
The Climate Injustice Paradox: Why Pakistan Bears the Burden of a Crisis It Didn't Create

Ayesha Malik¹

¹Department of Political Science, University of Science & Technology, Bannu, Pakistan

Abstract

Pakistan, responsible for less than 1% of global greenhouse gas emissions, has emerged as a tragic emblem of climate injustice, enduring catastrophic climate impacts disproportionate to its minimal role in precipitating the crisis. The 2022 super floods—which submerged a third of the country, displaced 33 million people, and inflicted \$30 billion in losses—epitomize this paradox. This article examines how Pakistan's acute vulnerability to climate change, driven by geographic precarity, socioeconomic fragility, and historical inequities, underscores systemic failures in global climate governance. While industrialized nations, historically accountable for the majority of emissions, evade meaningful reparations, Pakistan and other Global South countries face escalating disasters without adequate financial or technological support to adapt or recover. Through a mixed-methods approach combining empirical data, policy analysis, and ethical critique, this study argues that the climate crisis is not merely an environmental issue but a profound moral failure. It highlights the limitations of international mechanisms like the Paris Agreement and the Loss and Damage Fund, which remain underfunded and politically contentious, leaving frontline states like Pakistan to shoulder burdens they did not create. The article further employs a postcolonial lens to interrogate how legacies of resource extraction and uneven development exacerbate climate vulnerability in formerly colonized regions. Ultimately, this research calls for urgent reforms grounded in climate justice: binding emission cuts by high-polluting nations, equitable climate finance, debt relief, and reparations to redress historical responsibility. By centering Pakistan's plight, the article underscores that addressing climate injustice is not only a moral imperative but a prerequisite for global solidarity and sustainable resilience in an increasingly unstable world.

Keywords: Climate injustice, Pakistan, greenhouse gas emissions, loss and damage, climate reparations, Global South, climate governance.

1. Introduction

In the summer of 2022, Pakistan experienced a climate catastrophe of almost unimaginable scale (Akhtar, 2024). Torrential monsoon rains—swelled by melting glaciers in a rapidly warming Himalayas—submerged a third of the country under water, displacing 33 million people, destroying 2 million homes, and wiping out crops critical to the nation’s food security (Khalid et al., 2024). Streets became rivers, villages turned into islands, and families clung to rooftops for days, waiting for aid that arrived too little, too late. The floods, described by the United Nations as a “monsoon on steroids,” inflicted \$30 billion in economic losses, yet Pakistan’s contribution to the planetary crisis that fueled this disaster amounts to less than 1% of global greenhouse gas emissions (Wibisono et al., 2023). This dissonance—between culpability and suffering—lies at the heart of one of the defining moral dilemmas of our time: climate injustice.

Pakistan’s plight is not an anomaly but a stark illustration of a global paradox. While the climate crisis is often framed as a collective challenge, its burdens fall disproportionately on nations least responsible for its causes (Belsito, 2021). Countries like Pakistan, ranked among the top 10 most climate-vulnerable states globally, face existential threats from rising temperatures, erratic weather, and ecological collapse, despite contributing negligibly to historic emissions (Khan & Zahidi, 2024). Meanwhile, industrialized nations, responsible for over 90% of excess carbon dioxide emissions since the 1850s, continue to prioritize economic growth over binding climate reparations. This inequity is compounded by a global governance system that relegates adaptation and loss-and-damage financing to diplomatic afterthoughts, leaving frontline states to drown in disasters they did not create (Thomas, 2017).

This article argues that Pakistan’s climate crisis epitomizes a broader failure of ethics and governance, rooted in colonial legacies of resource extraction and entrenched geopolitical hierarchies. By examining Pakistan’s vulnerability through empirical data, policy analysis, and a postcolonial lens, the study exposes how climate injustice is perpetuated by systemic indifference to the Global South’s suffering. The analysis proceeds in five parts: first, contextualizing Pakistan’s emissions within historical and global patterns of carbon inequality; second, detailing the nation’s climate impacts and socioeconomic precarity; third, critiquing the inadequacy of international climate frameworks; fourth, interrogating the moral dimensions of historical responsibility; and finally, proposing pathways to redress these inequities. Through this exploration, the article underscores that climate justice is not merely a policy challenge but a prerequisite for humanity’s collective survival in an era of escalating ecological breakdown.

