complex system is characterized by interwoven relationships to a degree that analytical decomposition is impossible and the dynamics are unpredictable (Homer-Dixon 2011). If global climate policy would be complex and own both characteristics, they would impede the design of rational multi-level governance structures. Already, social scientists propose 'clumsy solutions for a wicked world to improve global governance' (Verwey 2011). Climate change itself is complex, and indeed, COPs made global climate policy complicated. Nevertheless, climate governance is apt for decomposition and time-sequential ordering. Multi-level and polycentric distribution of responsibilities solves the sterile stalemate between top-down and bottom-up approaches. Mitigation and adaptation tasks can be decomposed. The policy process can be structured in yearly time-sequential rounds. It means, *climate policy is **not** under the spell of complexity*.
3. **Conference of the Parties**: supreme body of the UNFCCC, comprising countries with right to vote that have ratified or acceded to the convention. Since 1995, the COP convenes yearly in searching proper implementation of the UNFCCC.
COP03-1997 Kyoto Protocol: A panel of Annex1 countries including the EU pledged to reduce their volume of GHG emissions by 2008-2012 compared to 1990. Higher efficiency in emissions reduction was pursued by global trading in emission permits and by a Clean Development Mechanism. The latter also would transfer finance and technology to the non-Annex1 Parties.

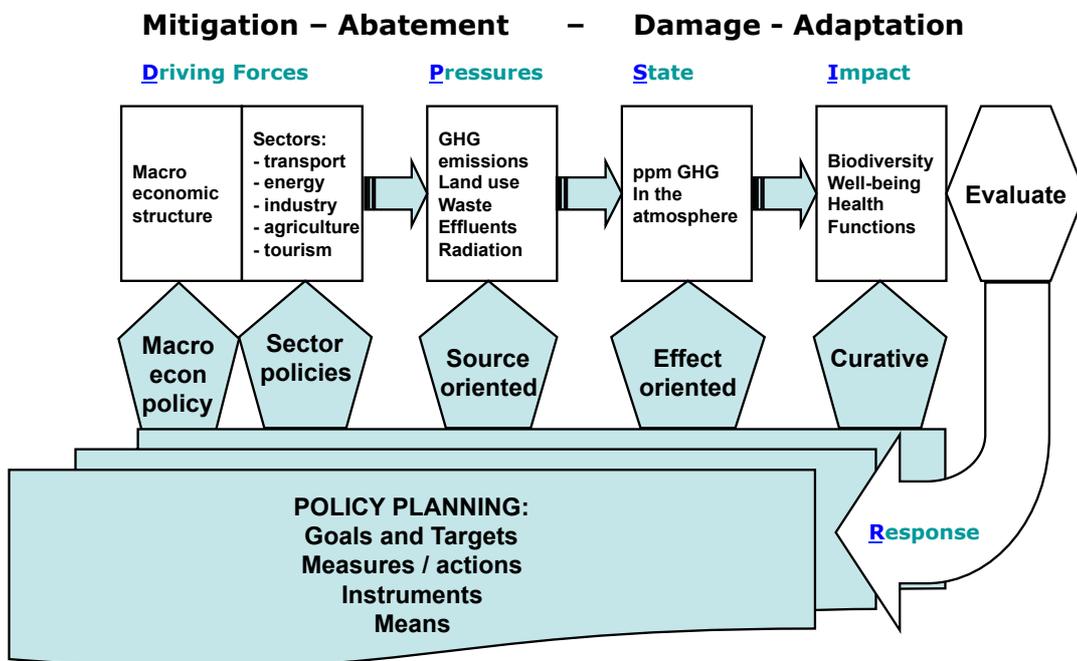
1 COP15-2009 Copenhagen Accord: Political leaders of the major world
2 nations have set out some major policy lines for the future. They adopt
3 2°C as ceiling on global temperature increase (Art.1). Art.12 announces
4 consideration in 2015 of a 1.5°C ceiling. "Deep cuts in global emissions
5 are required"; for developing countries "a low-emission development
6 strategy is indispensable" (Art.2) and "low emitting economies should be
7 provided incentives to continue to develop on a low emission pathway"
8 (Art.7). Next to mitigation is stressed "the need to establish a
9 comprehensive adaptation program" (Art.1). The Accord emphasizes
10 cooperation on adaptation and mitigation: "developed countries shall
11 provide adequate, predictable and sustainable financial resources,
12 technology and capacity-building" (Art.3), reiterated in Art.8 as "scaled-
13 up, new and additional, predictable and adequate funding" where also the
14 USD 30 billion 'fast-start' financing by 2012 and the "goal of mobilizing
15 jointly USD 100 billion dollars a year by 2020" are mentioned. For
16 managing the financial transfers, the Green Climate Fund (GCF) is
17 founded. The clear, univocal text of the Accord is two A4 pages. The
18 Accord is evaluated as "*maybe the best occurrence for climate policy since*
19 *the UNFCCC (1992)*" (Verbruggen, 2011). However, default talk about the
20 Copenhagen COP covers a long and very negative vocabulary.
21 COP21-2015 Paris Agreement: see Chapter 3
22

- 23 4. **Contraction & Convergence:** Greenhouse gas, or energy-related CO₂
24 emissions per person (C_{pp}) diminish towards a common low or zero level.
25 In the 1990s the idea was highly promoted, for example by the Global
26 Commons Institute (Meyer 1998). In the strongest version C_{pp} is a
27 uniform quota, given to all citizens on the globe, and tradable. In a more
28 realistic version, C_{pp} is the average value by country, contracting over a
29 period of decades, and via a tightening maximum allowable C_{pp} emissions
30 level applied on all Parties, converging towards very low quota near zero.
31 Agreeing on contracting and converging C_{pp} numbers is a translation of
32 the maximum +2°C constraint in clear targets for all the Parties, with
33 respect for the principle of 'common but differentiated responsibilities and
34 respective capabilities'.
35
- 36 5. **Diversity** (concept used by many sciences). UNFCCC's Art. 3.1 '*common*
37 *but differentiated responsibilities and respective capabilities*' refer to
38 diversity of the Parties, also stretching to their goals, expectations,
39 interests, and more. Aristotle aims to avoid discrimination by the rule
40 '*treating equal cases equally and unequal cases unequally*'. In every
41 continuum from minor to significant diversification, identification of divides
42 distinguishes variety (cases submitted to equal treatment) from disparity
43 (cases for separate treatment). Attention for diversity is almost absent in
44 economic theory. As a corollary uniform policy prescriptions are considered
45 as superior [*Legend n°1*]. Institutional economics, law and social sciences,
46 propose specificity for addressing diversity in an effective, efficient, and
47 equitable way. Also practical business is keen to diversify in technology,
48 product designs, consumer services, etc. In climate policy, the conundrum
49 of uniformity is unrealistic and harmful.
50

1 6. **DPSI@R** (Driving forces – Pressures – State – Impacts @ Response). The
 2 kernel of this logic suggested by the OECD (1993) has been extended by
 3 several environmental administrations. Upfront driving forces were added,
 4 with macroeconomic and economic sectorial detail (agriculture, industry,
 5 buildings, transportation, tourism, etc.). The causal sequence DPSI is
 6 concluded by evaluation, preceding an extensive response design, named
 7 Policy Planning in figure 1. The DPSI@R framework has proven to be of
 8 practical use in conceiving and deploying environmental policies. It helped
 9 to shift the emphasis in policy-making from curative towards preventive
 10 approaches. In climate policy, mitigation comes prior to adaptation.

11
 12 Figure 1: DPSI@R analysis as scientific basis for designing comprehensive
 13 environmental, in particular climate, policies

DPSI@R analysis & planning tool for climate policy



14
 15 7. **Flexible Mechanisms:** COP03 (Kyoto 1997) decided to launch a global
 16 trade system in emissions permits. On the one hand, a Cap & Trade
 17 mechanism allows trade among Annex1 Parties to reduce emissions 'at
 18 least cost'. On the other hand, Annex1 Parties could offset part of their
 19 committed reduction by obtaining certified emission rights via the Clean
 20 Development Mechanism. Due to their dubious effectiveness, efficiency,
 21 fairness, and administrative feasibility, the support for the flexible
 22 mechanisms faded. Major energy suppliers and industrial companies care
 23 about the life extension of EU's Emissions Trading Scheme (ETS).
 24 Economic policy instruments are little visible in the Paris decisions and
 25 agreement. Flexible mechanisms are covered in art.6 of the agreement.
 26

- 1 8. **Graduation:** In 1992 UNFCCC classified Parties as Annex1 versus non-
2 Annex1. A binary classification is rudimentary; over decades nations do
3 develop and change. Graduation is the evolution in belonging of Parties
4 to particular classes, depending on changes in attributes and performance
5 (for example GDP/capita). Suggestions to substitute more *refined and*
6 *adaptive classifications* for the 1992 binary, face high resistance of many
7 non-Annex1 countries. This resistance is harmful for reaching equitable
8 agreements in common resolve dynamics in the spirit of 'common but
9 differentiated responsibilities'. Binary is not the same as differentiated.
10 Another type of graduation is the *progressive participation of nations in a*
11 *global agreement*. A global agreement could start with 20 percent of the
12 world's nations emitting more than 80 percent of the greenhouse gases,
13 with the option for all other nations to join the agreement. Deliberate
14 joining will occur when the agreement is transparent and respecting the
15 rights of all countries in a balanced way.
16
- 17 9. **(Ir)reversibility:** *Reversibility is the ability to restore or to maintain the*
18 *functional performance of a system*. Irreversibility occurs when no
19 substitutes exist for a system which functioning is destroyed. Hence,
20 destruction is fatal and to prevent destruction, drastic and urgent
21 interventions are warranted. Accumulation of long-living GHG in the
22 atmosphere and destabilizing the global climate are irreversible function
23 losses *justifying drastic and urgent measures*.
24

2 Climate Policy legends

Legends spread unfounded stories and increase the believing by others. Although fake, legends' impacts may be huge and damaging, inter alia by paralyzing valid solutions and necessary progress. Also climate policy design is infected by legends, of which two with high impact are discussed.

The grand climate coalition (officials, academics, captains of industry, green campaigners) may dislike the unveiling of the legends. The coalition did invest huge amounts of time and money in making the legends widely adopted. But this did not lead to the announced successes. The policies and plans to continue 'throwing good money after bad' are criticized. The coalition attitude is rooted in the belief 'there is no alternative' (TINA), a closure of the faith 'the only feasible way is the on-going business'. TINA is little helpful in addressing climate change, requiring thorough transitions of energy systems, with deep disruptions and reversals in theories, technologies and practices.

Legend n°1: A globally uniform carbon price is necessary and (almost) sufficient to manage the climate commons.

Economists are the authors and active propagators of this legend. The pursued uniform carbon price should be installed by preference via a global emissions permits cap & trade system covering all emission sources on earth (Gollier and Tirole 2015). Some economists argue that the second-best option of applying a globally harmonized uniform carbon price or tax is a more realistic approach (Cooper 2007, Nordhaus 2007, Stiglitz 2015, Weitzman 2015, Cramton et al. 2015). Some economists and social scientists are more cautious about the uniformity rule and focus more on the real diversity (Metcalf 2009, Parry and Williams 2012, Sartor 2015)

The legend of the globally uniform carbon price sounds good: with a single scythe, the "trillions of emissions daily caused by billions of people" (Nordhaus 2007) can be trimmed to the right length. However, practically it is impossible setting-up and applying the globally uniform carbon price. It does not match the reality of human life, being immensely diverse. Just try to answer the question: What does a uniform carbon price of say US\$20 per ton CO₂-eq emitted mean for respectively the Bahamas, Bangladesh, Belarus, Belgium, Benin, Bhutan, Bosnia, Botswana, Brazil, Bolivia, Bulgaria, Burkina Faso, to name just a few countries? Adding a uniform carbon tax to very different pricing, taxing and subsidizing systems in nations is similar to covering the skyline of a city with a blanket for obtaining a flat field. Because it is practically impossible to ever install a uniform carbon price, the 'eating of the pudding proof' never will happen. As a corollary, advocating the superiority of the global uniform price solution can continue forever.

Abuse of non-refutable truths

The legend is proposed as valid wisdom with the help of two non-refutable truths.

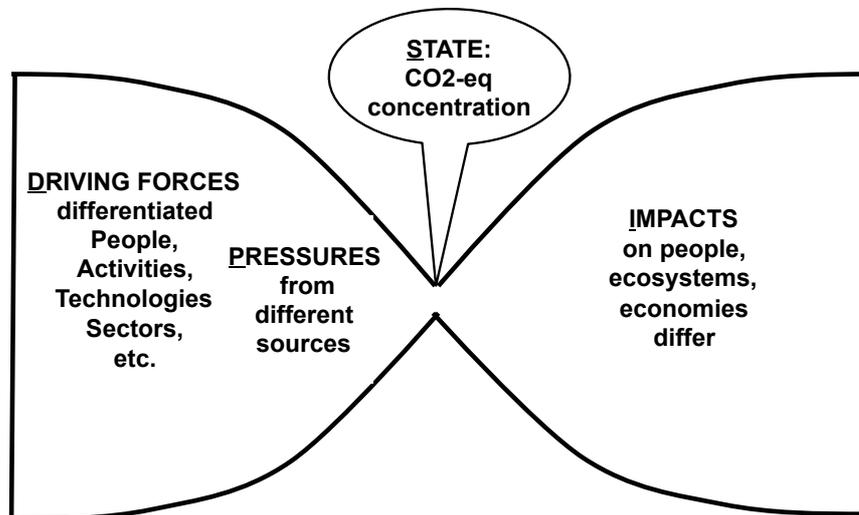
- First, emitting a quantity of CO₂-eq GHG wherever on earth causes a similar increase of CO₂-eq ppm concentration in the atmosphere. This concentration is the main State (S) variable in the climate change DPSI [*Glossary*] causal sequence to indicate the global accumulation of non-assimilated GHG emissions. From a ton emitted causing a similar increase in concentration is derived the flawed conclusion that all emission sources should be treated equally. Absent remains the theoretical or practical foundation for transmitting the global

1 coverage attribute of one particular State (S) variable (in case: GHG
 2 concentration) onto the differentiated Driving forces (D), Pressures from different
 3 sources (P) and different types of Impacts (I) on different places and populations.
 4 Actually, the DPSI model is a tool to chart and study the broad scope and
 5 diversity of variables and relationships constituting environmental themes or
 6 issues, like climate change being now the most predominant one. A detailed
 7 analysis is the basis for specifically designed policy responses in the completed
 8 DPSI@R model [*Glossary, figure 1*].

10 Figure 2: Well-mixed atmospheric GHG concentration is a global phenomenon,
 11 but no argument for uniform treatment of upfront and downstream phenomena

Well-mixed atmospheric GHG concentration is a global phenomenon, but no argument for uniform treatment of upfront and downstream phenomena

Climate change DPSI resembles an hourglass: every molecule emitted CO₂ adds equal weight to the global CO₂ concentration



12
 13 • A second truth used to argue in favor of uniform pricing of emissions is the
 14 formal mathematical method of mitigation costs minimization. By equalizing the
 15 marginal costs of emission reductions at various emission sources, the total cost
 16 of reducing a volume of emissions by the sources is minimized. Hence,
 17 economists favor the inclusion of *all* emission sources in *one* global basket, to
 18 obtain the *single uniform price* of maximum efficiency.
 19 Formal mathematics is correct. Only, a correct formula does not deliver
 20 meaningful results in all circumstances. When separate treatment of sources is
 21 due because of a high degree of differences across activities, technologies,
 22 sectors, conditions, functioning policies, etc. it is necessary to investigate and
 23 specify the scope and the set of cases includable for a valid application of the
 24 formula. Treatment of diversity is related to economics textbook assumptions
 25 about unlimited substitutability; by assuming everything is substitutable,
 26 trimming diversity into uniformity is seen as a major source of economic benefits.

1 However, the real world is and wants to stay utmost diverse because diversity is
2 natural, desired and often necessary. The crucial role of diversity is also observed
3 in practical economics. For example, successful entrepreneurs segment markets
4 to high refinement for meeting the demands of differentiated customers.
5 Production systems are organized in sectors and subsectors for several reasons,
6 one being differentiation of the applied technologies, diverse skills, etc. One
7 major strategy of managerial success is differentiation (Porter 1980).

8 9 *Stubborn failures*

10 It is puzzling why economists favor a single global approach (market) in climate
11 policy. It is also puzzling why they maintain that favor after experiencing failure
12 in repetitive trials to impose the uniformity straitjacket.

13 The economics legend has paralyzed climate policy since 1997 (COP03, Kyoto),
14 when the USA (via vice-president Al Gore) imposed emissions trading. The EU, in
15 1997 freshman in emissions trading, embraced the new instrument. December
16 2015, eighteen years are lost in trying to make the EU Emissions Trading Scheme
17 (ETS) effective. The ETS carbon price is merely symbolic. In energy transition
18 pioneer countries (the Netherlands, Germany) the ETS was not effective in
19 barring the substitution of coal for gas in power generation (supercritical coal
20 plants emit more than the double CO₂ per kWh than combined cycle gas plants).
21 The ETS is neither efficient: many participating companies get the emission
22 permits for free, and technological innovation triggered by the ETS is absent.
23 Significant windfall profits (and even fraud) question the fairness of the ETS.
24 Notwithstanding the evidence, the emissions trading legend prolongs its life, with
25 warm support of the regulated companies and sectors. In particular the major
26 energy companies love the ETS (Magritte Group Press Conference of March 19,
27 2014 www.gdfsuez.com). When regulated companies are strongly in favor of a
28 regulatory system, the latter is mostly captured and toothless.

29 30 *Epilogue: Don't throw out the baby with the bathwater*

31 Prices and bills play a significant role in guiding economic decisions. Economic
32 calculus by producers-appropriators of common goods is also the central piece of
33 Ostrom's governance analysis. Energy use, with its various harmful emissions, is
34 essentially an economic decision. However, a 'global uniform carbon price' cannot
35 streamline the economic calculus of trillions of decisions by billions of people. For
36 changing decisions, the monetary pressures (= bills) need adjustment to the
37 minimum forces necessary to obtain intended changes. The bills must also be
38 compatible with the carrying capacity of the actual decision-makers. A
39 tremendously differentiated real world asks for fine-tuning of the pressurizing
40 machineries, not for the mirage of a simple scythe zooming over a global leveled
41 playing field.

