



The Global Climate Plan – Policy Brief

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1 Summary

“At the Paris agreement in 2015, all countries have agreed to contain global warming ‘well below +2 °C’. To limit global warming to this level, **there is a maximum amount of greenhouse gases we can emit globally.**

To meet the climate target, a limited number of permits to emit greenhouse gases can be created globally. Polluting firms would be required to buy permits to cover their emissions. Such a policy would **make fossil fuel companies pay** for their emissions and progressively raise the price of fossil fuels. **Higher prices would encourage people and companies to use less fossil fuels, reducing greenhouse gas emissions.**

In accordance with the principle that each human has an equal right to pollute, the revenues generated by the sale of permits could finance a global basic income. **Each adult in the world would receive \$30/month**, thereby lifting out of extreme poverty the 700 million people who earn less than \$2/day.

The typical [American] would lose out financially [\$85] per month (as he or she would face [\$115] per month in price increases, which is higher than the \$30 they would receive).

The policy could be put in place as soon as countries totaling more than 60% of global emissions agree on it. Countries that would refuse to take part in the policy could face sanctions (like tariffs) from the rest of the World and would be excluded from the basic income.”

In a representative survey on 3,000 respondents, [Fabre et al. \(2023\)](#) show that 54% of Americans support the Global Climate Plan (GCP) as described above. Actually, [Fabre et al. \(2023\)](#) also run the survey on 3,000 Europeans (representative of France, Germany, Spain and the UK) and find that 76% of them support the GCP. Moreover, they report

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results of a survey on 40,680 respondents in 20 countries covering 72% of global CO₂ emissions which finds strong majority support in each country for such a policy.

In this policy brief, we make the case for a Global Climate Plan. We show that it is grounded on solid ethics and economics (Section 2), would operate a global redistribution from rich to poor (Section 3), can be implemented with current technology (Section 4), and is genuinely supported by the population across the World (Section 5). Finally, we expand on the above description and formulate a well-specified plan (Section 6).

2 Principles

The Global Climate Plan would help achieving the internationally agreed agenda for a prosperous future. While the Paris agreement sets an unanimous climate objective, it does not establish binding rules, and current policies place the world on track to a temperature rise of 2.7°C in 2100 ([Climate Action Tracker 2022](#)). Likewise, the Sustainable Development Goals set different targets for 2030, the first one being to eradicate extreme poverty defined as living on less than \$1.90 a day (in 2011 PPP). We are not on track to achieve this target, as 8% of the world population still live in extreme poverty ([UN 2022](#)). Meanwhile, the nominal GDP per capita (in 2021) is **62 times larger** in high-income countries (home to 1.2 billion people) than in low-income countries (700 million), meaning that a transfer of just 1% of high-income countries' GDP would mechanically double low-income countries' national income.

By design, the Global Climate Plan (GCP) would stop global warming at a reasonable level, eradicate extreme poverty, and make a dent on global inequalities. It builds on the cap-and-share proposals by [Grubb \(1990\)](#); [Feasta \(2008\)](#) and relies on four principles:

1. A cap on emissions to meet the climate target. The [IPCC \(2021\)](#) provides the carbon budget that remains to limit global warming to “well below 2°C”. Defining a global emissions trajectory and imposing a yearly quota on global CO₂ emissions would ensure that they decrease in line with the target. Emissions permits corresponding to the quota would then be auctioned “upstream” to industrial units that emit CO₂ or sell fossil fuels (like refineries, coal mines, or cement plants). In short, an Emissions Trading System (ETS) would be established to control CO₂ emissions at the global level. Implemented in various countries including the European Union, China, and South Korea, and being under consideration in others like India, Brazil or Nigeria, ETSs already cover 17% of global GHG emissions. They can be successfully linked to one another, as California and Québec showed ([ICAP 2023](#)).