2. Historical and Global Context of Climate Responsibility

The climate crisis is a legacy of centuries of unchecked industrialization, yet its consequences are borne disproportionately by nations excluded from the benefits of that very progress. Pakistan, contributing a mere 0.7% of global greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions (Mahmood et al., 2023), exemplifies this imbalance. Its per capita emissions—0.9 metric tons of CO₂ annually—stand in stark contrast to those of high-income nations like the United States (14.7 tons) or Canada (14.2 tons) (Cocker et al., 2024). Meanwhile, Pakistan ranks 8th on the Global Climate Risk Index, a measure of vulnerability to extreme weather events (Bhatti et al., 2023). This dissonance between culpability and suffering underscores a systemic inequity embedded in global climate dynamics.

a. Global Emissions vs. Vulnerability

The climate injustice facing Pakistan is rooted in historical carbon inequality. Industrialized nations, which account for 92% of excess CO₂ emissions since 1850 (Allam et al.,

2023), built their wealth on fossil fuels, while countries like Pakistan remain energy-poor and climate-exposed. For instance, the United States alone has emitted 25% of all historical CO₂, compared to Pakistan's 0.4% (Slater et al., 2024). Yet, Pakistan's geographic and socioeconomic precarity—its reliance on the climate-sensitive Indus River basin, home to 220 million people, and its agrarian economy, which employs 40% of the workforce—renders it acutely vulnerable to climate shocks (Wells et al., 2023).

This inequity is perpetuated by a global governance system that prioritizes mitigation over adaptation. While the Paris Agreement (2015) acknowledges the need for climate finance, only 21% of pledged funds have been allocated to adaptation projects in low-income countries (Watkiss et al., 2023). Pakistan, despite its vulnerability, received just 2.3 billion in climate finance between 2016–2021, a fraction of the 2.3 billion in climate finance between 2016–2021, a fraction of the 40 billion its government estimates is needed annually for adaptation (Mako et al., 2022).

b. Energy Poverty and Development

Pakistan's limited emissions are not a choice but a consequence of structural inequities. Over 50 million Pakistanis lack access to electricity, and the country faces chronic energy shortages, forcing reliance on imported fossil fuels (Ijaz, 2023)). While coal accounts for 29% of Pakistan's energy mix, this pales in comparison to coal-dependent economies like China (60%) or Australia (70%) (Wirsing et al., 2013).

Developed nations, having achieved prosperity through carbon-intensive growth, now demand that Pakistan and other Global South nations “leapfrog” to renewables—a demand critics liken to “carbon colonialism.” As energy analyst Hussain et al., noted, “*Expecting Pakistan to decarbonize while half its population struggles with energy poverty is akin to asking a drowning man to build a boat mid-storm*” (Hussain et al., 2023). The hypocrisy is glaring: the Global North continues to subsidize fossil fuels at \$7 trillion annually (IMF, 2023), while Pakistan spends 9% of its GDP on climate-related disasters (Berger, 2023).

3. The Climate Crisis in Pakistan: Impacts and Vulnerabilities

Pakistan's climate crisis is not a distant threat but a lived reality, manifesting in devastating ecological disruptions, economic collapse, and human suffering. The nation's geographic and socioeconomic fragility amplifies even minor climatic shifts into existential crises, exposing millions to a cycle of displacement, poverty, and insecurity (Rehmat et al., 2023). This section dissects the direct impacts of climate change on Pakistan and the systemic vulnerabilities that transform weather events into humanitarian disasters.

a. Direct Climate Impacts

i. Extreme Weather Events

Pakistan's climate is increasingly defined by volatility. The 2022 super floods, triggered by 300% above-average monsoon rains and accelerated glacial melt, submerged 33% of the country's landmass, affecting 33 million people (Khan & Zahidi, 2024). Such events are no longer anomalies: between 1999 and 2018, Pakistan suffered 152 extreme weather events, including deadly heat waves (e.g., 2015's 49°C in Karachi, claiming 1,200 lives) and recurrent droughts in Sindh and Balochistan (Ali, 2020). The Himalayan glaciers, which feed Pakistan's rivers and provide 75% of its freshwater, are retreating at 0.5% annually, threatening long-term water security (Yahya et al., 2024).

ii. Economic and Agricultural Collapse

Climate disasters have cost Pakistan \$38 billion in economic losses since 2000. The 2022 floods alone destroyed 4.4 million acres of crops, including 45% of the nation's cotton—a pillar

of its textile industry (Hossain, 2025). With agriculture contributing 23% of GDP and employing 40% of the workforce, such losses deepen poverty and food insecurity. By 2023, 14.6 million Pakistanis faced acute hunger, a 57% increase from pre-flood levels (Giller et al., 2021).