42 Carbon taxes need also tuning with other economic instruments (such as
43 subsidies) and with legal, social, and structural instruments (the so-called menu
44 of instruments [*Glossary DPSI@R, figure 1*]). Every nation's policy field is a
45 patchwork of particularities due to particularities of the nations themselves,
46 historical decisions, etc. Improving the policies for addressing climate change is
47 necessary and possible by redesigning the many patchworks. This is work to
48 deliver at the national, state and local levels. General names of this work are
49 budget reform, tax shift, green tax reform, etc. (www.foes.de).

1 **Budget Reform Index (BRI)**

2 Efforts in redesigning can be measured appropriately by an annual budget reform
3 (tax shift) index, as the ratio of two numbers. The numerator of the ratio is the
4 sum of four numbers yearly known in nations that have developed adequate
5 national accounts = {(taxes raised on bads + subsidies given to goods) – (taxes
6 raised on goods + subsidies given to bads)}. 'Bads' are climate and
7 environmental harmful activities, for example: emissions of GHG, use of fossil
8 fuels and of nuclear power, meat consumption, airborne traffic, etc. Goods are
9 climate and environmental beneficial activities, for example: use of sustainable
10 renewable energy, construction of efficient buildings, cycling and walking, etc.
11 National accounts, and so the four numbers and their addition, are expressed in
12 the currency of a country. The denominator of the BRI is the total state budget.
13 BRI reflects the importance of the budget or tax shift, and monitors the yearly
14 progress of a nation in redirecting financial incentives. EUROSTAT (2015)
15 publishes similar indices about the share of environmental taxes in the budgets of
16 EU member states.

17
18 Financial incentives cannot be organized at the UNFCCC level; they are the full
19 responsibility of nations and of states within nations. Nations may cooperate to
20 create transnational instruments for transnational activities (international
21 aviation, shipping, and global industrial sectors). Sectorial emissions trading
22 systems at a global scale may be one of the instruments selected.

23
24 Concluding, all type of instruments can play a role for cutting the annual tens of
25 billions tons emissions of GHG. The diversity of policy instruments to cut
26 emissions is similar to the diversity of cutting instruments used for physical
27 cutting in the versatile human activities observed. Just do the exercise of
28 enumerating the tens to hundreds of useful cutting instruments you know. You
29 will find out that the several instruments are suited for some applications but
30 totally unpractical and dangerous in other applications.

32 **Legend n°2: The world is well advancing towards Sustainable** 33 **Development**

34 The SD discourse at the international level evolved after the publication of the
35 seminal report Our Common Future (WCED 1987). The WCED discourse links and
36 interlaces two major post-World War II challenges – the worldwide unequal
37 economic and social development (UNCTAD 1974) and the impact of economic
38 development on the environment (Meadows 1972). The WCED report points out
39 the need for economic growth to counteract poverty, especially in developing
40 countries. This created room for business-as-usual interpretations such as
41 sustained economic growth and sustained profits in ongoing businesses (Grober
42 2014). Gradually, the further articulation of sustainable development concepts
43 and challenges was colonized by neoliberal governance principles (Pestre 2011),
44 culminating in the reduced form of People-Planet-Profit (3P or triple bottom line).
45 Adoption of 3P newspeak in governance for sustainability is pernicious and
46 vulnerable to manipulation (Norman and MacDonald 2004).

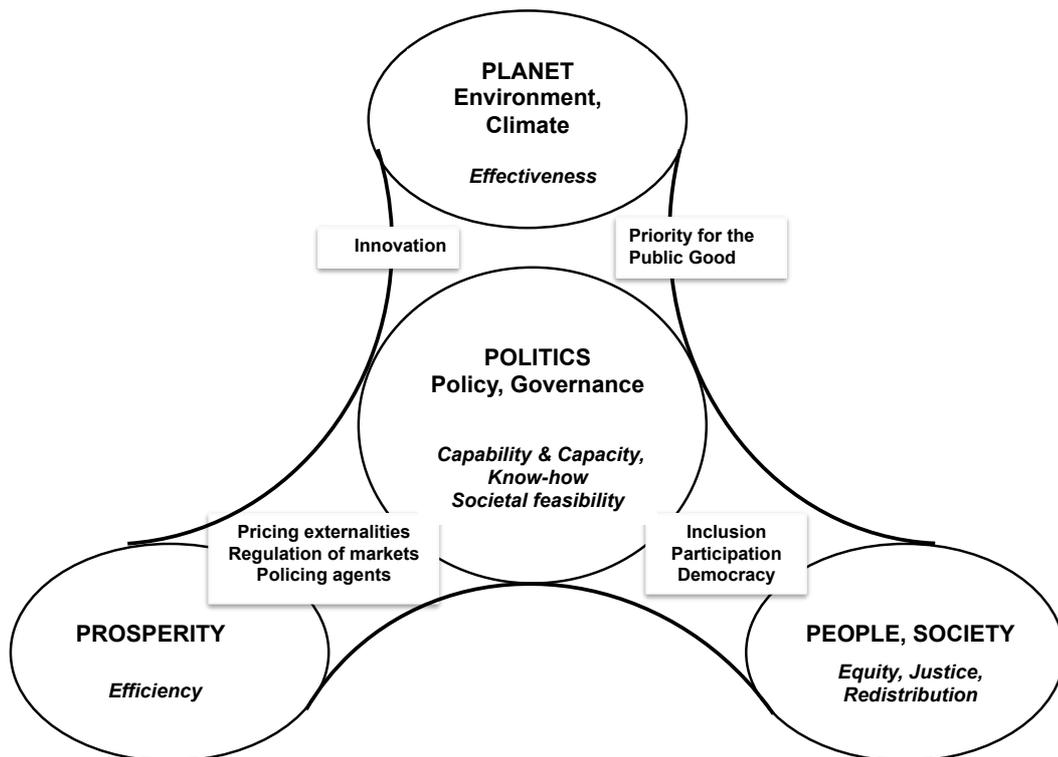
47 Reducing the SD message to 3P speak has contributed to the spreading and
48 success of the term SD. Over the past two decades, SD has been included in the
49 discourse of political, social and business actors at international, national,

1 regional, and local levels. Apart from this discursive success, achievements in
 2 actual sustainability since 1987 are quite sobering (Zaccai 2012). The 'sustainable
 3 growth' interpretation has become too far removed from the initial WCED (1987)
 4 and Agenda 21 (UNCED 1992) propositions.

5
 6 *Revisiting Our Common Future*

7 The conceptual Chapter 2 of Our Common Future (WCED 1987, p. 43-65)
 8 concludes at p.65 with the requirement of rebuilding seven societal systems,
 9 three of them directly referring to politics, policy-making, and governance (i.e.:
 10 "a political system that secures effective citizen participation in decision making",
 11 "an international system that fosters sustainable patterns of trade and finance",
 12 and "an administrative system that is flexible and has the capacity for self-
 13 correction"). All reference to the political dimension is omitted by the 3P
 14 reductionist approach. When Sustainability is taken seriously, Politics stays
 15 central in governing and integrating Planet, People, and Prosperity [figure 3].

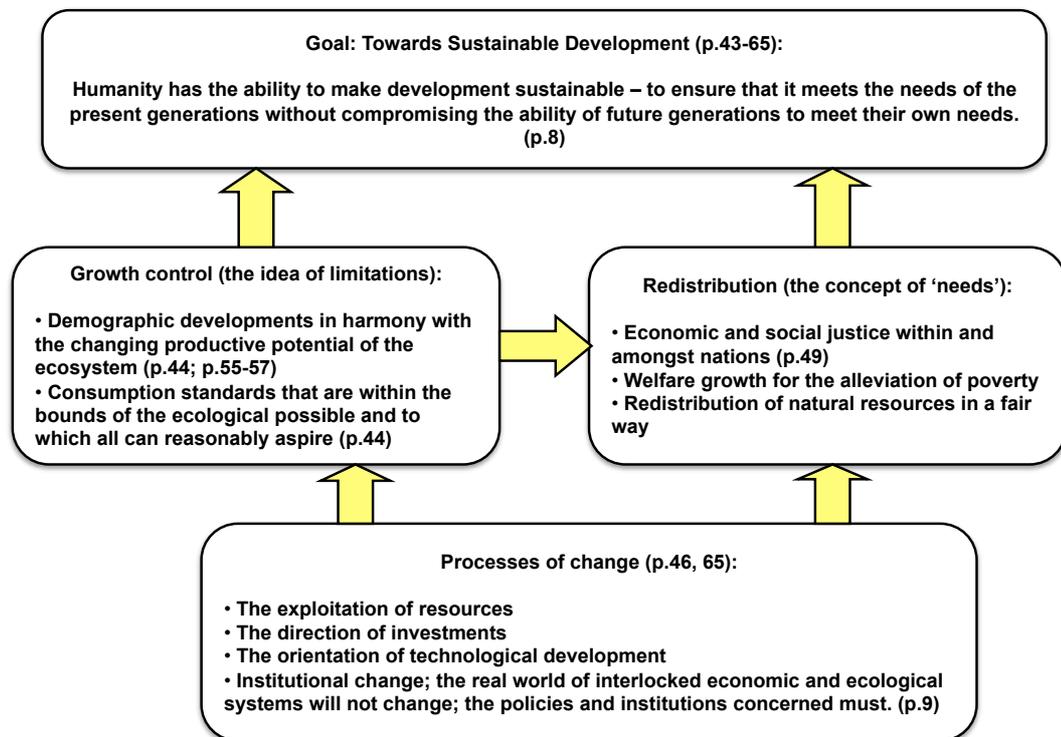
16
 17 Figure 3: Four dimensions and their interactions house the change processes
 18 needed for progress in Sustainable Development (based on WCED 1987).
 19
 20
 21



22
 23 The WCED definition of SD is inclusive yet broad and general, and contributes to
 24 diverging interpretations in terms of worldviews and interests of the beholders.
 25 Some said that SD is a vague concept; others proposed to dispose of the term.
 26 Yet like democracy, SD holds a goal for humankind and contains sets of criteria to

1 assess whether developments advance the goal or set it back. It is helpful to
 2 complete the widely cited and recited SD goal, and to link it with substantiated
 3 elements considered necessary for its advancement [figure 4].
 4 The standard mantra is better completed with the preceding WCED text
 5 "Humanity has the ability to make", emphasizing the responsibility of humans,
 6 i.e. the ability and necessity to act. SD is advanced in three main action fields:
 7 growth control, redistribution, and societal change underpinning the foregoing
 8 actions.

10 Figure 4: Substantiated definition of Sustainable Development (based on WCED
 11 1987)



12 *The Mask of Sustainable Development*

13 The clarity of the contents as provided by chapter 2 of Our Common Future and
 14 the implied actual U-turns required, make SD an intimidating, concrete and
 15 challenging duty for societies, politicians and their constituencies.
 16

17
 18 In practice, the essential substance of the SD concept and paradigm remains
 19 covered. It seems unknown as if Our Common Future has never been written and
 20 published. The term sustainability is depreciated to an obligated stamp for
 21 passing any exploitation of resources, any investment, any technology, or any
 22 policy, program, law or institutional structure. Missing are diligent sustainability
 23 assessments of all the above undertakings, which humans should fundamentally
 24 change as Our Common Future argues.

25 Sustainability assessment missing is obvious for policies, programs, and projects
 26 embedding nuclear power technologies. The new approval nuclear power is
 27 patching together is based on a flawed substitution of the narrow attribute 'low-

1 carbon' for the full range of sustainability criteria. The poor assessment of nuclear
2 power is masterminded by UN's IAEA (International Atomic Energy Agency). Also
3 IPCC (2014) Working Group 3, chapter 7 is struck in IAEA's pitfall at the
4 enormous cost of denying the own IPCC mission of comprehensive and balanced
5 assessment of the scientific literature (Verbruggen and Laes 2015).

6 In the latest EU policy documents on energy and climate policy, sustainability
7 figures as a lip-serving term without any impact (EC 2014, 2015). The inevitable
8 consequence is that non-sustainable business-as-usual is continuing to prevail,
9 moreover hid under the mask of sustainable development.

10

11 *Epilogue: Don't throw out the baby with the bathwater*

12 Frustration by the capture and abuse of the crucial concept SD makes people
13 reject further use of SD and suggest a search for a new concept. This is not the
14 road to take because SD in the original version of Our Common Future provides
15 robust roots for applying practical sustainability assessments. Prick the balloons
16 of 3P packed in glossy publications, happenings and self-awarded certificates.
17 They create a false, wooly image of SD.

18 The advancement of real sustainability is to be fought in every practical decision
19 about exploiting resources, investments, technological development, and
20 institutional change [figure 4]. Contributing to sustainability is leaving the forums
21 of wooly generalities. There is lots of work to do in the machine rooms of our
22 societies, where the handles directing the flows are hold, or turned to reroute
23 development. Every handle is occupied, most by interests of the past with little
24 concern about SD. Rerouting is not easy: it requires good understanding of the
25 machinery, of the strategies and tactics of vested interests, of the alternatives
26 and the stimuli they need. Being alert, thinking ahead, and resist misfortunes and
27 defeats, help in taking over the handles one by one.

28 The UNFCCC and IPCC agenda's have shown a mix of addressing climate change
29 and SD, without clarity what comes first. Mostly SD is set aside in obligated
30 phrases, sections, or separate chapters. More effective is to submit important
31 resource exploitations, investments, technologies, institutional reforms, programs
32 and projects to a comprehensive and thorough sustainability assessment rooted
33 in the essence of Our Common Future. For example, the low-carbon nuclear
34 technology has to be submitted to thorough sustainability assessment by
35 independent experts.

36

1 **3 Paris COP21 and multilevel governance**

2 The 'ad hoc working group on the Durban platform for enhanced action' prepared
3 the COP21 negotiations during years of many meetings with tomes of paper. Over
4 2015, the extensive preparation went crescendo towards COP21 (Nov.30-Dec.12,
5 2015). Ten thousands attendants and observers, with hundred thousands refused
6 access due to the terrorist attacks on the evening of Nov.13, 2015. The push to
7 reach a deal to overcome the 'failure of Copenhagen' was persistently strong. The
8 COP club received broad goodwill from most media and societal groups: the many
9 people and organizations concerned about derailing climate change, involved
10 scientists, active governments, social organizations, banks, industrial companies,
11 up to corporates with significant activities and assets related to fossil fuels.

12 The goal was consensus approval of a binding agreement. By default of a clear
13 program, the results of the Kyoto Protocol (1997) and of the Copenhagen Accord
14 (2009) functioned as presumed content. On the evening of Dec.12th, French
15 minister L. Fabius forged the unanimous approval of the Paris Agreement after
16 days and nights of tedious negotiations. Quoting Al Jazeera (Dec.2015): "*The
17 deal, which brought the climate change issue back to top the news agenda, was
18 hailed as a success by the mainstream media and self-congratulatory political
19 leaders - who made it sound like a major milestone. However, climate scientists
20 and activists have since said the agreement has little cause for cheer, falling well
21 short of what is needed to forestall a climate change catastrophe. They say the
22 deal lacks any legally binding mechanism to hold governments or corporations to
23 emission quotas, while other key issues in the accord are not binding at all.*"

24
25 The 31 pages text of the Paris Decision & Agreement holds boundless opportunity
26 for differentiated interpretation and protracting quarrels. PwC director J. Grant
27 talks of "*constructive ambiguity, or even woolly wording in some areas*", but as
28 COP21 President L. Fabius said "*this allows all countries the ability to take the
29 deal home and declare success.*" Ambiguity, woolly wording, every Party can
30 read the text as her success, announces a shaky contract. Without mastering COP
31 history and language, the Paris text is difficult to understand. Many preparatory
32 meetings and the tedious negotiations at COP21 have ironed out almost all of
33 substantive content. What substantively rests is the program of the Copenhagen
34 Accord [*Glossary*], and a few spurious things, like Art.16 §8 of the Paris
35 Agreement nominating explicitly IAEA as COP observer organization [*Legend
36 n°2*]. The words fossil fuel, coal, oil, nuclear power, international aviation or
37 shipping, ... are not mentioned. Renewable energy is mentioned once and
38 specifically related to Africa, covering the overall responsibility of wealthy
39 industrialized nations to develop and deploy sustainable renewable energy
40 supplies.

41 In striving for consensus, the French diplomacy has stripped the text from
42 content, leaving voluntary efforts, voluntary contributions, and voluntary
43 transfers, as fillings for patchworks of later projects. Who undertakes which
44 projects, how and with whom, is under the discretion of "*all Parties and non-Party
45 stakeholders, including civil society, the private sector, financial institutions, cities
46 and other subnational authorities, local communities and indigenous peoples*".
47 It is factual that mitigation and adaptation activities occur in the nation-states at
48 all levels of societal action, involving almost all citizens and organizations. It is
49 also recommended for the UN COP not to muddle in the factual intricacies of

1 nation-states, but to concentrate on the own responsibility of governing the
2 atmosphere and climate commons. Some preliminary comments on COP21 follow.

3 4 **Unanimity is not sanctifying**

5 Unanimity is the acclaimed attribute for calling the Paris Agreement an historic
6 landmark. *'Finally all countries of the world agreeing to address the climate
7 change problem'*, is heralded as novel and crucial. Both pretending is false.

8 Unanimity is not novel: In 1992 at the Rio summit, humanity agreed to address
9 climate change and enacted this in the UNFCCC. Since 1995, the COPs search for
10 workable implementation of the convention, with limited results notwithstanding
11 the agreed Kyoto Protocol (1997) and Copenhagen Accord (2009).

12 Unanimity is not crucial: The quest for momentary unanimity is not beneficial in
13 constructing global climate policy architecture. When sovereign Parties with
14 divergent visions and interests cling together, a watered down compromise
15 results. Because the deep change program must run urgent and be drastic,
16 setting out the beacons and starting the task is due by a dedicated panel of
17 pioneer countries. For example the full turnover of electricity generation to
18 sustainable renewable energy supplies is the responsibility of financially,
19 technologically and organizationally endowed countries. In Europe, Germany has
20 taken the lead with a few other member states (Denmark, Austria, Sweden).
21 Instead of supporting and extending the sustainable energy transition, it has
22 been obstructed by lobbyism of big industry and by the European Commission
23 (Verbruggen et al. 2015; EC 2014b).

24 Moreover, the momentary unanimity is fragile. It may be dissolved by exit of one
25 major Party or consortium of Parties. For example the USA when the Republican
26 Party conquers the White House in Washington. The Paris agreement has built in
27 a time elapse of four years before a Party can formally leave, but non-living up
28 the voluntary pledges and engagements is similar to a formal absence. When
29 voluntary financial contributions fall short of the announced annual US\$100
30 billion, developing countries may be inclined to leave or drag the feet.

