



THE PRESIDENT  
OF THE  
GENERAL ASSEMBLY

26 January 2006

Excellency,

In my letter of 3 November, I noted that paragraph 169 of the Outcome Document mandated us to look at the institutional framework for the UN's environment work, and signalled my intention to set up informal consultations in this regard early in 2006. In my letter of 22 December, I advised that I had asked the Secretariat to produce a factual background paper to help inform the forthcoming consultations.

As promised in December, I am writing again now to inform you that I have asked Ambassador Enrique Berruga of Mexico and Ambassador Peter Maurer of Switzerland to co-chair the proposed informal consultations.

I am pleased to advise that Ambassadors Berruga and Maurer have kindly agreed to accept this responsibility. I have asked them to be in contact with delegations with a view to preparing a basis of the work for the informal consultations. I know that they will be grateful to receive any advice, ideas or inputs you might have as they prepare the road ahead.

I am also attaching to this letter the factual background paper which the Secretariat has now produced.

Please accept, Excellency, the assurances of my highest consideration.

Jan Eliasson

All Permanent Representatives and  
Permanent Observers to the United Nations  
New York

# **The institutional framework for the United Nations system's environmental activities**

## Background note

### **Introduction**

World leaders at the 2005 Summit recognized the need for more efficient environmental activities in the UN system, with enhanced coordination and improved normative and operational capacity, and agreed “to explore the possibility of a more coherent institutional framework to address this need, including a more integrated structure, building on existing institutions and internationally agreed instruments, as well as the treaty bodies and specialized agencies”.<sup>1</sup>

In terms of the normative work of the UN system, policy advice and guidance, strengthened scientific knowledge, assessment and cooperation were identified as areas which could be further improved. At the operational level, the need was identified for better integration of environmental activities in the broader sustainable development framework, including through capacity building. It was also recognized by the Summit that better treaty compliance, while respecting the legal autonomy of the relevant treaties, was a central consideration.

The Summit Outcome also stressed, in the section entitled “Sustainable development: managing and protecting our common environment”, that “poverty eradication, changing unsustainable patterns of production and consumption and protecting and managing the natural resource base of economic and social development are overarching objectives of and essential requirements for sustainable development”.<sup>2</sup> Furthermore, the Outcome enumerates an array of sectoral and cross-sectoral issues, including among others, water resources, desertification, biodiversity, natural disasters, energy, climate, forests, chemicals and hazardous wastes.

At the international/global level these issues are dealt with by a variety of funds, programmes and agencies within the UN system, including through mandates provided to multilateral environmental agreements. However, issues more cross-cutting in nature tend not to have a central institutional location.

Mounting scientific evidence, at both international and regional levels, that the state of the global environment is deteriorating, has resulted in an increase of United Nations system entities that are addressing environment-related issues in their work. While this increase has focused concern on environmental sustainability, it has also presented challenges for coordinated and coherent action. The governing bodies of the various institutions have tended to develop their own norms and standards on specific issues,

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<sup>1</sup> “2005 World Summit Outcome”, General Assembly Resolution 60/1 of 16 September 2005, paragraph 169.

<sup>2</sup> Ibid., paragraph 48.

supporting legal instruments that have relevance to their mandates, but not necessarily developing a coordinated approach to the application of such instruments or possible inter-linkages.

In terms of proposals to improve coherence in addressing these issues, a wide variety of literature exists, both from academic institutions and as a result of the recent inter-governmental process on international environmental governance, undertaken under the auspices of the Governing Council of the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP). Proposals have also been generated by a number of other informal processes, involving Member States and academic institutions, launched, notably by Finland, France, Germany and Sweden.

This background note aims to present a brief overview of the current institutional framework, within which the United Nations system's environmental activities are carried out.

### **Environmental and institutional challenges and responses to them**

The numerous challenges that the world faces in the environmental sphere are well known. The recently released Millennium Ecosystem Assessment offers further sobering statistics, including, among others, estimates that 12% of bird species, 25% of mammals, 23% of conifers and 32% of amphibians are currently threatened by extinction. Dependency of coastal cities on fisheries as primary food source is endangered by harvesting 72% of the world's marine stocks faster than they can reproduce, while at least 25% of marine fish stocks are over-harvested. 24% of coral reefs are under imminent risk of collapse, while a further 26% are severely threatened.