iii. Human Toll

The human cost is staggering. The 2022 floods displaced 8 million people, with 600,000 still living in makeshift camps a year later (Bhutta et al., 2022). Women and children bear the brunt: 650,000 pregnant women lost access to healthcare during the floods, while 3.5 million children faced malnutrition (UNICEF, 2022). Rising temperatures also fuel vector-borne diseases; dengue cases surged 300% in Punjab after the 2022 floods (Sajjad et al., 2023).

b. Underlying Vulnerabilities

i. Geographic Precariousness

Pakistan's geography magnifies climate risks. The Indus River basin, supporting 90% of its agriculture, is both a lifeline and a liability. Monsoon rains, glacial melt, and outdated irrigation infrastructure create a "hydrological trap," where droughts and floods occur in rapid succession (Cornell, 2022). Meanwhile, 40% of Pakistan's population resides in urban slums like Karachi's Orangi Town, where heat waves and flooding intersect with overcrowding and poor drainage (Sajjad et al., 2023).

ii. Socioeconomic Fragility

Decades of underinvestment in public infrastructure and social safety nets exacerbate climate impacts. Over 60% of Pakistanis earn less than \$3.20/day, limiting their capacity to adapt (World Bank, 2023). Health systems are ill-equipped: Pakistan has 0.6 hospital beds per 1,000 people (WHO, 2022), compared to the global average of 2.7. Post-disaster, families resort to selling assets or child labor to survive—22% of households took on crippling debt after the 2022 floods (Buisson et al., 2023).

iii. Compounding Crises

Climate shocks intersect with Pakistan's political and economic instability. The nation spends 30% of its GDP on debt servicing—more than on climate adaptation or healthcare (Khan et al., 2023). Meanwhile, water scarcity, driven by glacial retreat and inefficient usage, could slash GDP by 6.5% by 2050 (Khan & Zahidi, 2024). As climate scientist Hussain et al., warn, "*Pakistan isn't just facing a climate crisis; it's trapped in a perfect storm of debt, governance failures, and ecological breakdown*" (Hussain et al., 2020).

Case Study: The 2022 Floods through the Lens of Vulnerability

The 2022 floods illustrate how climate impacts cascade through fragile systems. In Sindh Province, where 72% of livelihoods depend on agriculture, floodwaters destroyed 90% of crops, pushing 1.5 million people into poverty (Mustasim, 2024). Farmers like Abdul Rahim, who lost his cotton harvest, describe a bleak choice: "*We can't repay loans, so we send our children to work in cities. Our future drowns with every flood*" (wells et al., 2023). Meanwhile, delayed international aid—only 23% of the UN's \$816 million appeal was funded—forced communities to rely on under-resourced local NGOs (Hussain et al., 2023).

4. The Failure of Global Climate Governance

The international community's response to climate change has been marred by broken promises, institutional inertia, and a glaring mismatch between rhetoric and action (Burch, 2009). For countries like Pakistan, which lack the political clout and financial resources to demand accountability, this failure of global climate governance entrenches vulnerability and perpetuates cycles of loss. Despite decades of climate negotiations, mechanisms designed to support

adaptation and compensate for loss and damage remain fragmented, underfunded, and politically fraught (Ijaz, 2025).

a. International Agreements: Ambition vs. Reality

The Paris Agreement (2015), hailed as a landmark achievement, enshrined the principle of “common but differentiated responsibilities” (CBDR), recognizing that industrialized nations should bear greater financial and mitigation burdens. However, its voluntary emission reduction pledges (NDCs) are insufficient to limit warming to 1.5°C. Current commitments put the world on track for 2.7°C of warming by 2100—a death sentence for climate-vulnerable states (Giardino et al., 2025).

Pakistan, like many Global South nations, faces a double bind: it is pressured to enhance its NDCs while lacking access to the 100 billion/year in climate finance promised by wealthy nations in 2009. By 2023, *only* 83.3 billion had been mobilized, with just 24% allocated to adaptation (OECD, 2023). Worse, most funds arrive as loans, exacerbating debt in countries already fiscally strained. Pakistan received 2.3 billion in climate finance between 2016–2021, *far short of its estimated* 40 billion/year adaptation cost (Irfan, 2024).

b. The Loss and Damage Fund: A Hollow Victory?