2. Defending the interests of people rather than nations. Although global carbon pricing has long been discussed, it has stumbled upon the allocation of emissions entitlements between countries. For example, the U.S. has historically defended the free allocation of emissions permits to emitting sources while India has insisted on the historical responsibility of industrialized countries to defend a redistributive solution ([Bertram 1992](#);

Michaelowa et al. 2012). An approach centered on individuals rather than countries helps escaping this impasse. Indeed, as shown in Section 5, there is a worldwide consensus in favor of an equal right to emit for each human. Compared to other approaches, the egalitarian allocation has the merit of simplicity and provides a clear focal point. What is more, the individual approach can also be applied to address historical responsibilities, by redistributing individual wealth rather than attributing climate debts to industrialized countries. In a [separate policy brief](#), we propose a global wealth tax that would finance low-income countries as well as carbon removal. Indeed, the best available approximation of the historical emissions of someone is arguably their wealth or, if the person died, the wealth of their descendants. Besides, ability to pay of individuals may be better suited than past emissions of countries to define fair shares of the decarbonization burden.

The GCP is a good complement (rather than a substitute) to other climate or redistributive policies (Stiglitz 2019). In particular, the GCP's negative effect on the purchasing power of an average emitter of a high-income country can be offset by national redistribution, through increased income taxes on the top 5%. Furthermore, some decarbonization costs can be mutualized, e.g. through public investments in public transportation and subsidies to thermal insulation, to reduce the discrepancy in private costs between people with similar income but different carbon footprint. The GCP actually encourages complementary decarbonization policies, as countries decarbonizing faster will contribute less to the GCP revenues than countries entirely relying on the price mechanism.

3. A global basic income that eradicates extreme poverty. The GCP revenues would be used to finance a global basic income. At their peak, assuming a carbon price of \$150/tCO₂ in 2030, the GCP revenues are estimated to amount to 2% of the world GDP. The GCP would entail 0.6% of the world GDP in net international transfers – the major part being disbursed in the country it is collected (see Section 3). Using a scenario limiting global warming to 1.8°C, we estimate that the basic income would amount to \$47 per month for each human above 15 in 2030, enough to lift out of extreme poverty the 700 million people who live with less than \$2.15 a day. Conversely, high emitters like a typical British person (with median British CO₂ emissions) would lose in net \$23 per month, as they would face \$70 per month in price increases. Although the GCP revenues will fall when decarbonization nears completion (around the 2060s), the global basic income should be sustained using new sources of funding (e.g. a global corporate tax).

Although distributing a basic income to every human is technically challenging, different options are available, reviewed in Section 4.

4. A climate club to foster global cooperation. Building on insights from game theory (MacKay et al. 2015; Nordhaus 2015), the GCP should be launched by a club of willing countries, with a carbon tariff and possibly sanctions on non-participating countries, to foster compliance by most countries. The GCP would be implemented as soon as 60% of global CO₂ emissions are covered by the parties. This threshold can be met by the union of China (30% of global emissions), the U.S. (15%), India (7%), the EU and the UK (9%);

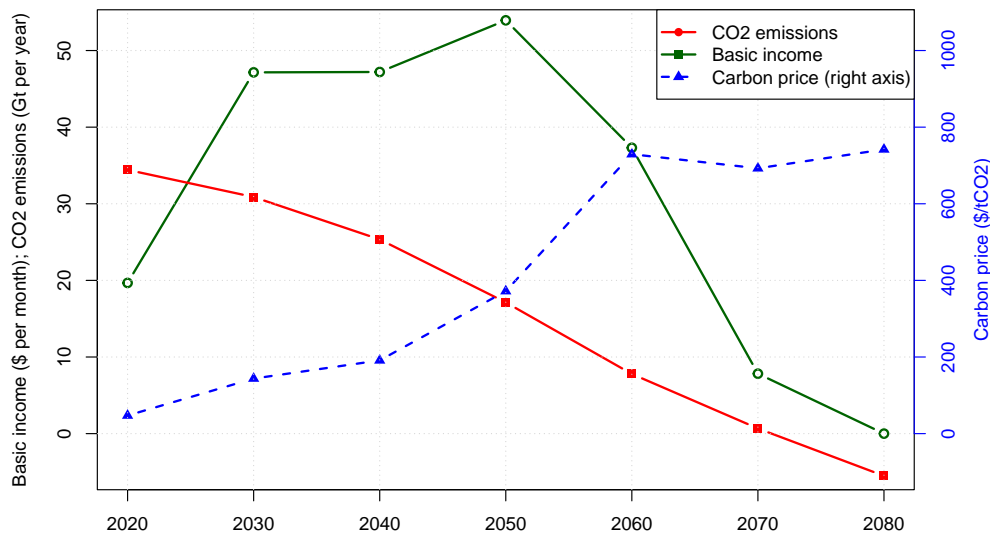
or, if the U.S. do not participate,¹ by the EU, the countries that would gain from the GCP (23%, including India), and those that would neither gain nor lose (35%, including China).