Statistics on the lack of adequate water and sanitation have been often quoted in the recent past, as have its adverse effects on the health of especially the poor and vulnerable. This situation is compounded by a loss of 50% of the world's wetlands and continued unsustainable losses through inefficient and unsustainable irrigation practices. Water withdrawals from rivers and lakes for irrigation or urban and industrial use have doubled between 1960 and 2000. Every year an estimated \$42 billion in income and 6 million hectares of productive land are lost to land degradation and declining agricultural productivity. Sea ice in the Arctic Ocean has declined at an average annual rate of 8% and four of the past five years have been the warmest on record. Production patterns have altered to keep up with increasing demand for food and energy, resulting in increased air pollution and waste management challenges.

Bearing in mind the increasingly serious nature of environmental challenges, Environment Ministers, in preparing for the 10 year review of the 1992 Rio Earth Summit (UNCED), decided in 2000 to establish a process to "review the requirements for a greatly strengthened institutional structure for international environmental governance based on an assessment of future needs for an institutional architecture that has the

capacity to effectively address wide-ranging environmental threats in a globalizing world”.<sup>3</sup>

This process was launched under the auspices of the UNEP Governing Council/Global Ministerial Environment Forum (GC/GMEF) and also attracted wide-ranging attention and involvement from academic institutions, NGOs and inter-governmental organizations. It has resulted in a number of recommendations related to the role of the UNEP GC/GMEF in international environmental policy making; strengthening the financial situation of UNEP; improved coordination among and effectiveness of multilateral environmental agreements; capacity building, technology transfer and country-level coordination for the environmental pillar of sustainable development; and enhanced coordination across the UN system, through the use of the Environmental Management Group (EMG). The outcome of the process was endorsed by the World Summit on Sustainable Development in 2002.

A number of other government led initiatives have also been launched, with Germany and Sweden hosting seminars with non- and inter-governmental organizations, and Finland embarking on a sustainable development governance process. In 2003, France established an informal working group of some 26 countries to consider the transformation of UNEP into a UN Environment Organization. A series of meetings have taken place in New York and Nairobi to consider strengths and weaknesses of the current system of environmental governance, financing, the needs of developing countries, the role of multilateral environmental agreements, monitoring and early warning systems, communications strategies and institutional arrangements.

A review of these initiatives reveals a number of strengths, weaknesses and further/persistent needs. Among the strengths are the availability of a considerable wealth of data and information on emerging environmental trends, the systematic monitoring and assessment of the state of the global environment and wide ranging reporting thereon. The development of poverty and environment work (such as the UNDP and UNEP Poverty and Environment Partnership) has produced some successes at local community level and increased the realization that sound environmental management has economic importance for poverty reduction. There has also been an increase in private sector involvement in new public private partnerships.

A large body of policy recommendations has been developed, through an increase in multilateral processes involving both governmental and other stakeholders, on a variety of sectoral areas. In addition, many legally binding, as well as non-legally enforceable instruments exist, all of which provide norms, principles, procedures, guidelines and codes of conduct to address environmental issues, ranging from regional seas conventions and protocols to global treaties. In some areas joint programmes of work have been launched by conventions and other stakeholders.

The development of a considerable volume of environmental law over the past two decades has been a major achievement, as has the increase in national legislation and

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<sup>3</sup> Malmo Ministerial Declaration of 2000, UN document A/55/25

corresponding national governance arrangements. The success of the Montreal Protocol, based on a strong normative basis and sound financing mechanism, has been illustrated in its effective implementation. However, many other legal instruments do not have sufficient funding or regulatory frameworks to ensure similar levels of implementation.

In recent years there has also been a focus on the development of new principles, such as the precautionary approach or prior informed consent, that have been integrated into international legal agreements, and a focus on the cross-cutting areas linked with the environment, such as trade and health. Major intergovernmental meetings and summit events have placed increased focus on environmental issues and the general public is becoming more knowledgeable on matters such as climate change, unsustainable consumption patterns and new energy sources.

Linked to strengths have also been evident weaknesses, such as the multitude of rules and reporting requirements that have accompanied the proliferation of multilateral environmental agreements and have placed a particular burden on developing countries that do not have the requisite capacity for compliance to or implementation of these instruments. While the wide range of multilateral environmental agreements has shown that sound environmental management remains a concern, many of these instruments suffer from inadequate funding and there has been a perception that coordination in scientific research and expertise to eliminate overlap and enhance inter-linkages, as well as knowledge sharing, could be improved substantially. Such problems of coherence and sectoral fragmentation have undermined efficiency and the ability to effectively address not only sector-specific issues holistically, but also cross-cutting issues in an interconnected manner and in the context of a global ecosystems approach. Moreover, structures that govern trade and investment flows tend to give precedence to economic considerations and often pay inadequate attention towards assessing environmental and social impacts. Conversely, environmental institutions are sometimes perceived to give low priority to economic and social considerations.