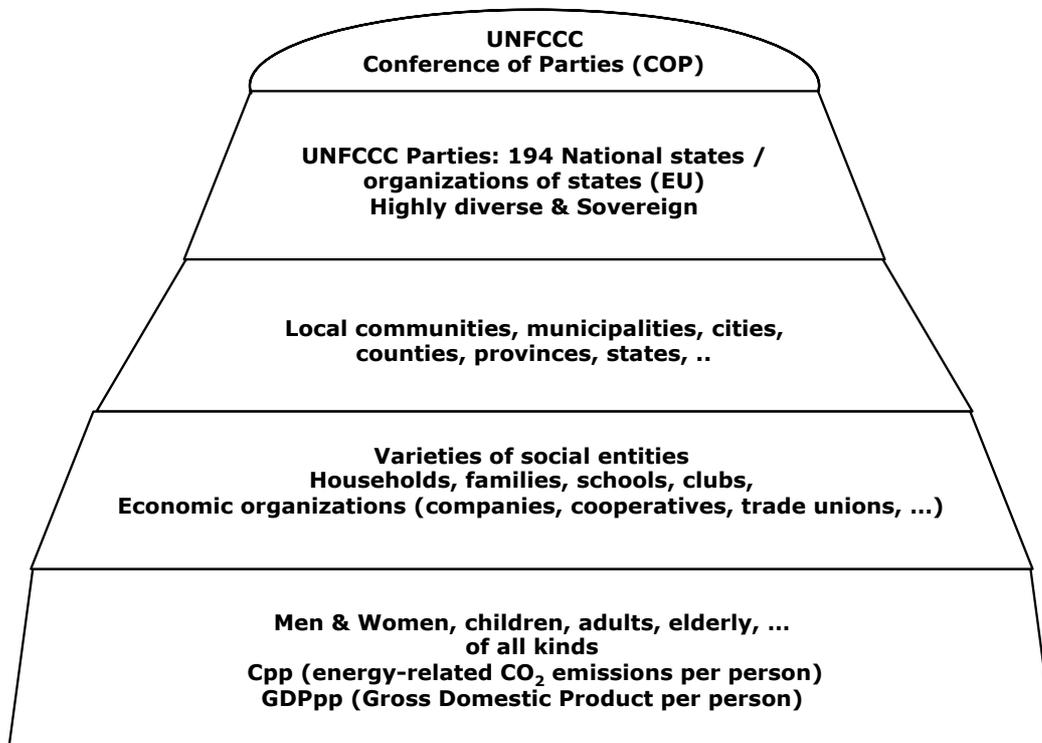
31 32 **A 'binding' climate agreement is difficult**

33 The INDCs are voluntary intentions; they are formulated as planned efforts and
34 targets focused on the 2020-2030 decade with 2030 as final delivery date. COP21
35 converted intentions in pledges, and foresees five-year periods for review and
36 strengthen the ambitions. The first overall review is planned for 2023 (still eight
37 years after Paris). Monitoring INDCs is cumbersome (Aldy and Pizer 2015). The
38 voluntary character of Parties' engagement and the absence of practical mutual
39 monitoring solutions are interlinked. Both show that essential aspects of
40 governing the climate commons are not addressed by COP21. Stiglitz (2015)
41 repeats the undeniable experience with public commons: *"voluntary contributions
42 simply will not work. Agreements have to be enforceable."* This explains the many
43 calls for a '(legally) binding agreement', but binding sovereign nations is very
44 contentious and precarious. When they refuse to install some enforcement
45 authority, precision of the agreement is the major second best to obtain some
46 binding power (Bodanksy 2015). However, the Paris agreement is little precise as
47 being built on voluntary actions, contributions, payments, coalitions, and more.
48 Hence, COP21 is unlikely to advance UNFCCC's principal mission: guard and
49 safeguard the climate commons.

1 **Multilevel governance**

2 Tensions between top-down and bottom-up policy regimes were epidemic in the
3 history of the COPs (Jacoby 2007, Hare et al. 2010, Rayner 2010). The COP03
4 top-down, failing rulings became more and more challenged by bottom-up
5 initiatives and arguments (Keohane and Victor 2011, 2015). The faulty, top-down
6 uniformity cannot bring an effective global climate policy. By COP21 putting all
7 cards on INDCs, the pendulum swung to merely intended bottom-up actions by
8 the Parties. Illusory globally uniform economic instruments are overruled by INDC
9 patchworks, also bewildering people's fantasy about self-emerging effectiveness,
10 efficiency and equity. The mistaken remedy of full voluntarism by all, equals free
11 roads and dominance for the mightiest Parties and actors, being the multinational
12 corporates.

13
14 Figure 5: The dome of multilevel climate policies



15
16 In building the multilevel pyramid of the world's climate policies, the artificial top-
17 down versus bottom-up conflict is sterile. The tensions naturally fade by bringing
18 the multilevel, nested character of the architecture to the foreground. Social
19 scientists identify sub-national, national, transnational, international and global
20 levels in climate policy, interconnected by polycentric governance structures
21 (Ostrom 2010, Jordan et al. 2015). Global climate policy is the top of the dome of
22 policies [figure 5].

23 This essay is not exploring the many versions and proposals about multilevel
24 governance. Figure 5 imprints the reality of the 'trillions daily decisions by billions
25 of people', and emphasizes the pinnacle position of the UNFCCC –COP structure.
26 On the one hand, the leaner the top, the better. On the other hand, some strains

1 on Parties' policies are necessary for governing the global climate commons
2 issues. The UNFCCC is the top of the multi-level structure and only in charge of
3 managing and preserving the global atmosphere and climate commons. All
4 practical climate policy is to be designed, set-up, performed, and evaluated under
5 the Parties' direct authority without COP muddling. The Parties' discretion
6 includes policy programs (like INDCs) and policy instruments (like emissions
7 permits trading and carbon taxing). The UN is not suited to delve into the specific
8 matters of national specificity and intricacy.

1 **4 COP challenges and alternatives**

2 Several challenges complicate the global policy-making process. The major
3 internal challenges, i.e. properties and functioning of the UNFCCC and COP
4 system, are discussed and followed by alternatives as recipes for solutions. The
5 challenges are described in normal script, the alternatives in italic.

6 **1. Zero-sum versus common resolve**

7 The logic of 'zero-sum game' (what some Parties gain other Parties lose)
8 dominates crucial nodes in COP negotiation phases. It creates suspicion and
9 animosity among the participants, and results in conflicting coalitions for
10 defending group interests. It paralyzes creativity and transparency, and may end
11 in sterile stalemating. These effects are lethal for constructing a self-governing
12 management (Ostrom 1990, 1992, 2010) of the global atmosphere and climate
13 commons. COP21 avoided zero-sum stalemating by stripping the agreement from
14 all contentious matter. This momentary relief delays requested solutions and
15 contradicts the high urgency of effective climate policies.

16 Zero-sum logic is promoted by defining GHG emissions as occupying room in a
17 strictly limited remaining emissions space. The constraint is tightened by defining
18 emissions mitigation as an expensive duty, and not as an innovative business
19 providing extra benefits for all engaged actors, yet most to first-movers.

20 **Alternative:** *'common resolve' is the natural mood of self-governing sovereign*
21 *partners. Common resolve among a group of people can grow by sharing in the*
22 *design, development and construction of a positive, concrete project. For this, the*
23 *project evolution obeys the five smart fundamentals by being specific,*
24 *measurable, attainable, realistic, and timed. In mitigation, such a project is at*
25 *hand: the full transformations of present fossil fuel economies into 100%*
26 *sustainable, renewable energy supplies. There will be resistance of fossil fuel*
27 *depending interests and Parties, but no single effective measure can be realized*
28 *without overcoming this resistance. Moreover, success on the energy transitions*
29 *project is solving the preponderant part of the whole mitigation task.*

30 **2. Attributes of the COP processes**

31 Unwieldy COP agenda and processes are due to historical factors (preceding the
32 1992 Rio Summit and the UNFCCC) and to the crowding of initiatives after 1992.
33 The management of the COPs are mainly complicated by:

- 34 • **Merging the climate change agenda with the economic developing**
35 **agenda.** After 1992 climate change rose as a global threat attracting wide
36 media coverage and politicians' attention, together with growing fear and
37 awareness in the wealthy industrialized countries of irreversible losses.
38 Developing countries hooked their economic growth aspirations (UNCTAD
39 1974) at the climate locomotive, helped by the Sustainable Development
40 hype. This conflation, often called 'mainstreaming' gets approval of most
41 observers, expecting to solve all the major world problems in a single
42 global turnover. However, it seems that the climate locomotive cannot
43 deliver the appropriate and required power for getting on track.

44 **Alternative:** *substitute streamlining for mainstreaming, with UNFCCC*
45 *(exclusively) focusing on the own responsibilities in governing the global*
46 *atmosphere and climate commons. For being successful UNFCCC will need*
47 *to respect the full scale of SD imperatives in the original meaning of Our*
48 *Common Future [Chapter 2, Legend n°2]. Finance, technology, and*

1 governance capability transfers from wealthy to developing Parties fulfill
2 central roles in equilibrated climate policies. For global climate policy's
3 effectiveness and efficiency the transfers should be climate action
4 dependent. These transfers are not sufficient to address the major
5 development issues. UNDP (2007) assigns priority to addressing climate
6 change because of its devastating impacts on all other development
7 efforts. Organizing this priority is a condition for progress on all fronts.
8

- 9 • **Amalgamation of issues that require a specific approach.** Today it is
10 customary to label systems and problems with 'complex' or 'wicked'.
11 Complex [*Glossary*] is often the excuse for bypassing the effort of
12 meticulous analysis, and wicked seems a voucher for clumsy solutions
13 (Verweij 2011). Progress in understanding is promoted by unraveling large
14 problems in parts suited to systematic analysis with testing hypotheses
15 and results; detailed analysis is alternated with synthesis of results in
16 comprehensive frames.

17 **Alternative:** *While climate policy is certainly complicated, it is not*
18 *complex because separable in manageable parts and sliceable in*
19 *consecutive phases over time. One can disentangle complicated problems.*
20 *Climate policy may be advanced by clearer identification of the various*
21 *issues, for example mitigation (Driving forces and Pressures phases*
22 *upstream of State in the DPSI cycle [*Glossary*, figure 1]) and adaptation*
23 *(downstream phase Impacts). Mitigation can be specified by sources of*
24 *GHG (energy-related, land-use, industrial gases), by socio-economic*
25 *sectors, by region, by emitting activities (power generation, steel, cement,*
26 *aviation, shipping, etc.), by related actors. Adaptation can be specified by*
27 *hazard, by sector, by region, by exposed people, etc. Temporally,*
28 *mitigation can be sliced in **yearly stages** because of its intimate links to*
29 *human activities. Adaptation, linked to hazards and risks, is improved by*
30 *shifting attention from curative to preventive and precautionary initiatives,*
31 *bringing the needs for investments and measures forward in time, and*
32 *putting a higher weight on mitigation. Proper dissection and analysis of the*
33 *mitigation and adaptation issues, inspires the selection of policy*
34 *spearheads for overcoming barriers and piercing walls of resistance.*
35

- 36 • **Unstructured authority and responsibility over the various**
37 **components of the ubiquitous climate policy task.** Weak structure
38 may result from the newness of the problems, from merging different
39 agendas, from amalgamation of issues, from lack of formal authority
40 caused by the sovereignty of Parties [*Challenge 3*]. The COPs establish a
41 precarious balance between the decisive power of Parties' political heads
42 (presidents, prime ministers) representing sovereign nations, and
43 assiduous efforts of settled COP-related officials and large supporting
44 staffs. In Copenhagen political heads substituted a readable 3-pages
45 accord for the opaque administrative tomes (Stern and Rydge 2012).
46 Another symptom of weak structure is the lasting conflict between top-
47 down and bottom-up approaches, and the zigzag switch from top-down
48 dominance at COP03 to full reliance on bottom-up INDCs at COP21. The
49 step into INDCs is creating chaos by national items and intricacies blurring
50 the UN level, turning MRV into an invincible dragon.

1 **Alternative:** climate policy holds a multitude of ubiquitous aspects and
2 facets spanning the globe. A workable policy cannot but be organized in
3 multi-level polycentric structures (Ostrom 2010) with varieties of regime
4 complexes everywhere (Keohane and Victor 2011). The UNFCCC is the top
5 of the multi-level structure [Chapter 3, figure 5].
6

- 7 • **The loose timing in climate policy conflicts with the high urgency**
8 **to act.** The history of UNFCCC since 1992 and of COP operations since
9 1995 is not glorious. Notwithstanding the growing awareness about the
10 urgency to act, supported by vocal grassroots, scientists and NGO
11 initiatives, the COP inertia remains provocative. The heads of state of the
12 mightiest economies prefer a pace according their domestic agenda.
13 Progress in COP negotiations is blocked by catch-22 priorities for
14 addressing climate change or for enhancing development opportunities.
15 The irresponsible attitude on urgency is also reflected in the actual time
16 framing of the UNFCCC and COP activity. The base-line year for calibrating
17 mitigation actions and results is still the (prehistoric) 1990, which is
18 maintained because perverse effects in the adopted awkward policies
19 emerge when it is tried to update or install rolling baseline years (for
20 example: 'present year - 2'). The use of timetables with delivery dates
21 five or more years in the future (now horizons 2020 to 2030) preempts
22 responsibility of present decision-makers. They engage their followers,
23 while politicians mostly negate the plans and commitments of their
24 predecessors. Only legally enacted commitments are eventually taken
25 serious and enforced.

26 **Alternative:** the time loops in global climate policy are double. On the
27 one hand, (strategic) long-range pathways show constraints and funnels
28 to be respected by selected indicators for guaranteeing that warming
29 remains below 2°C, viz. 1.5°C. At the moment the preferred indicator is
30 the yearly volume of global GHG emissions (IPCC representative
31 pathways). More detailed indicators enhance clarity, for example by
32 including the Ehrlich-Holdren-Kaya identity¹ specified by regions and
33 countries. On the other hand, (operational) formatting of the
34 commitments and delivery by Parties, need the shortest feasible time loop
35 of 3 to maximum 5 years. The baseline reference should be no more than
36 two years behind the year of expressing commitment, and delivery of
37 results should be within two years in the future. It means the set-up of a
38 time-sequential procedure, functioning robustly on yearly rolling baselines.
39 This alternative approach mimics the planning and operational
40 management of successful corporations.

41 3. Self-governance by sovereign nations

42 The management and preservation of the global commons atmosphere and
43 climate are dependent on the creation of self-governing rules by more than 190
44 sovereign and differentiated Parties (Barrett 2012). The global commons cannot
45 be managed by an exogenous authority (an authoritarian UNFCCC secretariat

¹ The identity is mostly applied on energy-related CO₂ emissions, i.e.: Total CO₂ emissions = (number of people) x (GDP per person) x (energy use per unit of GDP) x (CO₂ emissions per unit of energy). Extensive analysis and reporting of statistical studies are available (for example: IPCC 2014, WG3, Ch6)

1 neither can deliver lasting authority) or by applying private property rights (the
2 atmosphere and the climate are not divisible). E. Ostrom (1990, 1992, 2005) is
3 famous in studying self-governing solutions for common-pool resources. Most of
4 her studies focus on local communities with involved resource producers and
5 appropriators being personally interlinked. Nevertheless, Ostrom's lessons are
6 relevant for constructing self-governing structures and rules for managing the
7 global commons atmosphere and climate by the sovereign and differentiated
8 Parties. Credible commitments and mutual monitoring are requested.
9 Credibility of commitments is enhanced by reciprocity, trust and fairness, and
10 grows step by step. Common resolve among the Parties in pursuing shared goals
11 in a shared project creates the appropriate mood for cooperation. Legal binding
12 via an international treaty may become relevant after Parties have proven their
13 engagements are robust. Binding options are illusory when zero sum gaming and
14 suspicion prevail. Credible commitments are imperfect, but the most reliable
15 guarantees that Parties will deliver results (Barrett 2012).
16 Pledge & Review is the (presumably only) workable mechanism to engage
17 sovereign parties. It is adopted by UNFCCC, but heavily criticized by academics
18 (Gollier and Tirole 2015). Within Pledge & Review, there are several variants. At
19 COP03 a panel of Annex1 Parties pledged emissions reduction targets with a
20 timetable. COP21 builds on INDCs by all (willing) Parties. The credibility of both
21 versions of Pledge & Review is weak, reliable monitoring of real progress is tough
22 and contentious, and enforcing incentives are not built in. Developing and
23 applying more credible types of Pledge & Review are urgent.
24 Monitoring-Reporting-Verification (MRV) is regularly high on COP agendas. They
25 are indispensable activities in any agreement. Because of the particular types of
26 pledges used in the COPs (now being INDCs) MRV of INDCs will require excessive
27 administrative staff and outlays, several times more than implied by the
28 unfortunate CDM experience.
29 **Alternative:** *in a multi-level policy structure with UNFCCC at the top and with*
30 *very diverse Parties, INDCs are intended contributions to deploy at levels below*
31 *the UNFCCC top. Instead of submitting INDCs over periods of five years or longer,*
32 *Parties better agree on submitting yearly pledges and review progress on a*
33 *limited number of performance indicators. The latter indicators are available as*
34 *SD indicators or goals, and yearly elaborated for nearly all nations of the world by*
35 *established institutions (IMF, World Bank, International Energy Agency, IPCC, and*
36 *others) in collaboration with the nations' administrations. Under such conditions*
37 *the MRV tasks are diligently executed and certified. In this way, the third*
38 *component in Ostrom's scheme of self-governance can be supplied. It will support*
39 *the common resolve with credible commitments, because transparent mutual*
40 *monitoring works.*

41 **4. Transfers**

42 Three main transfers are subject of COP discussions: money (earmarked funds,
43 project finance), technology, and governance capability. In the UNFCCC, transfers
44 flow from Annex1 to non-Annex1 Parties. Transfers take a central position in a
45 global agreement (for example: CDM in the Kyoto Protocol; the GCF with pledged
46 \$100 billion yearly funding in the Copenhagen Accord; in the COP21 negotiations
47 transfers stay high on the agenda). Developing nations want significant transfers
48 as compensations for the historical responsibility of industrialized nations in

1 causing the high CO₂ concentration in the atmosphere, and for long-standing
2 injustices now to be resolved by Sustainable Development.
3 Reference is also made to the Polluter Pays Principle (PPP), launched by the OECD
4 in 1972 for harmonizing environmental policies of its member states. Light PPP
5 implies that polluters pay their own mitigation expenses only. Strong PPP adds
6 payment for damage costs and adaptation outlays. The debate about transfers is
7 linked to political and ethical positions of Parties on GHG emissions. When
8 emitting is considered to be a right, present generations 'bring offers' when
9 reducing the emissions [*Principles, Glossary*].