3 Distributive effects

The GCP would redistribute income from high-emitters (people with a carbon footprint higher than the world average) to low-emitters. Indeed, polluting firms would pass on the carbon price to consumers, who will ultimately pay higher costs in proportion to their carbon footprint. The basic income amounts to the global average revenues per capita and would thus equal the carbon price times the global average carbon footprint.

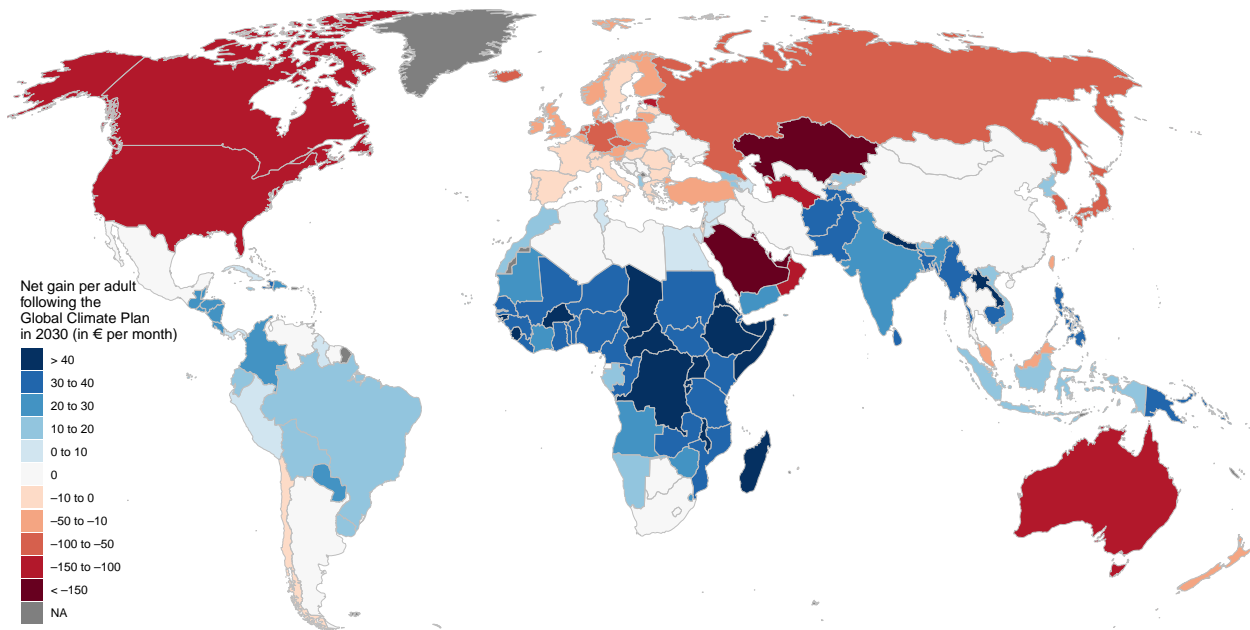
Currently, countries' footprints are strongly correlated (at .69) with their GDP per capita. But certain countries, like China, Iraq, or South Africa, have a carbon footprint higher than predicted by their GDP per capita. Section 6 describes an opt-out provision allowing these countries to participate in the carbon pricing without mutualizing the revenues. In addition, it might be the case that around 2050, countries like the EU will reach very low carbon footprint, perhaps lower than some developing countries like India. EU's footprint is currently 4 times higher than India's, so it would take time before a reversal can happen between the two. Still, Section 6 proposes a solution to prevent the GCP from redistributing from lower income to higher income countries.