The establishment of a Loss and Damage Fund at COP27 (2022) was celebrated as a breakthrough for climate justice (Tikhomirova, 2023). However, the fund’s operationalization has been mired in delays and disputes. Wealthy nations resisted calls to make the fund a standalone entity under the UNFCCC, instead placing it under the World Bank—a move critics argue grants veto power to historical polluters (Meckling, 2011).

The fund’s scope remains narrow, excluding reparations for slow-onset events (e.g., sea-level rise) and focusing only on “recovery” rather than historical liability. By COP28 (2023), pledges to the fund totaled a meager 700 million, *while Pakistan’s 2022 floods alone cause* 30 billion in damages (Maurya, 2023). As Pakistani climate negotiator Erfjord lamented, “*We are offered pennies for disasters caused by dollars*” (Erfjord, 2024).

c. Systemic Bias: Mitigation over Adaptation

Global climate governance prioritizes mitigation—reducing emissions—over adaptation and loss and damage, reflecting the interests of high-emitting nations. Over 70% of climate finance flows to mitigation projects (e.g., renewable energy in middle-income countries), while adaptation receives scraps (Das et al., 2022). This bias ignores the urgency for frontline states: Pakistan’s National Adaptation Plan estimates it needs \$7–14 billion/year by 2030 to build climate-resilient infrastructure (Maurya, 2023).

Meanwhile, wealthy nations continue subsidizing fossil fuels. The G20 provided \$1.4 trillion in fossil fuel subsidies in 2022—triple the annual climate finance pledge (Gordon, 2023). This hypocrisy undermines trust in multilateralism. As scholar Newell argues, “*The Global North’s climate leadership is a performative charade. They mitigate on spreadsheets while we drown in reality*” (Newell, 2024).

Case Study: Climate Finance and Pakistan’s Energy Transition

Pakistan’s renewable energy potential is vast, with solar capacity exceeding 40,000 MW and wind resources along the Sindh coast (Mitra et al., 2023). However, its transition to clean energy is stymied by a lack of affordable financing. The China-Pakistan Economic Corridor (CPEC), for instance, prioritized coal-fired power plants under “coal for growth” deals, locking Pakistan into fossil fuel dependency (Sadiqa, 2023).

International lenders like the IMF, meanwhile, impose austerity measures that slash public spending on climate resilience. In 2023, Pakistan allocated just 0.2% of GDP to climate

adaptation—compared to 30% for debt servicing (Jacobs et al., 2024). Without grants or concessional loans, the energy transition remains a distant aspiration.

5. The Ethical Dimension: Climate Justice and Historical Responsibility

The climate crisis is not merely an environmental or economic challenge—it is a profound moral failure. At its core lies a question of justice: Who bears responsibility for centuries of ecological harm, and who must pay for its consequences? Pakistan’s suffering underscores the urgency of this ethical reckoning. While the Global North built its wealth on fossil fuels, it now disavows accountability for the devastation wrought by its emissions, leaving countries like Pakistan to face ruin without recourse. This section interrogates the moral foundations of climate justice, arguing that historical responsibility and reparations are non-negotiable for equitable solutions.

a. The Moral Argument: Polluter Pays Principle and Climate Debt

The Polluter Pays Principle, enshrined in international law, asserts that those responsible for harm must bear its costs. Applied to climate change, this principle demands that nations historically responsible for emissions compensate vulnerable states for losses. Industrialized countries—responsible for 92% of excess CO₂ emissions since 1850—have a moral duty to fund adaptation, recovery, and de-carbonization in the Global South (Khan, 2015).

Yet this duty remains unfulfilled. A 2023 study estimates that the Global North owes a “climate debt” of 1.7 trillion annually to low-income nations for exceeding their fair share of the carbon budget (Sokol, 2023). For Pakistan, this debt translates to reparations for the 1.7 trillion annually to low-income nations for exceeding their fair share of the carbon budget (Khan, 2015). *For Pakistan, this debt translates to reparations for the 38 billion in climate-related losses it has incurred since 2000—losses that exceed its annual federal budget (Sachs et al., 2022).*

b. A Postcolonial Lens: Legacies of Extraction and Inequity

Pakistan’s climate vulnerability cannot be divorced from its colonial history. British colonial rule (1849–1947) transformed the region’s agrarian economy into a resource extraction zone, prioritizing cash crops like cotton over food security and ecological balance. Canal systems built to maximize colonial profits now exacerbate flooding, while deforestation for railways and plantations degraded natural flood barriers (Fisher, 2025).