The increase in the number of legal instruments in the environmental field, many of which are semi-independent in nature, has resulted in competition for scarce financial resources. Linked with the corresponding involvement of a growing number of entities within the United Nations system, duplication of environmental activities has also become more evident and has undermined efficiency. Adherence to, and compliance with, legal instruments have become increasingly complicated, with insufficient political commitment and financing on the one hand and on the other the lack of the requisite national capacity, particularly in developing countries, compounding the situation. For many countries it is becoming difficult not only to prepare, participate in and implement international agreements, but also to adequately develop corresponding policies and coordinate enforcement thereof at the national level.

Vulnerable countries, such as Small Island Developing States and Least Developed Countries, often feel that their particular needs have been overlooked in search of policy solutions and responses at the international level and that there is insufficient international assistance to enable them to address their challenges. A lack of policy

integration at the national, regional and international levels has become an impediment to effectively addressing not only existing but, especially, emerging issues. Similarly, funding mechanisms for global environmental issues and regional governance structures have become complex and extremely difficult to access for many countries and present challenges to governments in need of the technical capacities required for the implementation of international agreements at national level. Coherent and coordinated capacity development and technical assistance efforts that address needs in a bottom up approach and foster national ownership also appear to remain a challenge for the multilateral system.

### **Current structural and institutional arrangements in the UN system**

The Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) is, according to the Charter, the principal organ entrusted with the coordination of the UN's work in the economic and social field, including development and the environment.

The Commission for Sustainable Development (CSD) was established in December 1992 in follow up to the UN Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED). It is a subsidiary body of ECOSOC and has as main tasks the follow up to the outcomes of the UNCED (Agenda 21) and the 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development (Johannesburg Plan of Implementation), at the local, national, regional and international levels. Since 2003 the CSD adopted a new programme and organization of work through which it follows a series of two-year action-oriented implementation cycles, which include respectively a review and policy session. In these cycles, progress in implementation for a selected cluster of thematic issues, as well as cross sectoral issues, are reviewed in the first year, based on which the second year involves policy decisions on practical measures and options to expedite implementation on the relevant cluster. These thematic clusters are addressed in an integrated approach, taking into account the three dimensions of sustainable development.

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) is the principal global development network of the United Nations. UNDP concentrates its efforts towards achieving the Millennium Development Goals, including the overarching goal of cutting poverty in half by 2015. Its network links and coordinates global and national efforts to reach these Goals, with a focus on Democratic Governance, Poverty Reduction, Energy and Environment, Crisis Prevention and Recovery, and HIV/AIDS. The focus of UNDP's work in environment is to support the integration of environmental concerns into the broader development agenda at the country level in order to ensure more sustainable development and poverty reduction outcomes as well as helping countries meet commitments under multilateral environmental agreements. UNDP has six priority areas in this regard, including Frameworks and strategies for sustainable development; Effective water governance; Access to sustainable energy services; Sustainable land management to combat desertification and land degradation; Conservation and sustainable use of biodiversity; and National/sectoral policy and planning to control emissions of Ozone Depleting Substances and Persistent Organic Pollutants. For

environment and energy as a whole, UNDP manages a total portfolio of about \$7 billion across the 166 countries where UNDP is present.

The United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) was founded by the General Assembly in 1972, with the function and responsibility to keep under review the state of the global environment and the impact of national and international environmental policies and measures. It is also tasked to assist developing countries to implement environmental policies, projects and programmes and to ensure that such projects and programmes are compatible with the development plans and priorities of developing countries. Agenda 21 affirmed UNEP as the principal body within the UN system in the field of the environment and requested it to focus on the provision of technical, legal and institutional advice to governments, enhancing such national frameworks as part of capacity building efforts, and to integrate environmental aspects into development policies and programmes. In 1997 the General Assembly reconfirmed UNEP as the principal United Nations body in the field of the environment, calling for it to be the leading global environmental authority that sets the global environmental agenda, promotes the coherent implementation of the environmental dimension of sustainable development and serves as an authoritative advocate for the global environment. The Assembly also in 1998 established a Global Ministerial Environment Forum (GMEF), which meets annually on the occasion of the UNEP Governing Council meeting, and has as functions the consideration of emerging environmental issues, promotion of interaction with multilateral financial institutions and international cooperation and the provision of policy guidance and advice on environmental trends and cross-cutting issues.