Figure 1: Estimated trajectories of emissions, carbon price and (adjusted) basic income.



¹Note that some U.S. States could still participate even if the federal level does not.

Figure 2: Net gains in 2030 from the Global Climate Plan with full participation.



How we compute the distributive effects To specify the GCP, we use the Efficiency scenario of the Global Energy Assessment (GEA) by [Johansson et al. \(2012\)](#), which gives a global CO₂ emissions trajectory consistent with limiting the global average temperature increase to 2°C with a probability of at least 50%. We use the price trajectory of scenario SSP2-2.6 ([Fricko et al. 2017](#)) compatible with this emissions trajectory. The product of these two series provides an estimate of the revenues expected from a global carbon price. We then divide it by projections (computed from the total population of the GEA and the UN median demographic scenario) of population over 15 years of age (*adults*, for short) to derive the unadjusted basic income.

GEA provides emissions and GDP trajectories for 11 macro-regions. To estimate the increase in fossil fuel expenditures per adult (or “cost”) and GDP per capita in each country, we make a key assumption concerning their evolution: that they will evolve by the same factor in each country of a same macro-region. To avoid a blatant violation of this assumption in the case of Botswana, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, Namibia, and South Africa (whose GDP per capita was supposed to grow from 30% to 200% of the world average in 50 years), we attached them to the Middle-East–North Africa region (which is closer in terms of income and emissions).

Then, we adjust the basic income to account for the participation mechanisms described in Section 6, in particular the optimal use of the mutualization opt-outs. Finally, the net gain is given by the basic income minus the cost.

We have checked that the emissions per capita given by our method are broadly in line with alternative methods, even if it tends to overestimate net costs in countries which will grow less than its macro-region (like South Korea) and to underestimate costs in countries with large imports of embodied emissions (like the EU). We plan to refine our estimates in the near future. For details, see [Fabre et al. \(2023\)](#) and the code on [github](#).

4 Implementation

On top of the geopolitical challenge, the GCP would face two technical challenges.

First, carbon emissions must be monitored, reported and verified, at least for large industrial units such as coal mines or oil refineries. This might prove difficult in countries lacking a well-functioning administration. Yet, this challenge is not specific to the GCP as controlling emissions is a necessary element of any successful climate policy. Actually, the control of emissions is likely to be facilitated by the GCP compared to alternative climate policies, given that the GCP would provide resources to low-income countries (which they can use to expand their administration) and make countries work together (so that experienced countries would assist the others).

Second, the basic income must be accessible to all and fraud-resistant (so that no one receives the basic income twice). It is difficult to reach people who do not have a civil status or who live in remote areas. Likewise, it is difficult to verify people's identity and to be confident that they are not registered multiple times. However, there are good reasons to be confident that the required infrastructure to deliver a basic income can be deployed within ten years, as different technical solutions are available. First, most countries maintain electoral lists and already have social programs targeted to isolated people. Second, smartphones now provide biometric identification as well as a costless means of transaction (and the cost of a smartphone would be covered by just a few months of basic income). Third, while many places are still lacking internet access, progress is rapid in satellite internet access, and it might soon become cheap and ubiquitous (Hanson 2016). Fourth, experience can be gained from the Aadhaar system, launched in 2009, which now provides to 99% of the Indian adult population a unique biometric identifier. Aadhaar is linked to one's bank accounts and used to distribute welfare benefits. Although the technical challenge remains, it seems solvable by an appropriate combination of these solutions, tailored to the specific needs of each region.