10 **Alternative:** *When emitting is defined as littering the atmosphere with GHG, the*
11 *PPP principle entails the duty to stop emitting 'drastically and urgently' and to*
12 *clean the mess at the expense of the polluter. This principle anchors the*
13 *responsibility of historic large emitters for mitigation and adaptation wherever*
14 *most needed. Historic large emitters are generally today's members of the*
15 *wealthy nations club. Correlating GDP/person to the duty of donating to the GCF*
16 *may help escape protracting and paralyzing quarrels about historic responsibility.*
17 *Fine-tuned and yearly graduation [*Glossary*] of all nations on the GDP/person*
18 *indicator is more helpful to control flows from developed to developing nations,*
19 *than the present Annex1 / non-Annex1 divide.*

20 *Transfers in technology are most guaranteed when the industrialized, wealthy*
21 *nations urgently transform all their energy supplies and uses into sustainable*
22 *renewable energy options. Many developing regions (in particular Africa) own*
23 *vaster and more intense renewable sources than most industrialized countries;*
24 *with improved harvesting and conversion technologies they will finally have*
25 *access to sufficient energy supplies for supporting robust economic development.*
26 *Better governance may emerge when all COP Parties are embedded in common*
27 *frameworks with differentiated duties and rights depending on their GDP/person.*
28 *The duties as donor and the rights as beneficiary of transfers are partly*
29 *dependent on their performance in mitigation and adaptation activities. The*
30 *frameworks should be specialized per major issue and related tasks, for example*
31 *a framework for energy-related CO₂ emissions, another framework for emissions*
32 *from LULUCF (where REDD+ is already making headway), specialized adaptation*
33 *frameworks for drought problems, for natural disasters, etc. The financial flows*
34 *through the GCF would become well structured, with accounts classified by*
35 *framework, GDP and performance dependent, yearly calculated and transparently*
36 *monitored.*

37

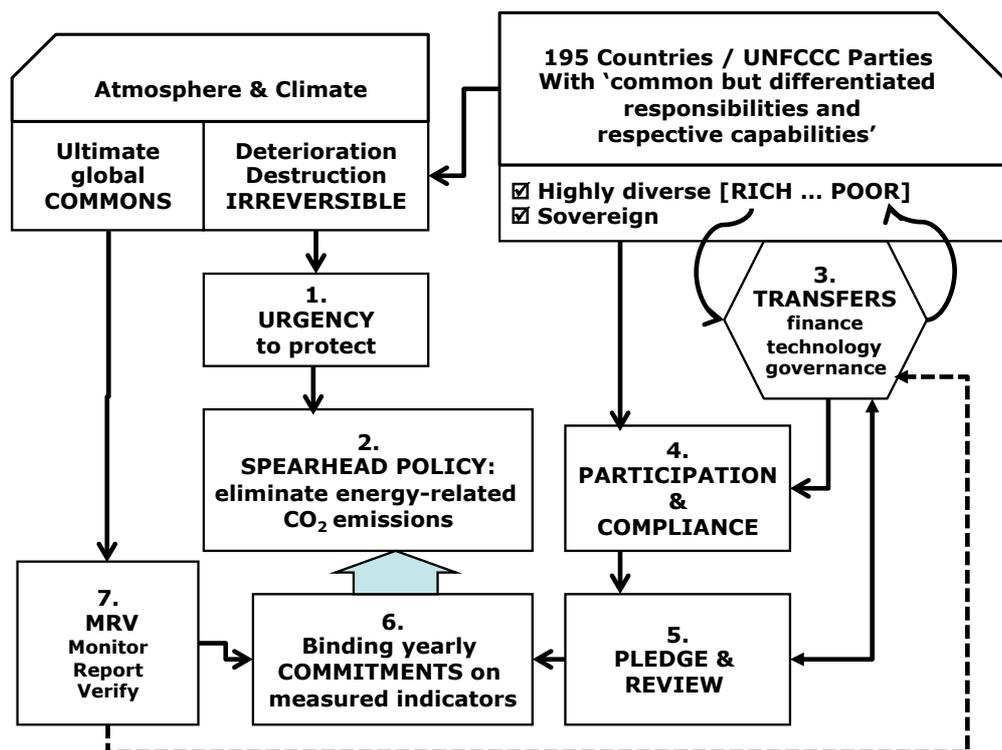
5. Ostrom menu for Self-governance of the Global climate commons

With the elements developed in chapters 1 to 4, a comprehensive architecture of global climate policy for mitigating energy-related CO₂ emissions is set up. The design of the construction is inspired by the work of Elinor Ostrom.

Managing and conserving the global climate commons is the inalienable, heavy task of the UNFCCC, letting all other policy tasks with the Parties [figure 5]. The Parties are best placed to obtain practical results. An organic division of responsibility and authority is imperative for a better performing UNFCCC.

Figure 6 shows the architecture's layout. At the top of figure 6 are mentioned the major physical (left side) and political (right side) issues. This essay does not aim at an extensive analysis of the issues. The priority task of global climate policy is safeguarding and governing the ultimate global atmosphere and climate commons [Glossary]. Ultimate because atmosphere and climate are primary life-support systems, substrate for other crucial life-support systems, like water and food supplies (UNDP 2007).

Figure 6: Comprehensive architecture to prevent energy-related CO₂ emissions continuation and growth



By human activities (arrow arriving from the box top right in figure 6) the atmosphere and climate deteriorate, and their balanced functioning is more and more destroyed. This function loss is irreversible [Glossary] in an absolute sense because atmosphere and climate are unique, in no way substitutable and not repairable when tipping points have been trespassed. Climate change is not

1 “potentially irreversible” as stated on page 1 of the unanimously approved Paris
2 text; it is irreversible in absolute sense.

3 Human activities are undertaken by inhabitants of countries, here also called
4 Parties to the UNFCCC by their signature of the convention. Article 3.1 of the
5 convention stipulates their *common but differentiated responsibilities* in the
6 deterioration and destruction of the unique global atmosphere and climate. This
7 signals that the duties to protect also differentiate, further complicated by the
8 differentiation in capabilities (and capacities) to set up actions and to deliver
9 results. The link to desirable, possible, and necessary transfers [*Chapter 4*] is
10 short [*shown by the two curved arrows, interacting with box 3 in figure 6*].
11 The various countries or Parties own many more attributes, but only two essential
12 ones for global climate policy are discussed. First, there are the highly diverse
13 wealth positions of countries, ranging from RICH to POOR. Although wealth is a
14 multivariate attribute, international policy generally limits the metrics of wealth to
15 GDP [*Acronyms*] and GDP/person. The imperfect GDP statistics are used because
16 verified numbers are annually available. The second attribute is totally different
17 from the wealth metric. Sovereignty is binary (yes/no sovereign), and is of equal
18 weight for all recognized nations. This is why only negotiated agreements among
19 sovereign nations work at the UN level. Although often implicit in COP relations,
20 the agreements do not have to involve all nations, nor have negotiations to end
21 in consensual decisions. [*figure 6, box 4 further down*].

22
23 The seven boxes hold the titles of building blocks to construct workable
24 institutions of *self-government* by solving Ostrom’s three puzzles: 1) supply a
25 new set of rules [*Boxes 1 to 5*]; 2) credible commitments [*Box 6*]; 3) mutual
26 monitoring [*Box 7*]. The contents of the boxes and their relationships are
27 discussed one by one, also building on the previous chapters of this essay.

28 **Box 1. Urgency to protect**

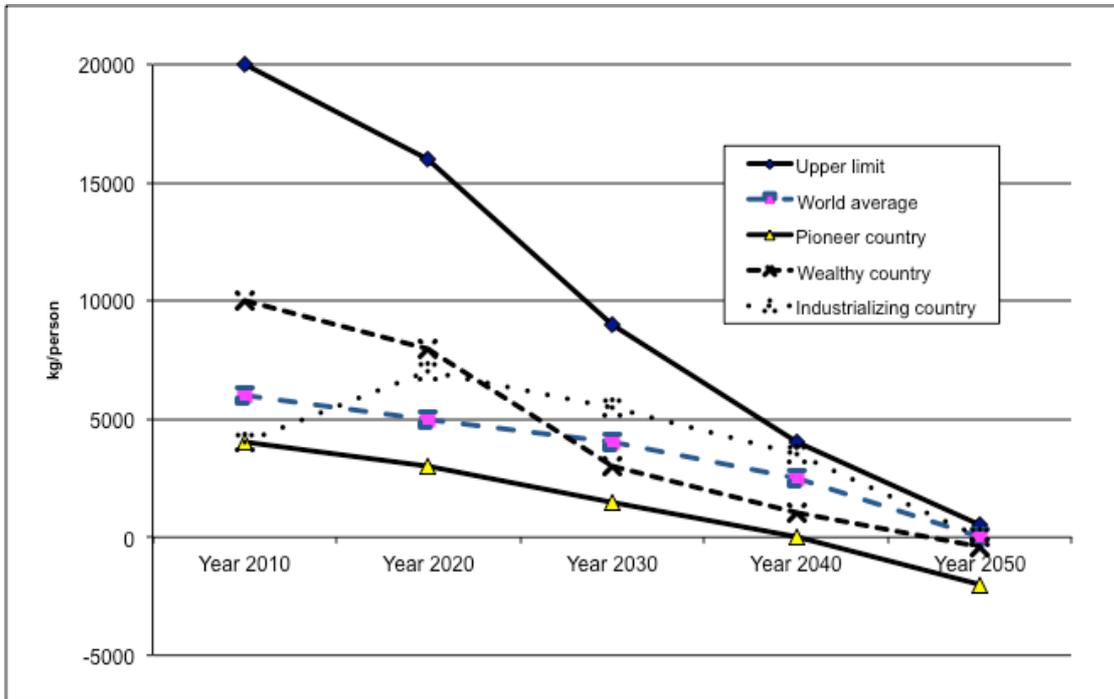
29 The annual ca.50 billion tons of greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions due to human
30 activities add yearly a few ppm CO₂-eq to the global atmospheric concentration.
31 It takes decades to centuries before the emitted GHG disintegrate. The higher
32 concentration causes global warming with irreversible deterioration of unique, for
33 human survival essential, ecosystems, such as a healthy atmosphere and long-
34 term climate stability (IPCC 2014). Addressing the emissions deserves first
35 priority because climate change causes or aggravates the other daunting global
36 problems (UNDP 1997). The Copenhagen Accord (COP15 2009) stipulates that
37 “*Deep cuts in global emissions are required with a view to reduce global*
38 *emissions so as to hold the increase in global temperature below 2 degrees*
39 *Celsius*”, and “*take action to meet this objective consistent with science and on*
40 *the basis of equity*”. For supporting climate policy in the follow-up of Copenhagen,
41 an international consortium of research centers investigates ‘deep
42 decarbonization pathways’ for a set of countries, together emitting three quarters
43 of the global energy-related CO₂ tonnage (<http://deepdecarbonization.org>).
44

45 Today’s tendency is to convert the +2°C limit into a spendable carbon emissions
46 budget, considered and handled as ‘rights to emit’. This practice raises the
47 likelihood of transgressing the +2°C limit to almost certainty. The +2°C limit,
48 called a ‘guardrail’ in 1995 (COP01 Berlin Mandate), is a risky extreme to be
49 avoided by all means. Facing the huge uncertainties and lurking irreversibility,

1 responsible practice preserves maximally the remaining space and feasible
 2 degrees of freedom.
 3 The dangerous practice of spendable rights is rooted in a particular perception of
 4 rights, spread without questioning by economists and most media, like: 'by
 5 mitigating emissions, present generations deliver efforts and make expenses for
 6 the benefit of future generations'. This means: rights to pollute the atmosphere
 7 are assigned to present generations. This assignment delays the uptake of
 8 measures and degrades the necessity of prevention and precaution.
 9 The unwarranted rights position conflicts with a civilized status of environmental
 10 policy. Emitting CO₂ in the atmosphere is an activity of dumping without any
 11 further concern, what equals 'gaseous littering'. In developed societies litterers
 12 face two obligations: immediately stop further littering and be responsible for the
 13 mess occasioned. The civilized vision is embedded in the UNFCCC. Due to the
 14 global atmosphere being a public commons, it is difficult to enforce the vision on
 15 civilized societies and people.

16
 17 Let us assume all Parties are serious about the +2°C as dangerous extreme, not
 18 to trespass in no way. This corresponds with adhering to the RCP2.6 emissions
 19 pathway as studied by IPCC (2014). This remains a global target on a common
 20 emissions budget, exciting the individual Parties to zero-sum gaming rather than
 21 to effective action.

22 Figure 7: Individual Parties' Emissions Contraction Scenarios, materializing
 23 respect for the maximum +2°C average temperature increase



24
 25 The first rule of global climate self-governance consists in designing and agreeing
 26 on Individual Parties' Emissions Contraction Scenarios (IPECS). For this, the focus
 27 is on Cpp = the average energy-related CO₂ annual emissions per person in every
 28 nation. The Cpp indicator is yearly assessed for all UN members, and ranges now
 29 from less than 100 kg to more than 20,000 kg. The choice for Cpp (emissions per

1 person) reflects a search for more equity as part of sustainable development. The
2 custom and push for using as indicator 'emissions per \$ GDP' (carbon intensity of
3 GDP) obscures the high wealth inequality among countries [*see further: box 6*].
4 The indicator 'carbon intensity of GDP' is popular with consultants and preferred
5 by rich Parties.

6 Within the nations the spread of citizens' Cpp around the average may be highly
7 skewed, but the issues of national equity are a sovereign responsibility of the
8 Parties. More fine-tuned Cpp indicators taking into account skewed income and
9 emission distributions in the various countries, is beyond the mandate and the
10 capability of UNFCCC.

11 Fairness does not require equal emissions per person (Wiener 2007), although
12 "equity in itself suggests moving in this direction" (Frankel 2007). Several factors
13 (for example weather conditions, geographical structure, natural resources
14 endowment, age structure of the population) are a source of variation of Cpp
15 among Parties and within countries.

16
17 Figure 7 presents a stylized view of Cpp 'contraction & convergence' [*Glossary*]
18 scenarios for a few typical Parties, with also an agreed upon upper limit of Cpp,
19 which contracts to a low Cpp value in 2050 (e.g., a maximum of 500 kg Cpp). For
20 every Party its scenario starts at its recently verified Cpp value. Every Party
21 designs its Cpp path, respecting the constraint of staying below the commonly
22 agreed upper limit. In its 2015 report the Deep Decarbonization Pathways Project
23 documents actual Cpp contraction scenarios for sixteen major CO₂ emitting
24 nations.

25 The approach respects 'common but differentiated responsibilities and respective
26 capabilities' in emission reductions. 'Common responsibility' is: all countries
27 respect the upper limit scenario. 'Differentiated' means: high value Cpp countries
28 must contract first and at a fast rate ('deep cuts'); low value Cpp countries
29 (mostly developing and least developed countries) can grow in Cpp value with the
30 obligation to respect the contracting upper limit values in future years. Practically,
31 the engagements are: First, the Cpp intense (wealthy) countries develop and
32 deploy renewable energy supply and use technologies that fully substitute for the
33 present non-sustainable energy systems, and are suitable for implementation by
34 low Cpp (poorer) countries. Second, the poorer countries emulate the sustainable
35 renewable energy solutions.

36 **Box 2. Spearhead policy: eliminate energy-related CO₂ emissions**

37 Since the UN Framework Convention (1992), over the Kyoto Protocol (1997) and
38 the Copenhagen Accord (2009), yearly global GHG emissions continued to grow,
39 as did the yearly use of commercial energy (IEA's yearly Outlook; BP's yearly
40 Statistics). About 4/5th of GHG emissions are due to present energy supply and
41 use practices. Presumably more than 4/5th of the climate policy studies focus on
42 energy-related CO₂ emissions and their mitigation. Climate policy involves more
43 (e.g., other GHG than fossil fuel related CO₂, land-use, adaptation), also
44 influenced by fossil fuels use (for example methane emissions, changing land-
45 uses affected by low-priced supplies of fossil fuels).

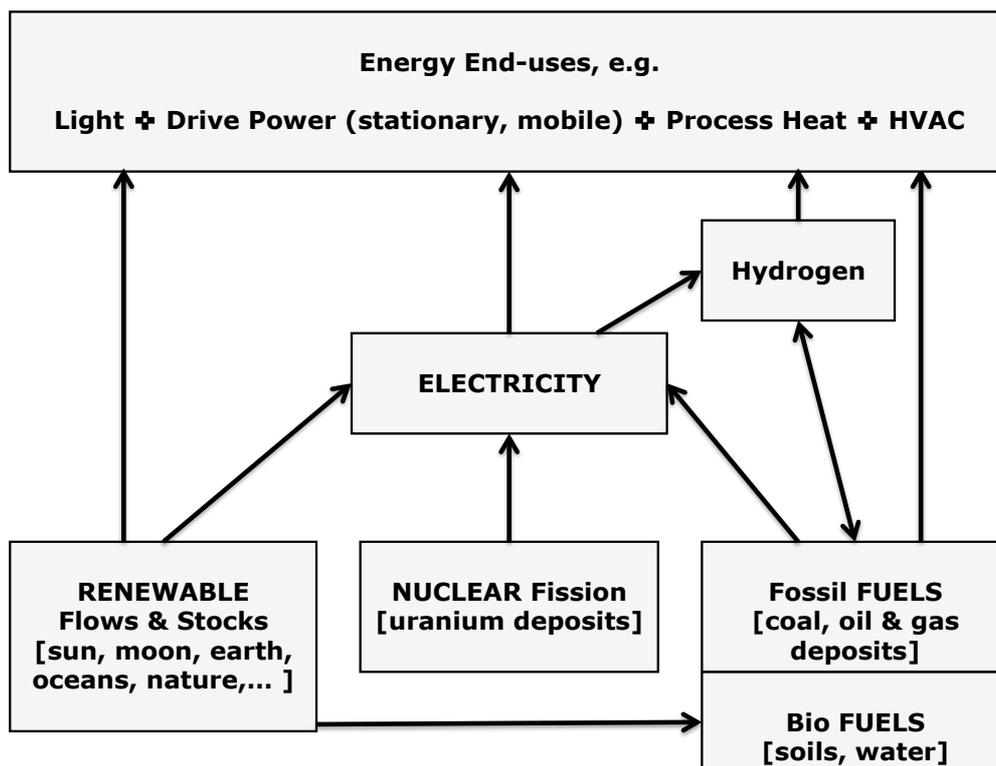
46 Ongoing climate policy is little effective, partly because many goals on several
47 aspects are prioritized. Contrary to the widespread opinion that UNFCCC must
48 mainstream and simultaneously solve many major problems in the world, rational

1 climate policy detects spearhead issues functioning as locomotive in accelerating
 2 mitigation or adaptation. Strategic advance needs spearheading with a selected
 3 issue that will break the locks on needed technological, industrial and societal
 4 transitions. Thorough transformation of energy supply and use is widely
 5 recognized as the predominant change to perform (IPCC, 2012).