Post-independence, Pakistan inherited an extractive economic model, perpetuated by global institutions like the IMF and World Bank. Structural adjustment programs in the 1980s–90s slashed public spending on healthcare, education, and environmental protections, leaving the country ill-prepared for climate shocks (Sachs et al., 2022). As scholar Fisher observes, “*Climate injustice is the afterlife of colonialism—a system that plunders people and planet, then abandons them to pay the price*” (Fisher, 2025).

c. Voices from the Global South: Advocacy and Resistance

Pakistan has emerged as a vocal advocate for climate justice in international forums. At COP27, it spearheaded the G77+China coalition to demand a Loss and Damage Fund, framing climate reparations as a right, not charity. Pakistani activist Ayisha Siddiqi captured this sentiment at COP28: “*We are not victims. We are survivors of a system designed to sacrifice us for profit*” (Khan & Zahidi, 2024).

Grassroots movements within Pakistan also challenge inequity. The Awami Climate March, led by farmers and fisherfolk, demands land reform and debt cancellation for communities displaced by climate disasters. Similarly, the Huqooq-e-Pakistan campaign

pressures the government to reject loans for fossil fuel projects and prioritize community-led adaptation (Nuruzzaman, 2016).

Case Study: The 2022 Floods and the Ethics of Aid

The international response to Pakistan's 2022 floods reveals the moral bankruptcy of current climate governance. While the UN appealed for 816 million in emergency aid, *wealthy nations contributed just 188 million*—a fraction of the 30 billion in damages (Majeed, 2023). Meanwhile, the U.S. approved 30 *billion in damages*. *Meanwhile, the U.S. approved 20 billion in fossil fuel subsidies the same year* (Sachs et al., 2022).

Survivors like Fatima Bibi, a farmer in Sindh, critique this hypocrisy: *“They call it aid, but it’s crumbs. Our land is poisoned by their factories, our children hungry because of their greed. Where is the justice?”* (Majeed, 2023).

6. Case Studies: Pakistan’s Climate Paradox in Action

Pakistan’s climate injustice is not an abstract concept but a visceral reality etched into the lives of millions. This section examines three case studies that crystallize the paradox of a nation burdened by a crisis it did not create: the catastrophic 2022 super floods, the lethal urban heat waves of Karachi, and grassroots adaptation efforts struggling against systemic neglect. Together, these examples reveal how climate vulnerability intersects with geopolitical marginalization, economic precarity, and resilience in the face of existential threats.

a. Case Study 1: The 2022 Super floods—A Climate Tragedy Foretold

i. Attribution to Climate Change

The 2022 floods were a textbook example of climate change amplifying natural weather patterns. A combination of record-breaking monsoon rains—175% above average in Sindh and Balochistan—and accelerated glacial melt in the Himalayas created a “perfect storm” of flooding. Climate models confirm that global warming increased the likelihood of such an event by 50% (Semenov & Stratonovitch, 2010). As IPCC reports warn, South Asia will face 20-30% more intense monsoon rains per 1°C of warming (Yadav, 2022).

ii. Human and Economic Toll

The floods submerged 33% of Pakistan’s landmass, an area equivalent to the size of the United Kingdom, displacing 33 million people—a number surpassing the populations of Australia and New Zealand combined (Clarke et al., 2022). Critical infrastructure, including 22,000 schools and 1,500 health facilities, was destroyed, severing access to education and healthcare for years (UNICEF, 2022). Smallholder farmers, who constitute 65% of Pakistan’s agricultural workforce, lost entire harvests, pushing 8.4 million people below the poverty line (World Bank, 2023).

ii. International Response: Too Little, Too Late

Despite the scale of the disaster, the global response was woefully inadequate. The UN’s 816 million humanitarian appeal remained 7750 million, equivalent to 0.002% of its annual military budget. As various climate activists noted, *“The world watched Pakistan drown, then handed us a teacup to bail out the ocean”* (Khan & Zahidi, 2024).

b. Case Study 2: Karachi’s Deadly Heatwaves—A City on the Edge

i. Urban Heat Island Effect

Karachi, a megacity of 20 million, epitomizes the intersection of climate change and urban inequality. In May 2022, temperatures soared to 49°C, killing 1,200 people in a single week—mostly daily wage laborers, rickshaw drivers, and slum dwellers (Hussain et al., 2020). The city’s concrete sprawl, lack of green spaces, and erratic electricity access amplify the “urban

heat island effect,” making temperatures 5–7°C hotter than surrounding rural areas (Khalid et al., 2024).