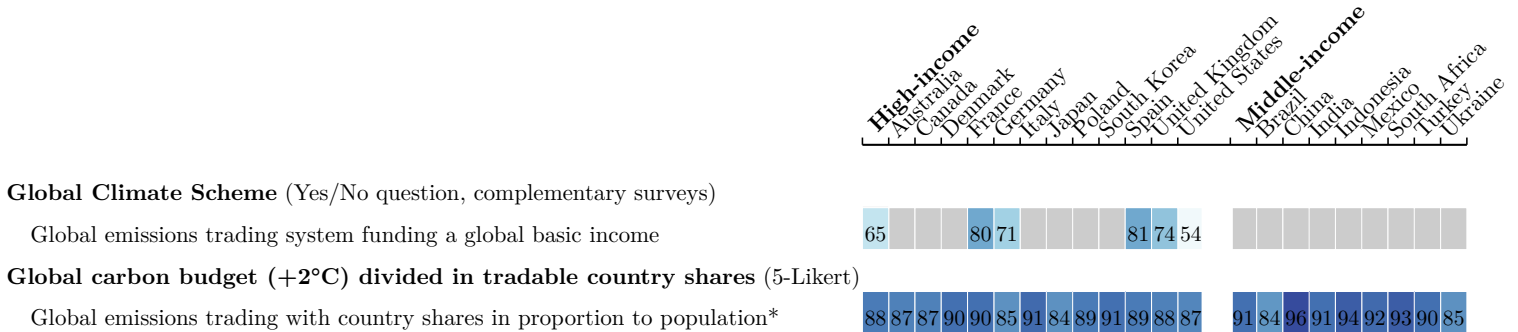
5 Support

Using representative surveys in 20 countries covering 72% of global CO₂ emissions, Fabre et al. (2023) find widespread support for the GCP in each country.

70% (in the U.S.) to 94% (in Japan) choose the global level as an appropriate scale at which to enact climate policies. Meanwhile, the European level is chosen by less than half of the European respondents while the federal level is chosen by only 52% of U.S. respondents; national or local levels are chosen by even fewer people. It is therefore not surprising that 50% (in Japan) to 78% (in China and India) support the principle of a global emissions trading system. Interestingly, with at least 84% support in every country, there is a global consensus for a global ETS that allocates emissions permits in proportion to the population of countries, consistent with an equal right to emit for each human. This solution is preferred in every country to alternative allocations, such as more rights to emit for countries that emitted less in the past (*historical responsibilities*, the second-most

preferred option overall), or for countries that currently emit more (*grandfathering*, the least preferred option everywhere).

Figure 3: Support for the Global Climate Plan around the World (in percent).



To assess the robustness of the public support found in the 20 countries, [Fabre et al. \(2023\)](#) run complementary surveys on 3,000 U.S. respondents and 3,000 European ones (in France, Germany, Spain, and the UK). They describe the GCP as in Section 1, detailing the negative effects on the respondents’ purchasing power. Despite its costs being made salient, the GCP still obtains majority support of 54% in the U.S. and 76% in Europe. Using a technique called list experiment, they further show that the support is genuine and not driven by a potential social desirability bias. Actually, a majority of people in each country is willing to sign a petition in favor of the GCP, knowing that the share of respondents willing to sign will be transmitted to the head of State’s office.

The most compelling evidence showing that the support for the GCP is profound, is that a progressive candidate may win voting shares by endorsing it. [Fabre et al. \(2023\)](#) show this using different questions. First, they present a progressive and a conservative platform, frame the choice as the next election, and ask respondents which candidate they would vote for. Adding the GCP to the progressive platform for a random half of the sample, they show that, in France, the progressive candidate would win 11 points by endorsing the GCP. In the U.S., the progressive candidate could win 3 points (the p -value is .13) while in the other countries, the effect is not significantly different from zero (even at the 20% threshold). Second, they draw two political platforms at random from a pool of (rather progressive) policies, and then add the GCP to one of the platform. In Europe, respondents are prompted to imagine that a left- or center-left coalition will win the next election and are asked what platform they would prefer that coalition to have campaigned on. In the U.S., the question is framed as a hypothetical duel in a Democratic primary, and asked only to non-Republicans. The platform containing the GCP is preferred by a majority (from 58% in the U.S. and the UK to 64% in Spain). Finally, using a question asking respondents to allocate 100 points to express their support to different policies, [Fabre et al. \(2023\)](#) show that the GCP is more prioritized than the average policy and is among the most preferred climate policies, while a policy enacted in the EU and California (the phase out of new combustion-engine cars) is one of the three least prioritized policies in each country.

6 Details of the plan

Some points remain to fully specify the GCP: its timeline, scope, framework, governance, market design, and participation mechanisms.