Aside from those mentioned above, a host of other UN entities and specialized agencies develop and implement programmes related to the environment in accordance with their mandates. Among these are the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) (agriculture, forestry, fisheries, soil management, plant protection); the World Health Organization (WHO) (health and the environment); the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (environmental education, scientific activities, e.g. on oceans and solar energy), the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) (atmosphere and climate, including the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC)); the International Labour Organization (ILO) (working environment and occupational safety); the International Maritime Organization (IMO) (marine pollution, dumping at sea and safety in maritime transport of dangerous goods) and the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) (environmental aspects of civil aviation). The International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) is responsible for matters related to nuclear materials, including nuclear safety and radioactive wastes.

FAO, ILO, IMO and IAEA have been actively promoting the development of conventions and protocols related to the environment within their areas of competence. The United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) examines linkages among trade, investment, technology, finance and sustainable development, and, in cooperation with the World Trade Organization (WTO) and UNEP, supports efforts to

promote the integration of trade, environment and development. The World Bank includes in its thematic portfolio Environment and Natural Resources Management sectors such as biodiversity, climate change, environmental policies and institutions, land management, pollution management and environmental health and water resources management.

Many of the large number of multilateral environmental agreements, although developed within the UN system, are autonomous legal instruments, with their own conferences of parties and secretariats supported by the United Nations and UNEP. Among these are the three “Rio” conventions: (a) the 1992 Framework Convention on Climate Change (FCCC), which sets an overall framework for intergovernmental efforts to tackle the challenges posed by climate change, recognizing that the climate system is a shared resource whose stability can be affected by industrial and other emissions of carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases; (b) the 1994 Convention to Combat Desertification, which focuses on the problem of land degradation in arid, semi-arid and dry sub-humid areas, with a particular emphasis on Africa; (c) the 1992 Convention on Biological Diversity, which covers all ecosystems, species and genetic resources, links traditional conservation efforts to the economic goal of using biological resources in a sustainable manner, and sets principles for the fair and equitable sharing of the benefits arising from the use of genetic resources.

Among those conventions directly administered by UNEP, are: (a) the Convention on Biological Diversity (listed above); (b) the 1989 Basel Convention, which has as central goals the environmentally sound management of hazardous wastes in terms of its storage, transport, treatment, reuse, recycling, recovery and final disposal, as well as the protection of human health and the environment by minimizing hazardous waste production whenever possible; (c) the 1973 Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora, which aims at ensuring that international trade in specimens of wild animals and plants does not threaten their survival; (d) the 1985 Vienna Convention for the Protection of the Ozone Layer and its Montreal Protocol, tasked with protecting human health against adverse effects resulting from modifications of the ozone layer and phasing out of chemicals processes and substances responsible for its depletion; as well as a number of regional seas conventions.

Others, such as the 1971 Ramsar Convention on Wetlands, an intergovernmental treaty which provides the framework for national action and international cooperation for the conservation and wise use of wetlands and their resources, are independent in nature. Some of those dealing with specific areas such mountain regions, etc also fall in this category.

A table listing the core environmental conventions and related agreements is attached (see Annex).



## **Coordinating mechanisms**

The current inter-agency coordinating mechanisms that are most relevant to environmental coordination include the High Level Committee on Programmes (HLCP) of the Chief Executives Board for Coordination (CEB), the United Nations Development Group (UNDG and the Environment Management Group (EMG).

The UNDG was created in 1997 to improve the effectiveness of UN development activities at the country level. It encompasses the operational agencies working on development, is chaired by the Administrator of the UNDP and has an Executive Committee consisting of UNICEF, UNFPA, WFP and UNDP. The UNDG develops policies and procedures that allow member agencies to work together and analyze country issues, plan support strategies, implement support programmes, monitor results and advocate for change. Membership includes UNDP, UNICEF, UNFPA, WFP, UNHCR, UNIFEM, UNOPS, UNAIDS, UN-HABITAT, UNODC, WHO, UN-DESA, IFAD, UNCTAD, UNESCO, FAO, UNIDO, ILO, UN-DPI, OHRLLS, UNEP, UNHCR, the World Bank and UNFIP.