6
 7 **Energy supply options**

8 For performing activities, people want energy of the right type and quantity,
 9 supplied at the right place and time. Energy supplies combine energy *sources*
 10 with *technologies* for winning, converting and transmitting energy. In sequence of
 11 importance, available sources are: renewable flows and stocks in the natural
 12 environment, fossil fuel deposits in mines and wells, and uranium deposits (figure
 13 8). The environment supplies for free most energy, useful with little technology,
 14 e.g., daylight, heat, ventilation, drying. Natural processes concentrate diffuse
 15 renewable flows (photosynthesis, the water cycle). Over the last decade, the
 16 costs of man-made technologies harvesting renewable flows dropped significantly
 17 (IPCC 2012). Technological capability announces further cost cuts, for example
 18 leveled kWh prices of PV to €ct. 4 to 6 by 2025 and €ct. 2 to 4 by 2050,
 19 although dependent on financial and regulatory conditions (Fraunhofer 2015).

20
 21 Figure 8: Overview of energy supply categories, with sources in [.]



22
 23 Nuclear fuel is fabricated from refined and enriched uranium, whose dense
 24 deposits are limited (American Nuclear Society 2001). Uranium shortage may be
 25 overcome by breakthroughs in breeder or fusion technology. Commercial new

1 breeder and fusion plants are not expected before 2050, the year wherein carbon
2 free electricity systems should be operational.

3 Fossil fuels cover a market share of above 85% of commercially traded energy
4 supplies (BP 2015). Their success is the result of being versatile, dense, for all
5 scales divisible, abundant, storable, and performing on command. However, fossil
6 fuel combustions cause various environmental harms, and inevitably fetch CO₂. In
7 a low carbon future their use will be stifled (IEA 2014), but 'carbon lock-in' and
8 related interests are exceptionally strong. A smooth phasing-out of fossil fuels is
9 rather unlikely to happen.

10 Hydrogen is a carbon free fuel, not naturally available on earth. New industrial
11 infrastructure may fabricate hydrogen from low carbon electricity. This is a costly,
12 long-range undertaking.

14 **Energy transitions of a different kind**

15 The mitigation spearhead is the fast reduction of energy-related CO₂ emissions
16 (ca. 4/5th of GHG emissions) by richer countries fast developing and deploying
17 renewable energy supplies of the kind and size also applicable and affordable by
18 developing countries. Suitability of pathways for emulation by developing
19 countries is highly relevant for global CO₂ emissions reductions in the coming
20 decades. The attribute of readiness for emulation is essential, because it bars the
21 way for transitions to low-carbon energy systems mainly composed of non-
22 sustainable nuclear power and centralized large-scale renewable plants. However,
23 in 2014 the EU promoted the non-sustainable centralized low-carbon pathways
24 while blocking the successful innovation financing of the German Energiewende
25 (EC 2014b, Verbruggen et al. 2015).

27 The EU is an interesting example of how different 'low-carbon energy' systems
28 are conceived and prepared. Notwithstanding promotion of the single energy
29 market by the European Commission (EC 2014a, 2015), every EU Member State
30 plans its own energy future, leading to widely divergent pathways, most apparent
31 in electricity supplies.

32 Germany embarked for a drastic reversal, aiming at an entire power supply from
33 PV, wind and biogas (Agora, 2015). In the high diversity of projects a significant
34 role is plaid by small-scale installations of end-users producing electricity. Five
35 salient characteristics of the German approach are:

- 36 1) The transition is interwoven with a nuclear phase-out, politically decided
37 after advice by a representatively composed ethics council (Töpfer et al.
38 2011). Public initiatives, politicians, academics, innovative industries, and
39 local energy companies are motivated for change.
- 40 2) Technological innovation is crucial in increasing efficiency and decreasing
41 costs of RE collection and conversion equipment. PV and wind turbines
42 continue to show fast decreasing costs per kWh generated (Fraunhofer
43 2015).
- 44 3) National tariffs per RE category pay specific levelized cost prices for a
45 period of mostly 20 years. With technological progress, tariffs by category
46 decrease to the level sufficient for proofing and launching the transition.
47 After some years RE supply prices cut the line of grid parity, phasing in the
48 full transition.
- 49 4) The German transition reveals how superior RE technology can
50 competitively harvest mediocre (low capacity factor) RE sources. Expected

1 decreases of PV and wind technology costs make redundancy in electricity
2 capacities affordable (Fraunhofer 2015). Redundancy in generation
3 capacities is a luxury but also challenging for power systems' technical
4 integrity. Regulatory solutions are decisive, showing the influential role of
5 independent public regulators, not captured by major corporates.

- 6 5) Every country may emulate the RE pathway. Some countries and regions
7 with excellent RE sources (for example Africa) are now missing affordable
8 harvesting technology. Cheap distributed RE technologies are a crucial
9 factor of energy supply in developing countries, and hence for prosperity
10 and sustainable development.

11
12 The UK HM's Government (2009) plans for new pressurized water reactors
13 (PWR), carbon capture and storage (CCS), and large-scale RE projects (off-shore
14 wind; tidal). In contrast to Germany, the UK approach is characterized by:

- 15 1) Large-scale projects fit to the business model of major incumbent energy
16 (power) companies, and override local initiatives.
17 2) Innovation is difficult. PWR standard costs increase; waste and risks stay.
18 CCS faces high costs and delays in starting a demo project. Large-scale
19 tidal projects are not welcome.
20 3) Price guarantee at £92.50 (about €127.50) per MWh during 35 years for
21 technological mature PWR reactors, mainly paid by domestic electricity
22 customers. The money is not supporting innovation, but an economic
23 activity.
24 4) Power supply systems are planned as predominantly composed of
25 capacities on command. Also from RE projects high capacity factors are
26 requested.
27 5) Emulation of the pathway by developing countries is unlikely, if not
28 impossible.

29
30 The sustainable renewable energy alternative as such is not costly when fully
31 deployed. Evidently, the sustainable energy transition itself is challenging.
32 Depending on the scores by progressive, viz. reactive strategies, forces, and
33 public support, the difficulties and costs will be modest or high. For overcoming
34 lock-in, urgent transitions bring earlier depreciation of sunk investments. The
35 latter are more significant when incumbent energy companies reacted little or
36 very late on the 1992 Rio summit and ensuing conventions. For example in the
37 1990s, incumbent electricity companies have built coal power plants in the
38 Netherlands and in Germany (two countries of high exposure in energy transition
39 literature and practice). Transition costs are spent for the first time development
40 and deployment of new technologies, infrastructures and institutions. The
41 transition will be smoother and cheaper when a clear mission is defined. One
42 fundamental change in the logic is adopting the future sustainable goal situation
43 as reference to measure and evaluate present states and evolutions. In the
44 transition of the electricity sectors, the incumbent reactive viewpoint is:
45 'intermittent and stochastic renewable energy supplies disturb the reliable
46 delivery of power; power on command is the reference'. This must be replaced
47 by: 'intermittent and stochastic renewable energy deliver the most sustainable
48 supplies, and merit priority over the non-sustainable supplies; given this priority,
49 the reliability of power is organized'.
50

1 Spearheading in mitigation by eliminating energy-related CO₂ emissions can be
2 accompanied by spearheading policy tracks in land-use, land-use change and
3 forestry (LULUCF) via REDD+. Also in adaptation, spearheading policies are
4 feasible. Every spearhead is most served by a separate Ostrom menu for self-
5 governance of the related commons issues. Without such a menu, progress will
6 be slow and precarious.

7 **Box 3. Transfers**

8 UN member states diverge in size, ownership of natural resources, population,
9 industrial development, material wealth distribution, available capital, governance
10 institutions, access to education, medical care and other public goods. Deep
11 inequality is a main impediment to practical mutuality in negotiation processes
12 about a future agreement and the accompanying enforcement regulations. To
13 bring the member states to more balanced relationships, significant and
14 sustainable improvement of the living conditions in poorer countries is due.
15 Transfers [*Chapter 4*] from richer to poorer countries are an essential part of COP
16 agreements. For example, the Copenhagen Accord (2009) qualified the necessary
17 transfers as “adequate, predictable and sustainable”, next to “scaled-up, new and
18 additional”. US\$ 100bn annual financial transfers from 2020 onwards were
19 pledged, and are to be fleshed out at COP21 in Paris (2015), but at the start of
20 COP21 (Nov.30, 2015) details are still unclear.

21
22 In a robust cooperation, transfers among participants are linked to two groups of
23 factors: on the one hand, some characteristics owned by the participants, and on
24 the other hand, the performance of the participants on an agreed set of criteria.
25 To the first group belongs the marking of UN member states as (potential) donor
26 or recipient, or neutral as intermediate category. In 1992, Annex1 nations were
27 labeled as donors and non-Annex1 as recipients. This dichotomy has grown
28 obsolete. Recommended are more refined rules of classification and graduation
29 [*Glossary*]. For the elimination of the energy-related CO₂ emissions, graduation of
30 Parties shifting along changes in their wealth position is most workable. The
31 average GDP/inhabitant is the metric of the wealth position of a Party.
32 In the second group a few measurable criteria have to be selected for monitoring
33 the performance of all participants, and report regularly (annually is the most
34 appropriate time scaling [*Chapter 4*]). Here the links with the boxes 4 to 7 of the
35 Ostrom menu emerge [*figure 6*]. Transfers are adapted along the results booked
36 by every Party on the yearly commitments made and realized. Hence, transfers
37 will remain in the picture while discussing the following boxes.

38

39 **Box 4. Participation & Compliance**

40 A global agreement on safeguarding the global atmosphere and climate commons
41 is served by a high degree of participation by the Parties. Without missing any of
42 the major nations on earth, 195 countries have ratified the UNFCCC. This success
43 has spilled over on the COPs’ expectations about consensus rates of participation.
44 When consensus is considered imperative, every participant obtains a veto right,
45 making strong agreements unlikely, because participants can compromise for
46 acceptance of personal agendas. Unanimity may be more adverse than beneficial
47 [*Chapter 3*].

1 Although nations are the sovereign signatories, more and more coalitions among
2 groups of nations have been formed, for example: G77+China, Umbrella Group,
3 EU28+, and smaller (sub)coalitions like AOSIS, BASIC, Arab Group, least
4 developed countries. By coalitions smaller countries enhance their power in talks
5 with large countries. Coalitions also may thrive on suspicion as part of the zero-
6 sum game negotiations [*Chapter 4*].
7

8 Scholars discussed tensions between shallow & broad versus deep & narrow
9 agreements (Aldy and Stavins 2007). A smaller panel of countries is assumed to
10 agree faster on stronger engagements. The Copenhagen Accord is a historical
11 example of a narrow group of high-level political leaders agreeing in short time
12 on a deep accord. Nevertheless Copenhagen is labeled a failure by most COP
13 habitués, presumably because they prefer a broad compromise.
14 However, the sovereignty of the Parties precludes mandated participation and
15 compliance. How then "*are nations to be induced, coerced, or persuasively invited*
16 *to participate?*" is Schelling's question (2007), adding the issue of compliance
17 when discussing about possible, but little effective options. Schelling convincingly
18 argues enforcement is an illusion, followed by the advice "*to contemplate some*
19 *kind of progress without a 'regime' – something more opportunistic, more*
20 *piecemeal, more purely diplomatic.*" The COP21 set-up is in line with this advice,
21 but not ready to meet the inalienable duty of the UNFCCC to save the global
22 atmosphere and climate commons.

23 Hardin (1968) states that compliance has to be enforced by "*mutual coercion,*
24 *mutually agreed upon*". Concerned here is the community of all UN member
25 states and their peoples. Their sovereignty imposes balanced mutuality and
26 reciprocity in global agreeing, with care for "*accuracy of information, monitoring*
27 *capabilities, sanctioning reliability, and zero costs of administration*" (Ostrom,
28 1990). Reciprocity among Parties is advanced by higher equality and by transfers
29 from richer to poorer nations [*Figure 6: Box 3 affects box 4*].
30

31 After the experience of the Copenhagen Accord, and the unchanged reality of a
32 diverse and unequal world, the protracting quest for a consensus agreement is
33 sterile. It conflicts with other climate policy imperatives like urgency to act, deep
34 cuts in emissions, effectiveness, fairness and historical responsibility.

35 It is more effective to organize a two-phase participation & compliance approach,
36 where phase two shortly follows phase one. In phase one about twenty Parties
37 responsible for more than eighty percent of the energy-related CO₂ emissions
38 agree on a self-governance regime. When a small group cannot agree, it is
39 unlikely a larger group could agree.

40 The agreement is constructed in a way that every other Party can seamless join
41 the agreement, via accepting the clearly defined rules. By a balanced regulation
42 of transfers from rich to poor nations, most of the presently lower GDP/person
43 and lower Cpp countries are stimulated to immediately join the agreement.

44 The participation issue is a minor problem compared to the compliance problem.
45 Compliance is dependent on the design of the three following boxes 5, 6 and 7
46 [*figure 6*] of the self-governance regime. Transfers [*Box 3*] play also a decisive
47 role in the compliance success of the regime.
48

1 **Box 5. Pledge & review (P&R)**

2 In the reality of sovereign nations, pledge and review is the only practical way to
3 start and consolidate commitment by the Parties. It is criticized heavily by some
4 academics (e.g. Gollier and Tirole 2015). The principle itself is simple, but its
5 effectiveness and administrative feasibility depend on the specific application and
6 design of the pledges and possibilities to review the actual fulfillment of pledged
7 commitments. The present P&R implementations in global climate policy are
8 unwieldy, with dubious results.

10 **COP practices in pledge & review**

11 From COP03 (Kyoto 1997) followed that a panel of Annex1 countries formulated
12 mitigation commitments as 'targets and timetables', i.e., caps on their total
13 emissions expressed as percent decreases (the overall average was -5.2%) in
14 their national GHG emissions to attain in distant future years (the average of the
15 five year period 2008-2012). The total of national GHG emissions cover too many
16 different variables: population, wealth, energy intensity, and carbon intensity.
17 The actual meaning of the numbers is obscure because shifting with population
18 (e.g., immigration), economic and technology dynamics (e.g., the 2008
19 recession, or relocating industries), while also offsets from CDM projects or hot
20 air are accepted for meeting the targets. Caps by tons of emissions in distant
21 future years are difficult to understand and not precisely identified (Ward 2010).
22 Delivery of the results (review of the pledges) stretches over time spans beyond
23 8 years (two US presidential terms), annihilating every sense of urgency and
24 eroding responsibility and accountability of the pledgers. Furthermore, pledges
25 are made with 1990 as baseline year, diluting the link with reality further with
26 every passing year. However, updating baselines in this kind of pledges entails
27 perverse effects, and would create additional stalemates. Limiting the pledge and
28 review engagement to only Annex1 Parties is too rudimentary. But non-Annex1
29 countries are not inclined to formulate similar pledges (Bodansky 2007), because
30 their development still depends on energy supply and use systems characterized
31 by carbon lock-in. The lock-in is protracted by the feet-dragging development and
32 deployment of renewable energy by Annex1 countries.

33 Dividing a global cap in packages for assignment to responsible parties is troubled
34 by uncertainties, growing exponentially with the number and diversity of parties
35 involved (Weitzman 2015). Parties readily slip into zero-sum games on sharing
36 the global cap, raising distrust and demand for intense monitoring, reporting and
37 verification of programs, actions and measures. Yet, target enforcement is not
38 guaranteed, neither is the additional character of emission reductions; volatility in
39 economic up- or downturns and offset projects continuously trouble the real
40 meaning of emissions targets.

41 COP21 (2015) is based on INDC (Intended Nationally Decided Contributions)
42 pledges, now expected from all UNFCCC Parties. It is a positive evolution that all
43 Parties are addressed, and most of them engaged. However, compared to the
44 'targets & timetables' pledges, the confusion is multiplied because every country
45 decides its preferred contributions, which remain still intended. The MRV of the
46 contributions is very elaborate and opaque (Aldy and Pizer 2015). In practice,
47 MRV of INDCs is not doable for attaining somewhat comparable and transparent
48 results at a realistic spending of control resources. Control of CDM projects, a
49 fully failed experience (Wara 2007), is easygoing compared to the MRV task on
50 INDCs. Further, INDCs own the weaknesses of the 'targets and timetables'. There

1 are voices to limit the time spans of the reviews to five years, to break up the
2 fifteen years span 2015-2030. Review results on the INDCs submitted for Paris in
3 2015 are announced for 2023. This is mocking the urgency concerns of all
4 informed observers on unfolding climate change.

6 **Properties of effective and workable pledge & review**

7 An Ostrom self-governance construction rests on three pillars. The second pillar is
8 made up of credible commitments [*Box 6 in figure 6*]; the third pillar is mutual
9 monitoring delivering transparent and frequent results [*Box 7 in figure 6*]. Both
10 pillars depend on the effectiveness and workability (administrative feasibility) of
11 the implemented pledge & review processes. Therefore, applied pledge & review
12 systems in global climate policy should own a set of core properties:

- 13 1. Use of numerical, reliable and transparent indicators² for monitoring the
14 actions or performance of all Parties, in particular in appropriating shares of
15 atmospheric and climate commons, and their results in deploying sustainable
16 renewable energy supply and use systems. For governing the commons,
17 information is pivotal (Ostrom 1990, chapter 6).
- 18 2. Pledge & review occur regular in time, i.e. yearly. The yearly COPs are the
19 suitable platform to discuss and adopt the pledges for the few coming years
20 and review the outcomes over the last few years. The time span for the
21 pledges is bounded to a few (three) years forward, and reviewing looks back
22 at the Party's path focusing on the last years before the COP meeting.
23 Politicians, officials, company managers, citizens, can know and understand
24 what is pledged and why particular scores turned out from the latest review.
- 25 3. Realistic: for keeping their practical meaning the pledges are made against
26 yearly updated (rolling) baselines. The reviewed indicator numerical values of
27 a Party of two years back are the baseline for assessing her realistic progress
28 over the coming three years. The prehistoric 1990 baseline year is shelved.
29 Every Party starts at the position it now holds; assuming otherwise is
30 unhelpful imagination. Ironing out big differences in the emission positions of
31 Parties is a matter of tuning the pledges made and of time.
- 32 4. Effectively committing every Party for progressing every year from the latest
33 reviewed actual status the Party had attained. Performance and progress are
34 monitored every year, providing information and a summary feedback on the
35 policies and measures taken at the local, national and regional levels. This
36 confirms and renews commitment, linked to and interwoven with actions
37 undertaken at various levels of living societies [*figure 5*].
- 38 5. Stimulating common resolve among Parties via agreeing on specific pledges
39 per category of Parties and via mutual advice and help among the Parties in
40 realizing their pledges. Positive emulation of the best technologies and
41 practices accelerates the development and deployment of innovative
42 solutions, for the transition to sustainable renewable energy supplies.