Timeline The GCP can be put at the agenda in the UNFCCC and the G20, aiming at a gradual phase-in between 2030 and 2035. During the negotiation and preparatory phase (before 2030), it is crucial to ask people around the world whether they would like to receive a basic income and survey their potential concerns. Indeed, each community should have the right to opt out of the basic income (or receive it in a different form, for example as a transfer to the community as a whole rather than to individuals), to avoid disrupting social structures. Furthermore, the basic income should begin with very low amounts to make sure that its delivery runs smoothly. Indeed, the redistribution operated by the basic income would lead to an increased demand for (and a higher price of) basic commodities. Despite the inflation, the basic income would increase low-income people's purchasing power, but it is important to leave no one behind and make sure that everyone who wants the basic income receives it.

Scope The GCP would regulate exclusively CO₂ emissions. Although similar policies can be designed to regulate other substances, it is more suited to treat the CO₂ separately to better handle its specificities. Ideally, the GCP would cover all CO₂ emissions, though it may be more practical to initially limit it to CO₂ from fossil fuels and cement production in large industrial units (i.e. the same scope than the EU ETS and ETS2 combined). The GCP should also cover CO₂ emissions from international shipping and aviation.

Framework The international treaty instituting the GCP should specify some non-modifiable elements, including its scope, the use of its revenues, its rules of governance, and the carbon budget. The carbon budget should be defined by an interpretation of the Paris agreement's objective of "Holding the increase in the global average temperature to well below 2 °C above pre-industrial levels and to pursue efforts to limit the temperature increase to 1.5 °C above pre-industrial levels". A possible interpretation is that we aim for a long-term temperature of +1.5°C but allow an overshoot up to +2°C. This would define a carbon budget of 500 GtCO₂ starting in 2020 (IPCC 2021), translating into the GCP's carbon budget by subtracting emissions occurring between 2020 and the launch of the GCP. The full trajectory, including the negative emissions allowed,² could then be chosen in accordance with the maximum overshoot target and up-to-date understanding of the climate system. A more flexible interpretation might be used if we consider a stricter target unattainable (given the current emissions of 41 GtCO₂ per year). Alternative interpretations could be limiting global warming to +2°C with 83% probability (entailing a budget of 900 GtCO₂ from 2020) or with 67% probability (1150 GtCO₂).

²Carbon (positive) emissions could exceed the carbon budget by the amount of negative emissions allowed, as the negative emissions would eventually absorb the excess CO₂.

If some countries do not participate in the GCP, the GCP's carbon budget would be adjusted downward on the basis of an equal right to emit for each human adult (consistent with leaving the same rights to emit to non-participating countries).

Governance The governing body of the GCP would define the yearly emissions quota (in line with the GCP framework), the market design, and possible sanctions against non-participating countries. The choice of sanctions would be the most political decision of the body. It would mostly affect powerful countries, as they are the main geopolitical actors, therefore those that the sanctioned countries might target in possible retaliations. Moreover, the ETS would directly affect participating countries according to their emissions. It thus seems legitimate to grant each country a voting right proportional to its carbon emissions, at least for decisions pertaining to the ETS or sanctions. For decisions relative to the basic income, each country would have a voting right proportional to its adult population.

When the body has to choose between several options, it should use approval voting, and when these options are numeric, use the median preferred value. Finally, each country should be allowed to have multiple representatives, to choose how its representatives are appointed (possibly through elections) and how the country's voting rights are split among these representatives.

Market design The compliance period to surrender emissions permits should be one calendar year, and the quota should be adjusted each year. Carbon offsets should not be allowed as a substitute to surrender emissions permits. Borrowing and banking emissions permits should be limited in time and quantity to avoid speculation.