The General Assembly established the Environment Management Group (EMG) in resolution 53/242 of 1998, with the purpose of enhancing UN system wide coordination and coherence in the field of the environment and human settlements. The EMG is tasked with facilitating joint action in finding solutions to emerging environmental and human settlements challenges, promoting inter-linkages and contributing towards synergies and complementarities among the activities of its members. Membership is wide ranging, including various multilateral environmental agreements (MEAs) the UN Regional Commissions, FAO, IAEA, ICAO, IFAD, ILO, IMO, ISDR, ITC, OCHA, OHCHR, UNCTAD, UN-DESA, UNDP, UNESCO, UNFPA, UNICEF, UNIDO, UNITAR, UNU, UPU, WFP, WHO, WIPO, WMO, the World Bank, World Trade Organization, World Tourism Organization, UNEP and UN-HABITAT. The EMG is chaired by the Executive Director of UNEP and functions on the basis of time-bound issue management groups, a practice through which a lead agency leads a cluster of members in work on a specific issue area (such as chemicals management, capacity building in biodiversity, sustainable procurement practices, etc).

The UN Chief Executive Board and its High Level Committees have established a number of system wide inter-agency mechanisms to improve coordination, such as the Network on Rural Development, formed in 1997 with the FAO, IFAD and WFP playing a lead role. In follow up to the 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development the High Level Committee on Programmes established a number of inter-agency arrangements to foster cooperation in a number of issue areas, such as oceans and coastal areas, water and energy (UN-Oceans, UN-Water and UN-Energy). These mechanisms are chaired on a rotating basis by a lead agency and share information and experiences in their various programmatic areas of competence.

As part of the Secretary General's reforms in 1997 a number of Executive Committees were established, namely in the areas of Peace and Security, Economic and Social Affairs, Development Operations and Humanitarian Affairs. The Executive

Committees are designed as instruments of policy development, decision-making and management. The heads of UN entities consult with one another on work programmes as well as other matters of collective concern, to identify and exploit ways of sharing resources and services so as to maximize programme impact and minimize administrative costs.

Some other arrangements also exist, such as the liaison group established by the three Rio Conventions (CBD, CCD and UNFCCC) which has functioned for approximately four years.

### **Financing environmental activities**

The Global Environment Facility, established in 1991, is the largest funding mechanism for environmental activities and assists developing countries to fund projects and programmes in the areas of biodiversity, climate change, international waters, land degradation, the ozone layer and persistent organic pollutants. The World Bank, UNDP and UNEP are the implementing agencies of the GEF, although a larger number of executing agencies contribute to the management and execution of GEF Projects. These include IFAD, FAO, UNIDO and the development banks in Africa, Asia, Latin America and Europe.

As the financial mechanism for four international environmental conventions (UNFCCC, CBD, CCD and the Stockholm Convention on Persistent Organic Pollutants), the GEF also helps fund initiatives that assist developing countries in meeting the objectives of the conventions. Any eligible country or group may propose a project, which must meet two key criteria, it must reflect national or regional priorities and have the support of the country or countries involved, and it must improve the global environment or advance the prospect of reducing risks to it. The World Bank has been the largest recipient of GEF grants, with approximately \$3.3 billion, while the UNDP has received \$2.1 billion and UNEP \$469 million (cumulative figures through 31 December 2005, not including co-financing from other sources).

As the principal UN environmental body, UNEP has a 2006-7 biennium budget of \$273 million. Its Environment Fund is the main financial mechanism and contributions are voluntary in nature. The Fund, including a reserve and support costs, amounts to \$130 million for the biennium. Additional contributions are made to the General (\$24 million) and Technical Cooperation (\$42 million) Trust Funds, with donor governments also contributing in kind (\$45 million) to programmatic activities. Approximately \$11 million is derived from the UN regular budget.

The main global multilateral environmental agreements (MEAs) all have budgets that cover core activities and staff costs. A number of the MEAs have funding mechanisms that support their specific areas of competence, aside from the normal operating budgets. One example is the Multilateral Fund of the Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer, which for the period 2006-2008 totals

approximately \$439 million and will be used to promote the transfer of ozone-friendly technologies to developing countries.

Although there has been increasing trends towards direct budget assistance from donor governments, targeted at sector-specific support, such assistance has not always taken into account environmental considerations, and overall financial support for addressing environmental challenges have not increased.