43 In box 6 is proposed how pledges owning the above five properties can contribute
44 to firm commitment and to irrevocable progress in preventing continuation and
45 growth of energy-related CO₂ emissions.

² An indicator is a variable in a context, assigning meaning to the numbers

1 **Box 6. Binding yearly commitments**

2 Sovereign states can bind only themselves, individually and by mutual agreement
3 also as a group. They respect the binding character of their commitments when
4 they realize their pledges. Box 5 mentions which properties pledges should own
5 for being effective and workable in a global, self-governance architecture. Box 2
6 [figure 7] presents a spearhead policy to eliminate energy-related CO₂ emissions,
7 with scenarios on contracting and converging the Parties' average CO₂ emissions
8 per person (Cpp). By joining both boxes emerges the first-hand proposal that
9 Parties would submit pledges about their future Cpp values. The Cpp indicator is
10 yearly available, accurate, and transparent.

11 **Decomposition of Cpp in three constituent factors**

12 Cpp is a highly aggregate indicator of the Parties energy-related CO₂ emissions
13 intensities. Decomposing Cpp in three, still highly aggregated, factors provides
14 insight and opens the entry to more detailed, hands-on information for the
15 Parties. The identity's right-hand side is a multiplication of respectively wealth
16 intensity, energy intensity of wealth, and CO₂ intensity of energy use:
17

$$18 \quad Cpp = \{GDP/person\} * \{energy/GDP\} * \{CO_2 \text{ emissions/energy}\}^3$$

19
20
21 Total emissions of a nation are reduced when population growth is checked, and
22 when the product of the three intensity factors diminishes. By referring to
23 emissions per person, population policies are excluded from the climate policy
24 discussion. This is a step forward. Perverse incentives like impeding migration are
25 avoided. More practical, global population policies are no longer hidden in the
26 plies of the COP processes. Global population policies belong to a specialized UN
27 forum with knowledgeable experts on duty.

28
29 Intensity targets have been criticized because they do not guarantee absolute
30 emission reductions, but Pizer (2005) offers a balanced view. The critique does
31 not hold when the various intensities are managed in context and monitored for
32 deep and irrevocable decline (80 to 100% emission reductions by 2050). A
33 multiplication equals zero when one of its factors is zero; it becomes small when
34 one of the factors is very small (assuming the other factors do not increase at a
35 commensurate pace). A way to achieve low Cpp results is the widespread
36 adoption of renewable energy technologies (IPCC 2012) along decreasing energy
37 intensities of economies. This also requires economic reforms, e.g., of taxes and
38 subsidies to increase the bills of CO₂-intensive activities and to cut the bills of low
39 CO₂ emitting activities [BRI in Chapter 2, Legend n°1].

40
41 Decomposing energy-related CO₂ emissions in constituent factors is a widespread
42 practice. IPCC reports take advantage of decomposition for explaining the
43 evolution of energy-related CO₂ emissions (see the 2014 Assessment report,
44 working group 3, chapter 6). The SE4All initiative of the General Assembly (UN

³ The decomposition can go on by splitting GDP in its major composing activities, by identifying actors related to the various activities, by specifying the types of energy used, etc. At UN level the higher aggregate suffices and further detailing is the task of the Parties to design the policies for controlling the values of the aggregate indicators. Agnolucci et al. (2009), Verbruggen (2011) provide examples and suggestions of deeper decompositions.

1 2011) wants to half the energy intensity (factor 2 of the identity's right hand
2 side) and double the use of renewable energy (factor 3) in developing countries.
3 Also the INDCs of various countries (e.g. China) refer to improving on factors 2
4 and/or 3. Energy and climate mitigation policies recommended by IEA, the EU,
5 and other institutes assign the predominant places to energy efficiency (factor 2)
6 and renewable energy (factor 3). Energy and emission taxing and pricing changes
7 are proposed to influence investment and operational decisions of economic
8 agents, affecting the structure of GDP. GDP is embedded in the factors 1 and 2 of
9 the identity. In summary, the composing factors are the focal points of energy
10 and climate policy debates and activities. Therefore, it is amazing that official COP
11 policy-making neglects the opportunities of decomposition for addressing the
12 'complex' and 'wicked' policy matters. A few earlier publications brought up
13 decomposition in discussing climate policy (Hummel 2007; Verbruggen 2009,
14 2011; Prins et al. 2010), however with little influence on the policy regimes.
15

16 **Pledges-Commitments by Parties**

17 Transparent and verifiable pledges lead to credible commitments, especially when
18 prepared and made by the Parties in common resolve. The pledges-commitments
19 by the Parties consist of two interlinked parts: one, indicative scenario over the
20 long range; two, numbered pledges on indicator values for the short-term (next
21 years)

22 First, every Party sets out a Cpp contraction scenario as indicative pathway it
23 plans to follow over the coming decades to reach a (very) low Cpp value in 2050
24 [*Box 2, figure 7*]. Deviations from planned scenarios may occur, and are not
25 problematic when they are not systematic in the direction of underperforming.
26 The latter case is a signal for increasing short-term efforts. Long-term scenarios
27 may be reviewed and adjusted every five or ten years, always with the
28 perspective of a very low Cpp value in 2050. The Deep Decarbonization Pathways
29 Project (DDPP 2015) shows how to construct such scenarios.

30 Second, there are yearly pledges-commitments of the Parties about progress year
31 by year for the next three years, on the three intensities composing the Cpp
32 value. For getting transparent and verifiable pledges-commitments, the
33 intensities are measured with indicators. One selects indicators (or their
34 constituent variables) that are inventoried by reliable institutes (IMF, UNEP, IPCC,
35 IEA, OLADE, etc.), and made available in a transparent and verifiable way. The
36 proposed indicators are:

- 37 • The *Budget Reform Index (BRI) for wealth intensity (GDP/person)*.
38 The BRI [*Chapter 2*] should irrevocably increase year after year. Budget
39 reform is promoting sustainable low-carbon activities and charging non-
40 sustainable activities, leading to restructuring of the GDP. The monetary
41 total of the GDP may increase or decrease by the restructuring. The
42 discretionary power of how to practically organize the restructuring
43 remains fully with the Parties. The BRI only gauges the overall net
44 monetary thrust of policies for the promotion of sustainable low-carbon
45 technologies and practices.
- 46 • *Energy intensity (energy/GDP)* is a long-time documented indicator
47 (Schipper et al. 1992, 2001; Geller and Attali 2006) and widely used by
48 national and international energy administrations. Energy intensity
49 combines the structure of an economy (how much of which activities take
50 place) with energy efficiency (how much commercial energy is used by

1 one unit of activity). The first factor is affected by budget reform (BRI);
2 the second is mainly technological. Lowering energy intensity is generally
3 high on the list of (proposed) energy and climate policies (IEA, EU, China).
4 • *Carbon intensity (emitted CO₂ per unit of supplied energy)* is the keystone
5 for controlling CO₂ emissions. Transitions to zero or almost zero carbon
6 emitting energy uses by 2050 is the mission for all nations in the coming
7 decades. Their transitions will be specific, due to differentiated endowment
8 in resources, applied technologies, installed infrastructures, etc. However,
9 all transitions are constrained by a small set of energy supply options
10 [Figure 8]. In Box 2 the importance of taking the path of the sustainable
11 low-carbon energy transition has been emphasized. This importance
12 should be repeated here.

13

14 **Which Pledges-Commitments are most practical?**

15 Coordinating behavior among sovereign actors is promoted by focal points: “*some*
16 *focal point for each person’s expectation of what the other expects him to expect*
17 *to be expected to do*” (Schelling, cited by Barrett 2012). For use in the COP
18 context, substitute Party for person. “*Whether there is a focal point, and what it*
19 *is, depends very much on how the bargaining problem is framed*” (Barrett 2012).
20 The various indicators of progressing on climate policy efforts and on results are
21 candidates as focal points. The choice is open:

- 22 • The highest aggregate indicator: Cpp
- 23 • The three constituent factors of Cpp
- 24 • One constituent factor, viz. carbon intensity, because this is the only
25 factor apt to reflect very low emissions by 2050 pathways, meaning
26 transitions to sustainable renewable energy systems⁴.

27

28 In the multi-leveled climate policy dome [figure 5], working with the three factors
29 creates more of a hinge between the UN and the nations. The three factors are
30 interdependent⁵. For transforming the energy systems to sustainable renewable
31 energy systems, also the other two factors need change. The decomposition of
32 Cpp in three factors is a first step in finding policies addressing the various
33 societal activities, the agents undertaking the activities, the energy technologies,
34 etc. The policy problem is ubiquitous, vast and diverse. Decomposition to the first
35 level drivers of energy-related CO₂ emissions is instructive. Emulation among
36 Parties is stimulated by yearly reviewing past results and pledging future progress
37 on three synthesis indicators of national climate policy.

38 More details on the practical organization of such a review and pledge process are
39 provided in Verbruggen (2009). The bolds and nuts of designing and running
40 appropriate regulations belong to the discretion of the UNFCCC secretariat.

41

42 **Box 7. Monitoring – Reporting – Verification (MRV) at the UNFCCC level**

43 In a multilevel architecture, the MRV responsibility and authority are also multi-
44 leveled and assigned at the respective levels [figure 5]. Here, only MRV at the
45 UNFCCC level are considered. MRV occasion transaction costs, which may grow

⁴ Desmond Tutu’s climate petition for COP21 proposes the transition to 100% renewable energy by 2050 as focal point.

⁵ This interdependency makes that extrapolating simple decomposition is only appropriate for a few nearby years.

1 unwieldy. This is experienced in the CDM mechanism, wanting measurement of
 2 the 'additional' emissions reductions of particular projects. By spreading MRV
 3 tasks properly over the multilevel policy structure, MRV costs at the UN level are
 4 manageable. The MRV expenses and the urgency of robust climate policies,
 5 support a call on existing international institutes with experienced experts,
 6 reliable information and proofed control systems. There is no added value or
 7 meaning in the trials of UNFCCC to invent, set up, deploy, run, and fail in new
 8 systems trying to measure the non-measurable. INDCs are an example of non-
 9 measurable patchworks.

10 However, MRV of the commitments of Parties is essential for governing global
 11 commons. Without monitoring, none of the commitments is credible. The
 12 willingness of the Parties to cooperate is adversely affected when they consider
 13 the commitments inappropriately enforced (Ostrom 1990). Mutual monitoring is
 14 related to self- governance, but direct monitoring a colleague is almost invariably
 15 costly to the monitor (Ostrom 1990, 1992). Mutual enforcement is often costly for
 16 participants when other participants, e.g., relatives, can retaliate. In global
 17 climate policy, retaliation is less likely because nation-states are formally distant
 18 and the UNFCCC secretariat is authorized to organize MRV. A more explicit
 19 specification of the role of the UNFCCC secretariat in lean MRV is feasible when
 20 the pledges-commitments take the form as discussed in Boxes 5 and 6.

21 MRV must be fully transparent, and occur accurately and regularly. In the
 22 practice of global climate policy, with 195 very diverse Parties, only a system that
 23 works with reliable, numerical indicators measured by known trustworthy
 24 institutes, can meet the request of a transparent, accurate, and regular reporting.
 25 Using indicators based on variables that are monitored, verified and reported
 26 annually since decades, makes MRV easy. There will be yearly reports for every
 27 participant. One yearly updated sheet with numerical results on the few indicators
 28 is necessary and sufficient for MRV. Table 1 shows a stylized example with 2014
 29 as baseline year and 2017 as COP-year when new pledges are made. Annual
 30 numbers are reported for a moving 10-year period: 4 verified years of the past
 31 (2011-2014), 3 pending years under verification (2015-2017), and 3 years with
 32 numbers pledged for the three years (2018-2020) following the year the COP
 33 takes place.

34

35 Table 1: Start MRV sheet with Predicted/Pledged and Verified values for the indicators
 36 (**2014**: rolling baseline year; **2017**: COP-year pledges for 2018-2020; X = data verified in
 37 2017; Y = predicted or pledged numbers in year 2017; - = data filled year after year)
 38

PARTY	GDP/person		BRI		Energy intensity		Carbon intensity		Resulting Cpp	
	Predict	Verif.	Pledge	Verif.	Pledge	Verif.	Pledge	Verif	PrPI	Verif
2011		X				X		X		X
2012		X				X		X		X
2013		X				X		X		X
2014		X		Test		X		X		X
2015		-		-		-		-		-
2016		-		-		-		-		-
2017		-		-		-		-		-
2018	Y	-	Y	-	Y	-	Y	-	Y	-
2019	Y	-	Y	-	Y	-	Y	-	Y	-
2020	Y	-	Y	-	Y	-	Y	-	Y	-

39

1 Many people and countries involved in climate policy are familiar with the
2 proposed indicators [table 1]. The administrative burden to fill the sheets by the
3 Parties is limited, especially when basic statistical services are in place and if
4 cooperating with institutes such as IMF, World Bank, IEA, OLADE, and IPCC.
5 The information is particularly helpful in realizing self-governance in global
6 climate policy. Two aspects are highlighted: first, the leaner COP functioning with
7 devolution of tasks to other levels of the multilevel policy dome [figure 5];
8 second, the credible structuring of financial transfers between rich and developing
9 countries.

11 **Leaner COP functioning**

12 MRV is the closing keystone of Ostrom's triptych 'rules-commitments-monitoring'.
13 Regular (continuous) MRV seal the common perception of mutual trust and
14 reciprocity, essential in coordinated strategies by sovereign Parties. For this the
15 MRV system has to be fully reliable and transparent. Additionally, the burden of
16 MRV should not squander the benefits of a coordinated approach of the climate
17 issues. In case UN coordination is too expensive, the voices for emptying the role
18 of UNFCCC become more influential. The sheets (of table 1) and the work to
19 compose these annually obey the criteria of a lean, reliable, transparent and
20 timely MRV.

21 It is a welcome instrument to enhance mutual monitoring without witch-hunting.
22 Related to the rulings developed in boxes 1 to 6, it helps to practically organize
23 common resolve among the Parties. The work delivered on the INDCs for COP21
24 is not lost when redirected to the proper decision-making level, being the national
25 states. Innate links strengthen both the programs, initiatives, target setting (i.e.
26 INDCs in all their specific detail) developed by the countries and the various
27 levels of decision-making operating in and across the countries, and the pledges-
28 commitments indicators and MRV employed at the UNFCCC level. The latter are
29 but the pinnacles of pyramids of domestic climate policy information systems. It
30 encourages learning at the scale of the nation-state; the metrics provide feedback
31 to individual countries on their own progress and, simultaneously, serve as a prod
32 to further action (Morgenstern 2007).

33 By yearly reporting progress and endeavors of all nations in a convenient,
34 accessible way, the citizenship of the world is well informed. This strengthens the
35 democratic interaction between constituencies and politicians, and may slim the
36 COP attendance.

38 **Feedback from mitigation performance to financial transfers**

39 Every global agreement (or proposal thereof) collapses without the keystone of
40 steady and predictable transfers from rich, industrialized countries to poor,
41 developing countries. There runs a vital feedback line from MRV [figure 6, Box 7,
42 as the closing keystone of the Boxes 4, 5 and 6] to Transfers [Box 3]. In this
43 architecture is proposed to distinguish the major components of the global
44 climate policy challenge (elimination of energy-related CO₂ emissions, REDD+,
45 adaptation, addressing non-CO₂ greenhouse gases), and it is recommended to
46 click financial transfers on the separate policy processes. One large climate fund
47 (like the GCF agreed upon in Copenhagen 2009) is divided in several accounts.
48 Donors transfer money to the accounts, and beneficiaries obtain drawing rights
49 on the accounts. The debits and credits per Party depend on the wealth status of
50 the Party in the baseline year and on its performance in realizing the pledges the

1 Party made. The rules for donations and for drawing rights are systemic, and
2 based on a double standard: ability to pay (measured by average GDP/person of
3 a country) and performance on committed climate policy indicators, composing
4 the Cpp. Commitments and performance are requested from all Parties, being
5 they donors or beneficiaries of finances.
6 GDP-dependent transfers (Gupta 2007) are adjusted with performance results in
7 meeting pledged commitments on the indicators. Making financial transfers
8 (debits and credits) dependent on performance inserts incentives to perform
9 better. There is more impetus to participation & compliance and making
10 appropriate pledges [*figure 6, Box 4 and Box 5*] are driven by financial interest.
11 Technically, the COP Parties must agree on an incentive formula common for
12 donor countries with above world's average GDP/person and on an incentive
13 formula for beneficiary countries with GDP/person below the world's average.
14 Suggestions are presented in Verbruggen (2009). They provide to both sides self-
15 enforcing incentives to perform above average of their group. The mechanism
16 makes donors pay along their ability to pay, further adjusted for their progress on
17 the factors determining their Cpp. A donor with little progress (too high Cpp)
18 appropriates too much space from the limited atmosphere and climate commons,
19 and must pay extra to the GCF account. Beneficiaries receive along their ability to
20 invest and use the money well for controlling their energy-related CO₂ emissions.
21 A beneficiary performing extra in controlling the factors that push up the Cpp,
22 receive more drawing rights on the GCF account. As such the self-governance has
23 constructed a lenient and lean, self-enforcing incentive mechanism.
24 Alongside this energy-related CO₂ mitigation account there will be need for
25 additional transfers in direct technology and aid for adaptation, as well as for
26 achieving the broader sustainable development goals.
27
28

1 **6 Summary**

2 This summary only covers chapter 5, presenting a workable self-governance by
3 sovereign nation-states in eliminating their energy-related CO₂ emissions by
4 2050. The other four chapters have been compiled as fundamentals for chapter 5.
5 Spearheading on energy-related emissions addresses the major cause of raising
6 greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere. The energy-related emissions
7 mitigation part of the climate change and climate policy problems illustrate how
8 an Ostrom-like approach could advance the UNFCCC by walking step by step in
9 the right direction. Spearhead policies are pertinent for disruptive solutions
10 breaking through the walls of incumbent resistance. The transition to sustainable
11 renewable energy uses and supplies is the only solution of hope. It needs
12 changing viewpoints, for example: *'nature offers renewable energy to convert in
13 useful supplies for society, energy systems have to adapt'* substitutes for the old
14 *'renewable energy disturbs existing (fossil fuel and nuclear based) energy
15 systems on command, and disturbers should be penalized'*.