Participation mechanisms The basic participation mechanism, which would also prevent carbon leakage,³ is carbon tariff: products imported into the club would be priced in proportion to their carbon content (or according to a reference value corresponding to the worst possible case, if these emissions cannot be measured). The most logical approach would probably be to cover the emissions of imported products in the ETS by obliging importers to buy emissions permits.⁴ In this way, the club's carbon budget would apply to its carbon footprint rather than its territorial emissions. Should this solution prove too far removed from customs practices, the alternative would be to impose a customs duty on imported products. The customs duty applied to these imports would be at least equal to the market price. The governing body could decide to apply a higher price, on two grounds. Firstly, in the case where the club is a net importer of carbon content, the carbon price would be higher if net imports were included in the ETS than if they were subject to a customs duty equal to the ETS price. The customs duty would have to be

³The movement of emissions from a country where legislation is becoming restrictive to one where it is less so, is called "carbon leakage."

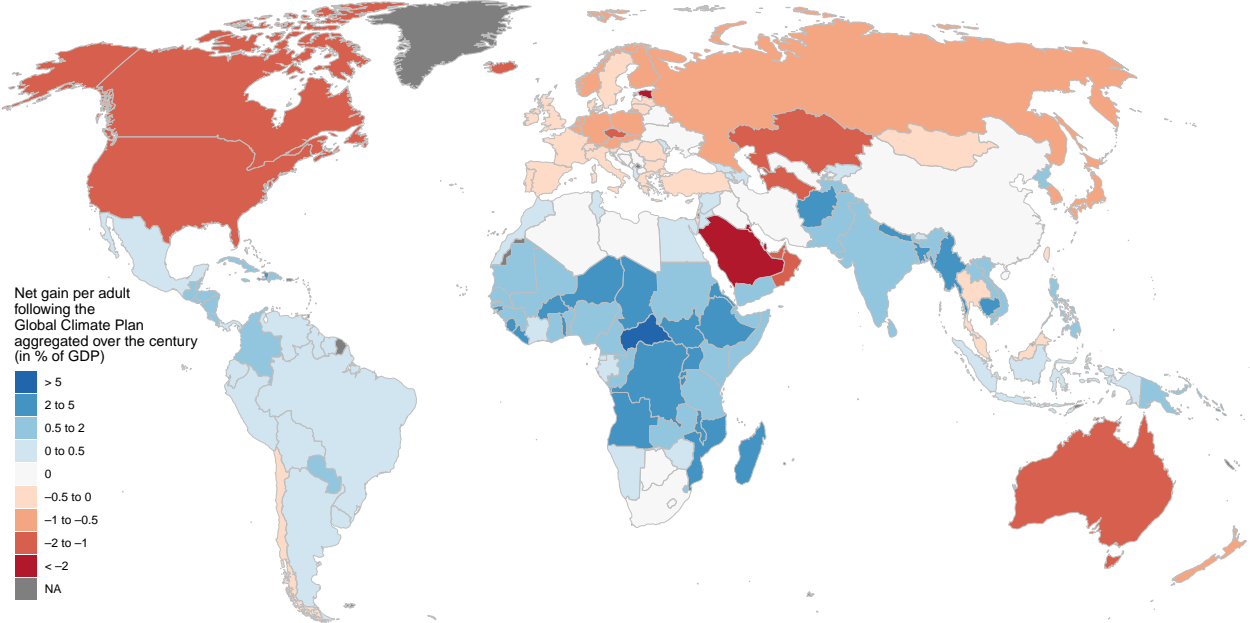
⁴In this case, a carbon price rebate for exports would ensure that the club's emissions are not restricted to less than an equal number of permits for each human.

equal to this higher level to better respect the carbon budget. Consequently, the carbon tariff could be set at (the estimated value) of this *counterfactual price*, in order to internalize the price that participating entities would have to pay for these imported goods, were the carbon budget better respected. Secondly, the governing body could decide to apply sanctions in the form of a tariff higher than the counterfactual price, to encourage third countries to join the club.

In some federal countries like the U.S., some States may be willing to join the GCP while the federal level would not. The GCP would add provisions to help such States to join it. In particular, participating subnational entities would be allowed to opt out from levying a carbon tariff, and they may choose to use their allocated revenues differently than by delivering a basic income. In this way, a State like California could use GCP revenues to subsidize manufacturing firms, perpetuating its way of recycling ETS revenues and preventing carbon leakage while being part of a national customs union.