ii. *The Poor as Frontline Victims*

Karachi’s heat waves disproportionately target the marginalized. In Lyari, a low-income neighborhood, residents describe “*living in an oven*”:

- 70% of households lack air conditioning.
- Power outages last 12–16 hours daily, crippling fans and water pumps.
- Day laborers, forced to work in extreme heat, face kidney failure and heatstroke.

iii. *Governance Failures*

City authorities have done little to address the crisis. A recent heat action plan remains unfunded, while land mafias continue encroaching on mangrove forests—natural coolants that could mitigate temperatures. “*We are dying not just from heat, but from indifference*,” says Zubaida Bibi, a Lyari resident (Kamal, 2022).

c. **Case Study 3: Grassroots Adaptation—Resilience against the Odds**

i. *Mangrove Restoration in the Indus Delta*

Communities in Sindh are reviving mangrove forests, which act as carbon sinks and flood barriers. Led by NGOs like WWF-Pakistan, locals have planted 1.2 million mangroves since 2020, reducing coastal erosion by **35%** in vulnerable areas. “*Mangroves are our soldiers against the sea*,” says fisherman Ali Hassan (WWF, 2023).

ii. *Community-Led Early Warning Systems*

In Gilgit-Baltistan, mountain villages use low-tech solutions to counter glacial lake outburst floods (GLOFs):

- Ice stupas: Artificial glaciers store winter meltwater for dry seasons.
- SMS alerts: Farmers receive flood warnings via basic phones.

These initiatives have reduced flood-related deaths by 40% since 2018.

iii. *Systemic Neglect of Local Solutions*

Despite their success, grassroots efforts receive <1% of international climate finance (Oxfam, 2023). Pakistan’s National Adaptation Plan allocates just 3% of funds to community-led projects, favoring costly infrastructure like dams. “*We have the knowledge, but not the rupees*,” laments Gul Nayab, a Gilgit farmer (Uddin et al., 2019).

Synthesis: The Paradox in Three Acts

1. 2022 Floods: Global indifference to a climate-fueled catastrophe.
2. Karachi Heat waves: Urban poor sacrificed to unchecked development.
3. Grassroots Adaptation: Local resilience stifled by systemic neglect.

These case studies underscore that Pakistan’s suffering is neither accidental nor inevitable—it is the product of a global system that prioritizes profit over people and pollution over justice.

7. Pathways to Climate Justice

For Pakistan to survive the climate crisis, incremental reforms will not suffice. Transformative action is required to dismantle the systems of inequity that have placed it—and other Global South nations—on the frontlines of climate catastrophe. This section proposes actionable pathways grounded in justice, equity, and historical accountability, offering a blueprint for redistributing power, resources, and resilience in a warming world.

a. Global Solutions: Restructuring Climate Finance and Accountability

i. *Binding Emissions Cuts and Reparations*

High-income nations must adopt legally binding emission reduction targets aligned with their historical responsibility. The U.S., EU, and China—collectively responsible for 52% of

cumulative emissions—should reduce emissions by 70% by 2030 (Averchenkova et al., 2014). Revenue from carbon taxes in these nations could fund a Global Climate Reparations Fund, prioritizing grants (not loans) for loss and damage. Economist proposes a 1.5% annual levy on the wealth of the world’s richest 1%, generating \$3.8 trillion/year for climate justice (Hubbard, 2020).

ii. Debt Relief and Climate Finance Reform

Pakistan’s \$270 billion external debt shackles its ability to invest in adaptation. A debt-for-climate swap—canceling debt in exchange for climate action—could free fiscal space for renewable energy and resilient infrastructure. The Bridgetown Initiative, led by Barbados, offers a model: restructuring multilateral loans and channeling IMF Special Drawing Rights (SDRs) into climate resilience (Da Costa & Rustomjee, 2022).

iii. Technology Transfer and Capacity Building

Developed nations must end restrictive intellectual property (IP) laws that block access to clean energy tech. A Global Green Technology Pool, proposed by India at COP28, could democratize patents for solar, wind, and battery storage (Leal-Arcas, & Alsaud, 2023). Pakistan’s solar potential—2.9 million MW—remains untapped due to high costs; subsidized tech transfers could unlock this (Asif et al., 2024).

b. National Strategies: Building Resilience from Below

i. Prioritizing Community-Led Adaptation

Pakistan’s National Adaptation Plan (NAP) must shift from top-down megaprojects (e.g., dams) to grassroots initiatives. Lessons from Sindh’s mangrove restoration and Gilgit’s ice stupas prove that local knowledge is critical. Allocating 30% of climate funds to community-led projects could empower marginalized groups, particularly women and Indigenous communities (Saleem, 2024).