16 Nothing in the proposals of chapter 5 is lunatic; all its components are known and
17 have been subject of analysis and support in the global literature. The rules
18 employ numerical indicators for transparency and precision. People are in the
19 center of the main indicators: CO₂ emissions per person (Cpp) and wealth per
20 person (GDP/person). There is no positive value in using the emissions/GDP
21 indicators.

22 Ostrom proposes a triptych for developing self-governance of commons: a new
23 system of specific rules – credible commitments – mutual monitoring. Each of the
24 three constituent elements is worked out. Figure 6 provides an overview: the
25 boxes 1 to 5 hold the system of rules; box 6 discusses credible commitments and
26 box 7 deals with monitoring. All boxes are interconnected. As summary, the
27 highlights are recalled.

28 *Box 1. Urgency to protect*

29 A civilized attitude qualifies energy-related CO₂ emissions as 'gaseous litter'. As a
30 corollary, littering (emissions) has to stop immediately, or at least as soon as
31 possible. The litterer is liable to clean the mess already occasioned (historical
32 responsibility to support adaptation and compensate damages and losses). This
33 attitude is opposite to the concept of 'rights to emit' and 'present generations
34 bringing offers when reducing the emissions'.

35 Being serious about the liability and about +2°C (+1.5°C) as extreme guardrail,
36 Parties project their average energy-related CO₂ emissions per inhabitant (Cpp) in
37 a scenario up to 2050. The scenario renders indicative long-term mitigation goals.
38 The Deep Decarbonization Pathways Project (DDPP 2015) provide worked out
39 examples for the major emitting Parties.
40

41 *Box 2. Spearhead policy: eliminate energy-related CO₂ emissions*

42 By now is acquired the general agreement on the need of a transition to low-
43 carbon energy supplies. Significant development of renewable energy occurred
44 over the last decade. However, non-compatible visions on the future energy
45 systems are clashing. The visions should be warranted by sustainability
46 assessments [*Chapter 2, Legend n°2*]. Two visions are described in Box 2, one
47 capable of bringing a sustainable energy transition, because the industrialized
48 nations take the lead and technologies and practices are ready for emulation by
49 developing nations. The other one is censored on the incumbent lock-in by
50

1 nuclear power and recently built fossil fuel power plants. It is a dead end,
2 particularly risky in a time of high urgency. In 2014, the European Commission
3 has followed the major energy and industrial companies on the risky path.

4 *Box 3. Transfers*

5 The financial transfers via global climate policy are split over the separate
6 regimes, with specific accounts in the GCF by regime. The transfers related to the
7 elimination of energy-related CO₂ emissions are dependent on the numerical
8 indicators GDP/person and Cpp (the result of three composing intensity factors).
9 The financial flows from donors to beneficiaries depend on the position of the
10 Parties on the GDP/person graduation scale [*Chapter 1*]. Financial transfers
11 accord with donors' ability to pay and beneficiaries' ability to spend. Transfers are
12 adjusted with performance by both sides on the numerical indicators measuring
13 progress in lowering their Cpp. The transfers are yearly cleared. Other parts and
14 regimes of the climate problem create own transfer flows via their specific
15 accounts.

16 *Box 4. Participation & Compliance*

17 COP participants adhere high value to unanimous decision-making. However,
18 consensus among very different Parties generally brings high costs in contents of
19 the agreement. Kick-starting the energy transition by countries having littered
20 and littering most the atmosphere, puts the responsibility at the right place.
21 Participation is advantageous for all other nations.
22 Participation means acceptance of the rules of self-governance. Compliance is
23 respecting the rules. Compliance is enhanced by self-enforcing mechanisms, such
24 as rewarding beyond standard performance and penalizing below standard
25 performance. Sovereign Parties prefer modest rewards and penalties, except
26 when one Party really endangers the commons. Appropriate transfers and
27 common resolve stimulate compliance.

28 *Box 5. Pledge & Review*

29 Economists dislike this mechanism, although being the most functional one when
30 Parties are sovereign. However, so far COPs adopted pledging rules of dubious
31 quality, practically non-reviewable and with little credible commitment (the Kyoto
32 percent reduction targets and the INDCs). Such pledges preclude a workable self-
33 governance.
34 In conceiving P&R rules full attention is due for the next two elements of the
35 Ostrom triptych (credible commitments and mutual monitoring). Therefore, the
36 pledge rules should own particular properties. Pledges are made on numerical,
37 reliable, and transparent performance indicators. Pledges are renewed yearly for
38 enhanced performance. For staying realistic, pledges are made against yearly
39 updated indicator value baselines; the prehistoric 1990 baseline is shelved. Yearly
40 reviews provide feedback about the progressing pledges and performance. The
41 system of pledges stimulates common resolve among the Parties.

42 *Box 6. Binding yearly commitments*

43 Credible commitments are obtained by well-founded pledges. For eliminating
44 energy-related CO₂ emissions, the Cpp values of all Parties have to dwindle to
45 almost zero (high emitting countries) or remain capped to low values (low
46 emitting countries). Parties could made pledges directly on Cpp values, but the

1 proposal here argues in favor of pledges on the three factors composing Cpp. For
2 every factor exist verified statistics to express pledges and progress in reliable
3 numerical values. Wealth intensity (GDP/person) is measured by the Budget
4 Reform Index showing how a nation is changing the incentives for moving from
5 carbon intensive, polluting activities to carbon free, clean activities [Chapter 2].
6 This index is the right substitute for the economists' demand to include carbon
7 pricing. Energy intensity (energy/GDP) is a combination of the kind of activities
8 undertaken with the energy efficiency of the undertakings. Lowering this intensity
9 is a commonly pursued goal by various authorities, institutes and initiatives (for
10 example, the Chinese government, IEA, UN, SE4All initiative). Decreasing carbon
11 intensity (CO₂ emissions/energy) depends on the growth of sustainable renewable
12 energy supplies.

13 Binding cannot be imposed or enforced. The precision of pledges-commitments is
14 most influential in enhancing the binding power of the governance. On precision
15 the proposed indicators excel above any other system. The underlying statistics
16 are collected and processed by respected international organizations such as UN
17 institutes, IMF, IPCC, IEA, OLADE, Eurostat, etc.

18

19 *Box 7. MRV (Monitoring, Reporting, Verifying) at the UNFCCC level*

20 The third keystone of Ostrom's self-government structure is mutual monitoring.
21 For many Parties, it is already quite cumbersome to conceive, specify and follow
22 up the own INDC. It is unthinkable how the Parties could mutually monitor the
23 performance on all the INDCs. A lean and effective MRV is necessary, but only
24 feasible when based on transparent, accurate, numerical and yearly available
25 indicators. The proposed governance rules and credible commitments can deliver
26 this information. A yearly table of 10 rows by 10 columns [table 1] is sufficient to
27 publish the progress and pledges for next years made by a Party. Non-intrusive
28 verification is possible. Processing the data of all Parties delivers accessible
29 reports for the Parties and the global community of concerned citizens. The
30 information is enough reliable, updated and verified to function as input for
31 assessing the performance of the Parties in controlling their Cpp pattern.
32 Therefore it is a valid basis for deciding on the amount of donations by the rich
33 countries, and on the amount of drawing rights from the GCF by the poor
34 countries. The transfers respect the ability to pay by the rich, and the ability to
35 spend by the poor, for eliminating the energy-related CO₂ emissions.

36

37 *The self-governance regime*

38 All boxes are interconnected in a grid shown by figure 6. For example: sovereign
39 nations cooperate on pledges, transformed in credible commitments, mutually
40 monitored, imposing strict conditions of transparency, regularity, accuracy. It
41 asks for established knowledge and indicators, certified by trustworthy institutes.
42 The efforts must deliver effect: the emissions go down by thorough energy
43 transitions based on technologies and practices everywhere valid and affordable
44 by all countries. Yet countries are diverse, and financing and capability need
45 redistribution by transfers, taking into account ability to pay by the rich and
46 ability to spend by the poor. Without yearly, numerical indicators on status and
47 progress, credible MRV is not possible. Without MRV there are no credible
48 commitments, and it makes no sense to define rules (Ostrom 1992). MRV is the
49 keystone of a credible and workable regime in global climate policy.

1 **7 Concluding**

2 Global elimination of energy-related CO₂ emissions in a few decades, the latest by
3 2050, equals disruptive changes in energy uses and supplies, everywhere.

4 Urgent, thorough transitions are the opposite of slow, soft bending of the easiest
5 practices. Disruptive change follows disruptive thinking, talking, planning and
6 handling. Disruptive proposals clash with our TINA syndrome, instigating inertia.

7 Developed societies tremendously invest in carbon lock-in infrastructures,
8 technologies, institutions and practices. Developing societies are copying the
9 wealthy nations, including the carbon lock-in. It is the road to irreversible climate
10 perdition.

11 Politicians and officials fully support and invest in the ongoing COP process. The
12 forces to 'throw good money after bad money' are strong. The scientific proposals
13 on global climate policy self-governance as developed in chapter 5 and
14 summarized in chapter 6, ask for a detached, rational position about possibility,
15 desirability, and necessity of their implementation.

16 The proposals are *possible* because, using existing and proofed operational
17 institutes and instruments, the essential characteristics of climate change and the
18 related common-pool resource issues are addressed. No essential parts of the
19 proposals have to be invented or founded anew. Ongoing positive efforts and
20 results are integrated, for example the INDCs prepared by the Parties, although
21 too incongruent for policy at the UN level, remain useful at the nation-state level.
22 The regime is dynamically adaptive, and matches other deep decarbonization
23 ideas. The regime is applicable in the yearly COP meetings.

24 The proposals are *desirable*. They respect basic principles of global partnership:
25 universality, sovereignty, realism, transparency, and diversity. All Parties are
26 treated as sovereign partners in a global policy regime. Equal rules apply when
27 common responsibilities and capabilities prevail; otherwise, rules are
28 differentiated.

29 The proposals are *necessary* for the urgent and drastic changes in energy use and
30 supply systems, which the ongoing COP process cannot deliver. Voluntary
31 contributions, difficult to monitor and verify, fall short in governing the global
32 atmosphere and climate commons. Ostrom's analysis and recommendations are
33 convincing for deploying a systemic approach.

34 True, UNFCCC must clear the road of illusions (see the Legends in chapter 2) and
35 from interests vested in carbon-intensive economies. However, such clearings are
36 prerequisite for every agreement, policy and measure with a real chance to avoid
37 the +2 °C calamity.

38 This essay has not the ambition to be complete. It is a search for a workable
39 global climate policy self-governance regime. The unfinished character is an
40 advantage: academics may propose pathways, solutions, directions, headlines,
41 etc. Policy makers are in charge of final design, implementation, and operation.
42 Blueprinting and realizing a workable architecture for global climate policy is still
43 the responsibility of UNFCCC.

44

45

Bibliography

- Ackerman, F., Stanton, E.A. (2013). *Climate Economics. The state of the art*. Routledge Studies in Ecological Economics. Taylor & Francis Group, London and New York.
- Agnolucci, P., Ekins, P., Iacopini, G., Anderson, K., Bows, A., Mander, S., Shackley, S. (2009). Different scenarios for achieving radical reduction in carbon emissions: A decomposition analysis. *Ecological Economics* 68: 1652-1666
- Agora Energiewende (2013) 12 Insights on Germany's Energiewende. <http://www.agora-energiewende.de>
- Aldy J.E., Barrett S., Stavins R.N. (2003). 13+1: *A Comparison of Global Climate Change Policy Architectures*. (Washington: Resources for the Future. DP 03-26).
- Aldy, J.E., Stavins, R.N., eds. (2007). *Architectures for Agreement*. Addressing Global Climate Change in the Post-Kyoto World. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, xxvii + 380p.
- Aldy, J.E., Pizer W.A. (2015). Alternative Metrics for Comparing Domestic Climate Change Mitigation Efforts and the Emerging International Climate Policy Architecture. *Review of Environmental Economics and Policy*. Online: doi:10.1093/reep/rev013
- American Nuclear Society, 2001. Generation IV Roadmap: Fuel Cycle Crosscut Group. Winter Meeting Reno http://gif.inel.gov/roadmap/pdfs/fuel_cycles.pdf
- Ang, B.W., Liu, F.L., Chew, E.P. (2003). Perfect decomposition techniques in energy and environmental analysis. *Energy Policy* 31, 1561-1566
- Arrow, K.J., Fisher, A.C. (1974). Environmental Preservation, Uncertainty, and Irreversibility. *Quarterly Journal of Economics* 88, 312-319.
- Athanasίου, T.; Baer, P. (2006). Greenhouse Development Rights: An approach to the global climate regime that takes climate protection seriously while also preserving the right to human development. *EcoEquity and Christian Aid*, 10p.
- Baer, P., Athanasίου, T., Kartha, S., Kemp-Benedict, E. (2008). *The Greenhouse Development Rights Framework*. Heinrich Böll Stiftung
- Barrett, S. (2012). Credible Commitments, Focal Points, and Tipping, p.29-49 in Hahn, R.W. and Ulph, A., eds. *Climate Change and Common Sense. Essays in Honour of Tom Schelling*. Oxford University Press
- Barrett, S., Carraro, C., de Melo, J. eds. (2015). *Towards a Workable and Effective Climate Regime*. Centre for Economic Policy Research Press and Ferdi. A VoxEU.org eBook
- BASIC (2006). *The Sao Paulo Proposal for an Agreement on Future International Climate Policy*. Instituto de Estudos Avançados da Universidade de Sao Paulo.
- Baumert, K.A., Goldberg, D.M. (2006). Action targets: a new approach to international greenhouse gas controls. *Climate Policy* 5(6): 567-581.
- Baumert, K.A., Winkler, H. (2005). Sustainable Development Policies and Measures and International Climate Agreements. In "Growing in the greenhouse: protecting the climate by putting development first", World Resources Institute: 15-23.
- Bodansky D., Chou S., Jorge-Tresolini C. (2004). *International Climate Effort Beyond 2012: A Survey of Approaches*. PEW Center on Global Climate Change, 63p.
- Bodansky, D. (2007). Targets and timetables: good policy but bad politics? in Aldy, J.E, Stavins, R.N. eds. o.c., 57-66
- Bodansky, D. (2015). Legally binding versus non-legally binding instruments, in Barrett et al., eds., o.c., 155-165
- BP (2015) *Statistical Review of World Energy*
- Bromley, D.W., ed. (1992). *Making the Commons Work*. Institute for Contemporary Studies, San Francisco, USA.
- Charlesworth, M., Okereke, C. (2010). Policy responses to rapid climate change: an epistemological critique of dominant approaches. *Global Environmental Change* 20, 121-129
- Cléménçon, R. (2006). What Future for the Global Environment Facility? *The Journal of Environment & Development* 15 (1): 50-74.
- Cooper, R.N. (2007). Alternatives to Kyoto: the case for a carbon tax. in Aldy, J.E, Stavins, R.N. eds. o.c., 105-115
- Corfee-Morlot, J., Kamai-Chaoui, M., Donovan, G., Cohran, I., Robert, A., Teasdale, P.J. (2009). *Cities, Climate Change and Multilevel Governance*. OECD Environment Working Papers 14
- Cramton, P., Ockenfels, A., Stoft, S. (2015). An International Carbon-Price Commitment Promotes Cooperation. *Economics of Energy & Environmental Policy* 4(2) : 51-64
- Dai, X. (2010). Global regime and national change. *Climate Policy* 10, 622-637

1 Daly, H.E., ed. (1973, 1980). *Economics, Ecology, Ethics. Essays toward a Steady-State*
2 *Economy*. W.H. Freeman and Company, San Francisco.

3 DDPP (2015). *Pathways to Deep Decarbonization. Executive Summary 2015 report*. Deep
4 *Decarbonization Pathways Project*. Sustainable Development Solutions Network (SDSN)
5 and the Institute for Sustainable Development and International Relations (IDDRI).
6 www.deepdecarbonization.org

7 DeCanio, S.J. (2013). Game theory and climate diplomacy. *Ecological Economics* 85: 177-
8 187

9 DeCanio, S.J. (2014). *Limits of Economic and Social Knowledge*. Palgrave Macmillan, New
10 York

11 De Cendra De Larragán, J. (2008). Too much harmonization? An analysis of the
12 Commission's proposal to amend the EU ETS from the perspective of legal principles. In
13 Faure and Peeters, eds., *Climate Change and European Emissions Trading. Lessons for*
14 *Theory and Practice*. Edward Elgar: 53-87.

15 De Coninck, H., Fischer, C., Newell, R.G., Ueno, T. (2008). International technology-
16 oriented agreements to address climate change. *Energy Policy* 36: 335-356.

17 Dixit, A. K. and R. S. Pindyck. 1994. *Investment under Uncertainty*. Princeton University
18 Press. Princeton, New Jersey.

19 Dubash, N.K., Rajamani, L. (2010). Beyond Copenhagen: next steps. *Climate Policy* 10,
20 593-599

21 Dubash, N.K., Florini, A. (2011). Mapping Global Energy Governance. *Global Policy* 2,
22 special issue, 6-18

23 EC (2014a). A policy framework for climate and energy in the period from 2020 to 2030.
24 European Commission COM(2014) 15 final.

25 EC (2014b). Guidelines on State aid for environmental and energy 2014-2020. European
26 Commission. Official Journal of EU 57 2014/C 200/01

27 EC (2015). Energy Union Package. A Framework Strategy for a Resilient Energy Union with
28 a Forward-Looking Climate Change Policy. European Commission COM(2015) 80 final.

29 Ehrlich P.E, Holdren J. (1971). Impact of Population Growth. *Science* 3977, 1212-1219

30 EUROSTAT (2015). Environmental Taxes. [http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/
31 index.php/Environmental_taxes_-_detailed_analysis](http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Environmental_taxes_-_detailed_analysis)

32 Frankel, J. (2007) Formulas for quantitative emission targets. in Aldy, J.E, Stavins, R.N.
33 eds. o.c., 31-56

34 Fraunhofer (2015). ISE. Current and Future Cost of Photovoltaics

35 Freeman, D., et al. (1974). *A Time To Choose. America's Energy Future*. Energy Policy
36 Project of the Ford Foundation, Ballinger Publishing Company, Cambridge, Mass.

37 Fri R.W. (2003). The Role of Knowledge: Technological Innovation in the Energy System,
38 *The Energy Journal* 24 (4): 51-74.

39 Geller, H., Attali, S. (2005). The experience with energy efficiency policies and programmes
40 in IEA countries. Learning from the critics. IEA Information paper, Paris.

