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# **Research Report**

Host states' unilateral climate-change sanctions may be justified: But so may be investors' objections

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# **Columbia FDI Perspectives**

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# Host states' unilateral climate-change sanctions may be justified—but so may be investors' objections

by

Tomoko Ishikawa and Alla Olifirenko\*

The current multilateral framework on climate change, centered on the UNFCCC and the Paris Agreement, adopts a territory-based approach. Additionally, as is the case with the current international environmental and human rights law frameworks, it does not provide mechanisms to oblige non-state actors to act. However, the importance of mobilizing MNEs to meet the Paris goals is undeniable. 157 large MNEs reportedly account for more than 60% of global industrial greenhouse gas emissions. Simultaneously, they have a unique potential to contribute to decarbonization through good practices and technologies.

Meanwhile, <u>attention is increasingly being paid</u> to the use of targeted unilateral sanctions, that is, sanctions directed at certain activities of foreign persons and entities contributing to climate change. A recent attempt to operationalize this policy option was the US bill *Targeting Environmental and Climate Recklessness Act*, which was introduced in <u>2019</u> (reintroduced in <u>2021</u> and <u>2024</u>). In 2021, <u>four US Senators called on the Biden Administration</u> to, among others, "apply <u>Global Magnitsky sanctions</u> to ... corporations linked to climate-related corruption and human rights abuses."

In the current US political environment, the chances of success of similar attempts are

slim. Climate-change economic sanctions are extreme climate policies that have not yet been practically implemented. However, the following tendencies in general economic sanctions practice suggest that states may consider targeted climate-change sanctions as one option, in addition to carbon taxes and emission-trading systems:

- The increased use of "smart" sanctions targeting private persons, rather than comprehensive sanctions against states.
- Expanded aims and topics, extending beyond peace and security, to include such values as human rights and environmental protection.
- Secondary sanctions have been widely practiced despite <u>controversies about their</u> extraterritoriality.

Generally speaking, sanction measures consist of various restrictive measures and penalties, including investment prohibitions, asset freezes, cancellations of contracts and permits, expropriations of assets, restrictions on access to financial systems, and limitations on funds transfers.

These measures interfere with the targeted persons' property rights. When sanctions affect the property or interests of targeted foreign entities located within the sanctioning state, issues of consistency with international obligations for investment protection may arise. Insofar as there is an applicable international investment agreement (IIA), the affected investors may challenge the sanctions before investment arbitration tribunals, arguing that they amount to a breach of certain IIA obligations, including:

- National treatment and most-favored-nation treatment.
- Fair-and-equitable treatment and full protection and security.
- Indirect expropriation.
- Free transfer of capital.

It is <u>argued</u>, for example, that a "(lengthy) asset freeze" could establish an indirect expropriation. If a sanctions program lacks an effective review mechanism, it may

constitute a denial of due process that can establish a breach of fair-and-equitable treatment and indirect expropriation obligations. Unilateral economic sanctions have resulted in several investment arbitration cases (e.g., <u>beIN Corporation v. Kingdom of Saudi Arabia</u>). Assessing the consistency between sanctions programs and IIA obligations requires case and IIA-specific analyses, including the applicable <u>standard of review</u> under the relevant IIAs.

Sanctioning states may rely on IIAs' non-precluded measure (NPM) clause (if any), whose function is to exempt host states from their otherwise applicable obligations when certain permissible objectives exist. In the context of climate-change sanctions—and given the growing recognition of climate change as both a <a href="https://human.net.org/human.n

Regarding defenses, the customary international law defense of necessity is difficult to assert for climate-change sanctions. This is because, although climate-change considerations may fall under a wide interpretation of the "essential interest against a grave and imminent peril", proving that unilateral economic sanctions are the "only way for the State to safeguard an essential interest" as per Article 25 of the <a href="ILC Articles on Responsibility">ILC Articles on Responsibility of States for Internationally Wrongful Acts</a> would be extremely challenging.

This underscores the importance of incorporating considerations of IIA-consistency into the design of any sanctions program. It also addresses the likely "green protectionism" concern, which has already been raised over <u>CBAM</u> by some countries, namely that climate-change measures can be used for protectionist purposes amid geo-economic competition over the energy transition. Therefore, a sanctions program should, among others, be based on the non-discrimination principle between domestic and foreign entities, and, if discriminatory elements exist, the sanctioning state must provide clear criteria and reasons for such a differentiation. It should also provide procedural protection (such as prior notice) to allow affected investors to prepare for the impact.

Targeted sanctions may deter free-riders from undermining collective climate action by

addressing certain climate-harming activities conducted in jurisdictions with less stringent climate measures. In this sense, economic sanctions may potentially advance collective international efforts to combat climate change. However, to serve this purpose, sanctions programs should be designed with careful consideration of conformity with investment-protection obligations.

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