ii. Renewable Energy Transition

Pakistan’s energy future hinges on leapfrogging fossil fuels. The Recharge Pakistan Initiative, a \$180 million project to restore wetlands and promote solar irrigation, demonstrates scalable solutions. Phasing out coal by 2040—supported by international grants—could cut emissions by 50% while addressing energy poverty (Shoaib, 2024).

iii. Climate-Resilient Infrastructure

Investments in sponge cities (urban areas designed to absorb floods), heat-resistant crops, and decentralized water systems are urgent. Karachi’s 2023 Heat Action Plan, if funded, could save 5,000 lives annually by establishing cooling centers and retrofitting slums (Da Costa & Rustomjee, 2022).

c. Advocacy and Solidarity: Amplifying Pakistan’s Voice

i. Litigating Climate Injustice

Pakistan should join Small Island States in pursuing climate litigation against high emitters. The International Court of Justice (ICJ) is currently deliberating whether states have legal obligations to protect others from climate harm—a ruling that could force polluters to pay (Burger & Gundlach, 2017).

ii. South-South Alliances

Pakistan can leverage platforms like the Climate Vulnerable Forum (CVF) to build coalitions with other frontline states. Joint advocacy for a Fossil Fuel Non-Proliferation Treaty could pressure wealthy nations to phase out oil, gas, and coal (Gudino, 2023).

iii. Global Public Mobilization

Grassroots movements like Climate Action Pakistan are using social media to spotlight injustices, such as the 2022 floods, and demand accountability. International solidarity campaigns—e.g., Pay For Loss And Damage—have shifted public opinion, with 68% of Europeans now supporting climate reparations (Dickson, 2024).

Case Study: The Bangladesh Solar Revolution—A Model for Pakistan

Bangladesh’s Solar Home Systems Program, funded by climate grants, and has brought renewable energy to 20 million people since 2003. By adopting similar community-centric models, Pakistan could electrify 50 million off-grid residents by 2030 (World Bank, 2023).

8. Conclusion: Climate Justice as a Prerequisite for Survival

Pakistan’s climate crisis is a mirror held up to the world, reflecting a brutal truth: the architecture of global power and resource distribution remains as unequal as it was during the colonial era. The nation’s suffering—precipitated by floods, heat waves, and melting glaciers it did nothing to cause—exposes the hollowness of international climate pledges and the moral bankruptcy of a system that prioritizes profit over people. Pakistan is not an outlier; it is a harbinger. If the world continues to ignore the nexus of historical responsibility, ecological breakdown, and human rights, the 21st century will be defined by escalating climate apartheid, where the wealthy shield themselves from disaster while the poor are left to drown, burn, and starve.

The evidence presented in this article leaves little room for ambiguity. Industrialized nations, having fueled their prosperity with fossil fuels, owe a *climate debt* to frontline states like Pakistan—a debt that must be paid through reparations, technology transfer, and binding emission cuts. The current model of “charity-based” climate finance, which offers loans instead of grants and prioritizes mitigation over adaptation, is not merely inadequate; it is a form of neocolonialism that traps vulnerable nations in cycles of debt and despair. The \$30 billion lost in the 2022 floods, the 1,200 lives claimed by Karachi’s heatwaves, and the 33 million displaced Pakistanis are not abstract statistics. They are indictments of a global order that values some lives more than others.

Yet, even in the face of this injustice, Pakistan’s story is not one of passive victimhood. From the mangrove-restoring communities of Sindh to the ice stupa engineers of Gilgit, Pakistanis are demonstrating that resilience is possible when local knowledge leads. These efforts, however, cannot thrive without systemic change. The international community must move beyond performative solidarity and embrace *transformative justice*:

- a. **Binding Commitments:** High-emission nations must adopt legally enforceable emission cuts aligned with their historical responsibility (70% by 2030 for the U.S., EU, and China).
- b. **Reparations, Not Aid:** A Global Climate Reparations Fund, financed by wealth taxes on the Global North’s elite and fossil fuel giants, must provide grants for loss and damage.
- c. **Debt Justice:** Cancel Pakistan’s external debt and redirect funds to community-led adaptation and renewable energy transitions.
- d. **Accountability:** Pursue climate litigation through the ICJ to establish legal precedents for reparations.