41 Gollier, C., Tirole, J. (2015). Negotiating Effective Institutions Against Climate Change.
42 *Economics of Energy & Environmental Policy* 4(2) : 5-27

43 Grober, U., 2015. The discovery of sustainability: the genealogy of a term. In Enders, J.,
44 Remig, M. (eds.), *Theories of Sustainable Development*, Routledge, London/New York, 21-
45 34.

46 Grübler, A. (2010). The costs of the French nuclear scale-up: A case of negative learning
47 by doing. *Energy Policy* 38, 5174-5188

48 Gupta, J. (2007). Beyond graduation and deepening: toward cosmopolitan scholarship, in
49 Aldy, J.E, Stavins, R.N. eds. o.c., 116-130

50 Hahn, R.W., Ulph, A., eds. (2012). *Climate Change and Common Sense. Essays in Honour*
51 *of Tom Schelling*. Oxford University Press.

52 Hahn, R.W., Ulph, A. (2012). Thinking Through the Climate Change Challenge, in Hahn,
53 R.W., Ulph, A., eds., o.c., 3-15

54 Hardin, G. (1968). The Tragedy of the Commons. *Science* 162: 1243-1248. Reprinted in
55 Daly, H.E., ed. (1973), o.c., p.100-114

56 Hare, W., Stockwell, C., Flachslans, C., Oberthür, S. (2010). The architecture of the global
57 climate regime: a top-down perspective. *Climate Policy* 10, 600-614

58 Helm, D. (2010). The Case for Carbon Taxes, in Less, S., ed. *Greener, Cheaper*. Policy
59 Exchange, London.

60 Hennicke, P. (2004). Scenarios for a robust policy mix: the final report of the German study
61 commission on sustainable energy supply. *Energy Policy* 32, 15: 1673-1678.

62 Heyward, M. (2007). Equity and international climate change negotiations: a matter of
63 perspective. *Climate Policy* 7: 518-534.

1 Homer-Dixon, T. (2011). Complexity Science. Oxford Leadership Journal 2(1): 15
2 Howes, S. (2009). Can China rescue the global climate change negotiations? 409-430, in
3 Garnaut, R., Song, L., Thye, W.W., eds. China's New Place in a World in Crisis. ANU E
4 Press, xxiii+461p.
5 Hugé, J., Waas, T., Eggermont, G., Verbruggen, A. (2011). Impact assessment for a
6 sustainable energy future–Reflections and practical experiences. Energy Policy 39, 6243-
7 6253
8 IEA (2011). CO2 emissions from fuel combustion – Highlights (2011 edition). International
9 Energy Agency, Paris
10 IEA (2014). World Energy Outlook. International Energy Agency, Paris
11 IPCC (2007). Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change: Climate Change 2007.
12 Assessment Report Four. www.ipcc.ch
13 IPCC (2012). Special Report on Renewable Energy Sources and Climate Change Mitigation.
14 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, Cambridge University Press; www.ipcc.ch
15 IPCC (2014). Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, Fifth Assessment Report,
16 Working Group III Mitigation of Climate Change. www.ipcc.ch
17 Jacoby, H.D. (2007). Climate favela. In Aldy, J.E. & Stavins, R.N., eds., o.c., 270-279
18 Jaffe, A.B., Kerr, S. (2015). The Science, Economics, and Politics of Global Climate Change:
19 A Review of The Climate Casino by William Nordhaus. Journal of Economic Literature 53(1),
20 79-91
21 Jardon, A.J., Huitema, D., Hildén, M., van Asselt, H., Rayner, T.J., Schoenefeld, J.J., Tosun,
22 J., Forster, J., Boasson, E.L. (2015). Emergence of polycentric climate governance and its
23 future prospects. Nature Climate Change, 5, 977-982
24 Kanie, N., Nishimoto, H., Hijioka, Y., Kameyama, Y. (2010). Allocation and architecture in
25 climate governance beyond Kyoto: lessons from interdisciplinary research on target setting.
26 International Environmental Agreements: Politics, Law and Economics. DOI:
27 10.1007/s10784-010-9143-5
28 Keohane, R.O., Victor, D.G. (2011). The Regime Complex for Climate Change. Perspectives
29 on Politics 9 (1), 7- 23
30 Keohane, R.O., Victor, D.G. (2015). After the failure of top-down madates: The role of
31 experimental governance in climate change policy, in Barrett et al. eds., o.c., 201-212
32 Kuik, O., Aerts, J., Berkhout, F., Biermann, F., Bruggink, J., Gupta, J., Tol, R.S.J. (2008).
33 Post-2012 climate policy dilemmas: a review of proposals. Climate Policy 8: 317-336
34 Lederer, M. (2011). From CDM to REDD+ - What do we know for setting up effective and
35 legitimate carbon governance? Ecological Economics 70, 1900-1907
36 Lejano, R.P. (2006). The design of environmental regimes: Social construction,
37 contextuality, and improvisation. *International Environmental Agreements: Politics, Law*
38 *and Economics*, 6, 187-207
39 Lejano, R.P., Araral, E., Araral, D. (2014). Interrogating the Commons: Introduction to the
40 Special Issue. Environmental Science & Policy 36, 1-7
41 Lohmann L. ed. (2006). Carbon Trading: a critical conservation on climate change,
42 privatization and power, Dag Hammarskjöld development dialogue, n°48, 362p.
43 Lovins, A.B. (1977). Soft Energy Paths: Towards a Durable Peace. Harper & Row, New York
44 Lovins, A.B., et all. (2002). Small is profitable. Rocky Mountain Institute
45 Manne, A. S. and R. G. Richels (1991). *Buying greenhouse insurance*. Energy Policy 19
46 (July/August):53-62.
47 Mansbridge, J. (2014). The role of the state in governing the commons. Environmental
48 Science & Policy 36, 8-10
49 Meadows, D.L. (1972). The Limits to Growth. A Report for the Club of Rome Project on The
50 Predicament of Mankind. Universe Books, New York.
51 Metcalf, G.E. (2009). Market-Based Policy Options to Control US Greenhouse Gas
52 Emissions. Journal of Economic Perspectives 23: 5-27
53 Meyer, A. (1998). The Kyoto Protocol and the Emergence of 'Contraction and Convergence'
54 as a Framework for an International Political Solution to Greenhouse Gas Emissions
55 Abatement, 291-326, in Hohmeyer, O., Rennings, K., eds. Man-Made Climate Change.
56 Economic Aspects and Policy Options. ZEW, Springer Verlag.
57 Mitchell Waldrop M. (2012 Nuclear energy: Radical reactors. Nature 492, 26-29
58 Morgenstern, R.D. (2007). The case for greater flexibility in an international climate
59 change agreement, in Aldy, J.E, Stavins, R.N. eds. o.c., 209-219
60 Morris, D., Worthington, B. (2010). Cap or trap? How the EU ETS risks locking-in carbon
61 emissions. Sandbag.
62 Nordhaus, W. (1973). The Allocation of Energy Resources. Brookings Papers on Economic
63 Activity 3, 529-576

- 1 Nordhaus, W. (2007). To Tax or Not to Tax: Alternative Approaches to Slowing Global
2 Warming. *Review of Environmental Economics and Policy* 1, 26-44
- 3 Nordhaus, W., (2007). *The Challenge of Global Warming: Economic Models and*
4 *Environmental Policy*. Yale University, 167p.
- 5 Nordhaus, W. (2013). *The Climate Casino: Risk, Uncertainty, and Economics for a Warming*
6 *World*. Yale University Press, New Haven & London
- 7 Norman, W., MacDonald, C. (2004). Getting to the bottom of "Triple Bottom Line".
8 *Business Ethics Quarterly* 14: 243-262.
- 9 Oakerson, R.J. (1992). Analyzing the Commons: A Framework, in Bromley, D.W., ed.
10 *Making the Commons Work*, pp.41-59.
- 11 OECD(1972). *Guiding Principles concerning international economic aspects of*
12 *environmental policies*. Paris.
- 13 OECD (1993). *Core set of Indicators for Environmental Performance Reviews*. Environment
14 *Monographs* 83. Paris
- 15 OECD (2009). *Applications of Complexity Science for Public Policy*. Organization for
16 *Economic Co-operation and Development*. Global Science Forum.
- 17 Okereke, C., Schroeder, H. (2009). How can justice, development and climate change
18 mitigation be reconciled for developing countries in a post-Kyoto settlement? *Climate and*
19 *Development* 1, 10-15
- 20 Ostrom, E. (1990). *Governing the Commons. The Evolution of Institutions for Collective*
21 *Action*. Cambridge University Press, 280p.
- 22 Ostrom, E. (1992). The Rudiments of a Theory of the Origins, Survival, and Performance of
23 Common-Property Institutions, in Bromley, D.W., ed. *Making the Commons Work*, pp.293-
24 318
- 25 Ostrom, E. (2005). *Understanding Institutional Diversity*. Princeton University Press.
- 26 Ostrom, E. (2010). Polycentric systems for coping with collective action and global
27 environmental change. *Global Environmental Change* 20, 550-557
- 28 Patt, A.G. (2010). Effective regional energy governance – not global environmental
29 governance – is what we need right now for climate change, Editorial. *Global Environmental*
30 *Change* 20, 33-35.
- 31 Pattberg, P., Stripple, J. (2008). Beyond the public and private divide: remapping
32 transnational climate governance in the 21st century. *International Environmental*
33 *Agreements: Politics, Law and Economics*, 8, 367-388
- 34 Pawson, R. (2002). Evidence-based Policy: The Promise of 'Realist Synthesis'. *Evaluation*
35 8(3), 340-358.
- 36 Parry, I., Williams, R. (2012). Moving US Climate Policy Forward: Are Carbon Taxes the
37 Only Good Alternative?, in Hahn, R.W. and Ulph, A., eds., o.c., 173-202
- 38 Pershing, J. (2007). Using the development agenda to build climate mitigation support, in
39 Aldy, J.E, Stavins, R.N. eds. o.c., 220-233
- 40 Pestre, D. (2011). Développement durable: anatomie d'une notion. *National Science*
41 *Society* 19: 31-39.
- 42 PEW (2005). *International Climate Efforts Beyond 2012*. Report of the Climate Dialogue at
43 Pocantico. PEW Center on Global Climate Change, 25p.
- 44 Philibert, C. (2005). Approaches for future international co-operation. OECD/IEA, 32p.
- 45 Pizer, W. (2005). The Case for Intensity Targets. RFF, Washington DC
- 46 Pizer, W. (2007). Practical global climate policy, in Aldy, J.E, Stavins, R.N. eds. o.c., 280-
47 314
- 48 Porter, M.E. (1980). *Competitive Strategy*. The Free Press, Simon & Schuster Inc. New York
- 49 Portney, P.R, Weyant, J.P., eds. (1999). *Discounting and Intergenerational Equity*.
50 *Resources for the Future*, Washington, D.C.
- 51 Prins, G., Rayner, S. (2007). Time to ditch Kyoto. *Nature* 449, 973-975
- 52 Prins, G., Galiana, I., Green, C., Grundmann, R., Hulme, M., Korhola, A., Laird, F.,
53 Nordhaus, T., Pielke, Jr., R.A., Rayner, S., Sarewitz, D., Shellenberger, M., Stehr, N.,
54 Tezuka, H. (2010). The Hartwell Paper: A New Direction for Climate Policy after the Crash
55 of 2009, MacKinder Programme for the Study of Long Wave Events, LSE and Institute for
56 Science, Innovation and Society, University of Oxford [available at
57 http://eprints.lse.ac.uk/27939/1/HartwellPaper_English_version.pdf].
- 58 Rayner, S. (2010). How to eat an elephant: a bottom-up approach to climate policy.
59 *Climate Policy* 10, 615-621
- 60 Roberts, J.T. (2011). Multipolarity and the new world (dis)order: US hegemonic decline and
61 the fragmentation of the global climate regime. *Global Environmental Change* 21, 776-784
- 62 Rosen, M.A. (2009). Energy sustainability: a pragmatic approach and illustrations.
63 *Sustainability*, 1, 55-100

1 Sartor, O. (2015). What is the role of COP21 on carbon pricing? IDDRI's Climate
2 Newsletter, November 27, 2015.

3 Schelling, T. (2012). Norms, Conventions, and Institutions to Cope With Climate Change, in
4 Hahn, R.W. and Ulph, A., eds., o.c., 19-28

5 Schipper, L., Meyers, S., Howarth, R., Steiner, R. (1992). Energy Efficiency and Human
6 Activity: Past Trends, Future Prospects. Cambridge University Press.

7 Schipper, L., Unander, F., Murtishaw, S., Ting, M. (2001). Indicators of energy use and
8 carbon emissions: understanding the energy-economy link. Annual Review of Energy and
9 Environment 26: 49-81

10 Schneider, L. (2007). Is the CDM fulfilling its environmental and sustainable development
11 objectives? An evaluation of the CDM and options for improvement. Report prepared for
12 WWF. Öko-Institut Berlin, 75p.

13 Stavins, R.N. (1995). Transaction Costs and Tradeable Permits. Journal of Environmental
14 Economics and Management 29, 133-148

15 Sterling, A. (1998). *On the Economics and Analysis of Diversity*. Brighton: Science Policy
16 Research Unit. Electronic Working Paper N° 28

17 Stern, N. (2006). STERN REVIEW: The Economics of Climate Change, Executive Summary,
18 27 (xxvii) p.

19 Stern, N., Rydge, J. (2012). The New Energy-industrial Revolution and International
20 Agreement on Climate Change. Economics of Energy & Environmental Policy 1(1) : 101-119

21 Stiglitz, J. (2015). Overcoming the Copenhagen Failure with Flexible Commitments.
22 Economics of Energy & Environmental Policy 4(2) : 29-36

23 Summers, L. (2007). Foreword. In Aldy, J.E. & Stavins, R.N., eds., o.c xviii-xxvii

24 Tietenberg T.H. (2006). Emissions Trading. Principles and Practice. RFF, Washington D.C.

25 Töpfer, K., et al. (2011). Germany's Energy Turnaround: A collective effort for the future.
26 Ethics Commission on a Safe Energy Supply, Berlin.

27 UK HM Government (2009). The UK Low Carbon Transition Plan.

28 UNCED1(992). United Nations Conference on Environment and Development. Report of the
29 United Nations Conference on Environment and Development. Rio de Janeiro, Brasil.

30 UNCTAD (1974). Declaration for the Establishment of a New International Economic Order.
31 United Nations Conference on Trade and Development. United Nations General Assembly,
32 New York.

33 UNDP (2007). Human Development Report 2007/2008. Fighting Climate Change: Human
34 solidarity in a divided world. Summary. United Nations Development Programme, 31p.
35 <http://hdr.undp.org/reports>

36 UNEP and OECD/IEA (2002). Reforming Energy Subsidies, 29p.

37 UNFCCC (1992). Framework Convention on Climate Change. United Nations.

38 UNFCCC (2009) COP15 Copenhagen. Decision -/CP.15 "The COP takes note of the
39 Copenhagen Accord of 18 December 2009". Section 2 refers to text and articles of the
40 Copenhagen Accord.

41 U.S. EIA (2011). Environment: U.S. Energy-Related Carbon Dioxide Emissions 2010.
42 Energy Information Administration: <http://www.eia.gov/environment/emissions/carbon> -
43 [accessed Nov.15](http://www.eia.gov/environment/emissions/carbon), 2011.

44 Verbruggen, A. (2008). Renewable and nuclear power: A common future? *Energy Policy* 36,
45 4036-4047

46 Verbruggen, A. (2009). Beyond Kyoto, plan B: A climate policy master plan based on
47 transparent metrics. *Ecological Economics* 68: 2930-2937

48 Verbruggen, A. (2010). Preparing the design of robust climate policy architectures.
49 *International Environmental Agreements: Politics, Law and Economics* 11(4), 275-295

50 Verbruggen, A. (2011). A Turbo Drive for the Global Reduction of Energy-Related CO2
51 Emissions. *Sustainability* 3, 632-648. www.mdpi.com/journal/sustainability

52 Verbruggen, A., Laes, E., Lemmens, S. (2014). Assessment of the actual sustainability of
53 nuclear fission power. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews* 32: 16-28

54 Verbruggen, A., Laes, E. (2015). Sustainability assessment of nuclear power: Discourse
55 analysis of IAEA and IPCC frameworks. *Environmental Science & Policy* 51: 170-180

56 Verbruggen, A., Di Nucci, M.R., Fischedick, M., Haas, R., Hvelplund, F., Lauber, V.,
57 Lorenzoni, A., Mez, L., Nilsson, L.J., del Rio Gonzalez, P. Schleich, J., Toke, D. (2015).
58 Europe's electricity regime: restoration or thorough transition. *International Journal of*
59 *Sustainable Energy Planning and Management* 5: 57-68

60 Verwey, M. (2011). Clumsy Solutions for a Wicked World. How to Improve Global
61 Governance. Palgrave MacMillan.

62 Victor, D.G. (2007). Fragmented carbon markets and reluctant nations: implications for the
63 design of effective architectures, in Aldy, J.E, Stavins, R.N. eds. o.c., 133-160

1 Victor, D.G., Gerlagh, R., Baiocchi, G. (2014). Getting serious about categorizing countries.
2 Science Vol. 345 n° 6192, pp.34-36
3 Wang, T., Watson, J. (2007). Who Owns China's Carbon Emissions? Tyndall Centre for
4 Climate Research. Briefing Note N°23
5 Wara, M. (2007). Is the global carbon market working? Nature 445, 595-596.
6 Ward, M. (2010). Emissions – Pledges and 'Projected Anyway' in 2010. Paper 5 in a series
7 of papers on Analytic support for Target-based Negotiations. Climate Strategies
8 WCED (1987). Our Common Future. World Commission on Environment and Development
9 Oxford University Press: New York.
10 Weitzman, M.L. (2015). Internalizing the Climate Externality: Can a Uniform Price
11 Commitment Help? Economics of Energy & Environmental Policy 4(2) : 37-50
12 Wiener, J.B. (2007). Incentives for meta-architecture, in Aldy, J.E. & Stavins, R.N., eds.,
13 o.c. 67-80
14 Wiener, J.B. (2015). Towards an effective system of monitoring, reporting, and
15 verification, in Barrett et al., eds, o.c., 183-200
16 Williams, J.H., Haley, B., Jones, R. (2015). Policy implications of deep decarbonization in
17 the United States. A report of the Deep Decarbonization Pathways Project of the
18 Sustainable Development Solutions Network and the Institute for Sustainable Development
19 and International Relations. Nov 17, 2015
20 Zaccai, E. (2012). Over two decades in pursuit of sustainable development: Influence,
21 transformations, limits. Environmental Development 1: 79-90