Although high-income countries have the ability and the duty to help low-income countries decarbonizing and alleviating global poverty, this responsibility does not seem to apply to countries around the world average income per capita (*intermediary countries* for short). Yet, some intermediary countries like China have a higher-than-average carbon footprint. To encourage such countries to participate in the GCP, we could allow them to opt out from the mutualization of revenues and the basic income, under certain conditions. To be authorized to fully opt-out and retain the auction revenues collected on its territory, a country should have a GNI per capita below 1.5 times the world average

Figure 4: Net Present Value of the Global Climate Plan by country.



Note: The Net Present Value is computed with a 4% discount rate over the period 2020 – 2100.

(in nominal terms).⁵ Countries richer than this threshold would be eligible to a partial opt-out, to the extent that their GNI p.c. is below twice the world average. For example, a country with a GNI p.c. 70% above the average would have to mutualize 40% of the revenues from its territorial emissions, but could retain 60% of these revenues, in which case it would receive only 40% of the basic income. Mutualization opt-outs would reduce the basic income from \$56 to \$47 per month in 2030 in countries that do not opt out. A potential concern with this participation mechanism is that it would give too large an advantage to large exporters, i.e. opting-out countries with territorial emissions substantially larger than their carbon footprint. Indeed, these countries would retain revenues corresponding to their net exports of carbon emissions, making the basic income lower than the average increase in individual expenditures (for countries that do not opt out). However, note that the carbon border adjustment enacted by the EU gives the exact same advantage to foreign exporter countries with an internal carbon price equal to the EU-ETS price: imports from these countries would be exempted from the carbon border adjustment, and these countries would benefit from carbon price revenues eventually paid by European consumers. Still, we can limit the opt-out advantage, for example by establishing a limit on the revenues that can be retained, e.g. at 50% above the average global revenues per adult. Besides, the advantage to opt-out could be granted in exchange for some condition, such as the participation to a global wealth tax with a share of the revenues pooled to finance low-income countries.

Conversely, some high-income countries might have a lower-than-average carbon footprint in the future, especially in 1.5°C-trajectories (this would occur around 2050 in the SSP1-1.9 scenario of [van Vuuren et al. 2017](#)). To prevent the GCP from entailing transfers from lower-income to higher-income countries, a provision could specify that high-income countries cannot receive the basic income if their emissions per adult are lower than the global average. To avoid threshold effects, the basic income received by a country with a GNI p.c. above 2 times the world average (\bar{y}) and territorial emissions p.c. below 1.3 times the average of (non opting-out) participating countries (\bar{e}) could be a function of these two variables, defined in such a way that a carbon-neutral country 2.2 times above the GNI p.c. average would no longer received the basic income. Denoting y a country's GNI p.c., e its emissions p.c., and B the unadjusted basic income (i.e. total revenues divided by population of participating countries), if $2\bar{y} \leq y \leq 2.2\bar{y}$ and $e \leq 1.3\bar{e}$, the basic income for that country would be $\left(\frac{2.2\bar{y}-y}{0.2\bar{y}} + \frac{e}{1.3\bar{e}} \frac{y-2\bar{y}}{0.2\bar{y}}\right) B$. The basic income (in countries not concerned by this provision) is then adjusted upwards using the freed revenues.

Sanctions Countries that do not correctly apply carbon pricing or basic income schemes on their territory could be excluded from the club by a vote of the governing body. Besides, if the governance body deems it appropriate to encourage participation, it could vote sanctions against non-participating countries, such as tariffs (beyond the carbon tariff), assets forfeiture, or travel restrictions (especially targeting elites).

⁵Currently, the world average is at \$13,200 per year while China is at 11,900 and Russia at 11,600.

Negotiations We tried to be as specific as possible to anchor discussions on a concrete plan that we deem fair. Still, some elements of the GCP can be modified without fundamentally altering it, such as the opt-out threshold or using a tax rather than an ETS. It is now up to the public and policy makers to take up this proposal and negotiate it.

We are here to feed the public debate on global redistribution. We welcome counter-proposals, criticisms and suggestions concerning our policy brief (including pull requests). Feel free to engage the discussion on [github](#).

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