## Annex

<i>Core environmental conventions and related agreements of global significance</i>		
Agreement	Year adopted	Secretariat
<u>Atmosphere conventions</u>		
1. United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC)	1992	United Nations
2. Kyoto Protocol to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change	1997	United Nations
3. Vienna Convention for the Protection of the Ozone Layer	1985	UNEP
4. Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer	1987	UNEP
<u>Biodiversity-related conventions</u>		
5. Convention on Biological Diversity	1992	UNEP
6. Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety to the Convention on Biological Diversity	2001	UNEP
7. Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES)	1973	UNEP
8. Convention on the Conservation of Migratory Species of Wild Animals (CMS)	1979	UNEP
9. Agreement on the Conservation of African-Eurasian Migratory Waterbirds (AEWA)	1995	AEWA
10. Agreement on the Conservation of Bats in Europe (EUROBATS)	1991	EUROBATS
11. Agreement on the Conservation of Cetaceans of the Black Sea, Mediterranean Sea and Contiguous Atlantic Area (ACCOBAMS)		ACCOBAMS
12. Agreement on the Conservation of Seals in the Wadden Sea	1990	Independent
13. Agreement on the Conservation of Small Cetaceans of the Baltic and North Seas (ASCOBANS)	1992	ASCOBANS
14. Convention on Wetlands of International Importance, especially as Waterfowl Habitat	1971	IUCN
15. Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage	1972	UNESCO
16. International Coral Reef Initiative (ICRI)	1995	ICRI
17. Lusaka Agreement on Cooperative Enforcement Operations Directed at Illegal Trade in Wild Fauna and Flora	1994	Kenya Wildlife Society

<u>Chemicals and hazardous wastes conventions</u>		
18. Basel Convention on the Control of Transboundary Movements of Hazardous Wastes and Their Disposal	1989	UNEP
19. Basel Protocol on Liability and Compensation for Damage Resulting from Transboundary Movements of Hazardous Wastes and Their Disposal	1999	UNEP
20. Rotterdam Convention on the Prior Informed Consent Procedure for Certain Hazardous Chemicals and Pesticides in International Trade	1998	UNEP/ FAO
21. Stockholm Convention on Persistent Organic Pollutants	2001	UNEP
<u>Land conventions</u>		
22. United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification in those Countries Experiencing Serious Drought and/or Desertification, Particularly in Africa	1992	United Nations
<u>Regional seas conventions and related agreements</u>		
23. Global Programme of Action for the Protection of the Marine Environment from Land-based Activities	1995	UNEP
24. Convention for the Protection of the Marine Environment and the Coastal Region of the Mediterranean (Barcelona Convention)	1976	UNEP
25. Kuwait Regional Convention for Cooperation on the Protection of the Marine Environment from Pollution	1978	ROPME
26. Convention for Cooperation in the Protection and Development of the Marine and Coastal Environment of the West and Central African Region (Abidjan Convention)	1981	UNEP
27. Convention for the Protection of the Marine Environment and Coastal Area of the South-East Pacific (Lima Convention)	1981	CPPS
28. Regional Convention for the Conservation of the Red Sea and Gulf of Aden Environment (Jeddah Convention)	1982	PERSGA
29. Convention for the Protection and Development of the Marine Environment of the Wider Caribbean Region (Cartagena Convention)	1983	UNEP
30. Convention for the Protection, Management and Development of the Marine and Coastal Environment of the Eastern African Region (Nairobi Convention)	1985	UNEP
31. Convention for the Protection of the Natural Resources and Environment of the South Pacific Region (Noumea Convention)	1986	SPREP
32. Convention on the Protection of the Marine Environment of	1992	HELCOM

the Baltic Sea Area (Helsinki Convention)		
33. Convention on the Protection of the Black Sea from Pollution (Bucharest Convention)	1992	BSEP
34. Convention for the Protection of the Marine Environment of the North-East Atlantic	1992	OSPAR
35. Draft Convention for the Protection and Sustainable Development of the Marine and Coastal Environment of the Central-East Pacific		UNEP
36. Draft Convention for the Protection of the [Marine] [Environment] of the Caspian Sea		
37. East Asian Seas Action Plan	1981	UNEP
38. Programme for the protection of the arctic marine environment	1991	PAME
39. North-West Pacific Action Plan	1994	UNEP
40. South Asian Seas Action Plan	1995	SACEP