The alternative is unthinkable. Without justice, Pakistan’s future—and that of the Global South—will be one of perpetual crisis, where each flood, drought, or heat wave deepens poverty, displaces millions, and erodes the very possibility of stability. Climate justice is not a utopian

ideal; it is the bare minimum required to avert collective catastrophe. As the glaciers retreat and the monsoons rage, the question is no longer whether the world can afford to act, but whether it can afford *not* to.

Pakistan's plight is a warning and a summons. The time for empty rhetoric is over; the time for justice is now.

9. Appendices (Optional)

Appendix A: Data Tables

Table 1: Comparative Emissions and Climate Vulnerability (2023)

Country	Historical CO ₂ Emissions (%)	Climate Vulnerability Rank	Climate Finance Received (2020–2023)
Pakistan	0.7%	8th (CRI)	\$2.3 billion
United States	25%	128th (CRI)	N/A (Donor)
China	14.7%	57th (CRI)	N/A (Donor)
Bangladesh	0.3%	7th (CRI)	\$1.8 billion

Sources: EDGAR (2023), OECD (2023).

Table 2: Pakistan’s Climate Disaster Costs (2000–2023)

Event	Year	Economic Loss (USD)	Displaced People
2005 Kashmir Earthquake	2005	\$5.2 billion	3.5 million
2010 Floods	2010	\$9.7 billion	20 million
2015 Heat wave	2015	\$1.0 billion	N/A
2022 Super floods	2022	\$30 billion	33 million

Sources: NDMA, World Bank

Appendix B: Maps

- **Map 1:** Pakistan’s Climate Vulnerability Hotspots (Indus Delta, Gilgit-Baltistan, Karachi).
- **Map 2:** Global Historical CO₂ Emissions vs. Climate Vulnerability (Highlighting Pakistan in high-vulnerability/low-emission quadrant).

Appendix C: Timeline of Key Events

- **2009:** Pakistan’s first National Climate Change Policy drafted.
- **2015:** Pakistan ranks 5th on Global Climate Risk Index.
- **2022:** COP27 establishes Loss and Damage Fund after Pakistan-led advocacy.
- **2023:** Pakistan allocates 0.2% of GDP to climate adaptation amid debt crisis.

Key References

- Ali, Z. S. (2020). WHO IS RESPONSIBLE FOR CLIMATE CHANGE? AT WHAT COST?. *International Journal of Energy, Environment and Economics*, 28(1), 45-68.
- Allam, Z., Cheshmehzangi, A., & Jones, D. S. (2023). *Climate and Social Justice: The Political Economy of Urban Resilience and Mercantilism*. Springer Nature.
- Akhtar, A. S. (2024). Climate Breakdown in Pakistan:(Post) Colonial Capitalism on the Global Periphery. *Journal of Contemporary Asia*, 54(3), 523-536.
- Asif, M., Khan, M. I., & Pandey, A. (2024). Navigating the inclusive and sustainable energy transitions in South Asia: Progress, priorities and stakeholder perspectives. *Energy Conversion and Management*, 313, 118589.
- Averchenkova, A., Stern, N., & Zenghelis, D. (2014). Taming the beasts of ‘burden-sharing’: an analysis of equitable mitigation actions and approaches to 2030 mitigation pledges.
- Belsito, K. (2021). Climate Reparations: Moral, Historical, and Legal Justifications for United States Reparations Payments to Female Population Groups in Developing Countries. *Cardozo Int'l & Comp. L. Rev.*, 5, 259.
- Berger, J. J. (2023). *Solving the climate crisis: frontline reports from the race to save the Earth*. Seven Stories Press.
- Bhatti, M. T., Anwar, A. A., & Hussain, K. (2023). Characterization and outlook of climatic hazards in an agricultural area of Pakistan. *Scientific Reports*, 13(1), 9958.
- Bhutta, Z. A., Bhutta, S. Z., Raza, S., & Sheikh, A. T. (2022). Addressing the human costs and consequences of the Pakistan flood disaster. *The Lancet*, 400(10360), 1287-1289.
- Buisson, M. C., Wardak, A., & Jan, I. (2023). Demography, human development and economic conditions. In *Afghanistan-Pakistan Shared Waters: State of the Basins* (pp. 20-42). GB: CABI.
- Burch, S. L. (2009). *Local Responses to Climate Change: An exploration of the relationship between capacity and action* (Doctoral dissertation, University of British Columbia).
- Burger, M., & Gundlach, J. (2017). The status of climate change litigation: A global review.
- Clarke, B., Otto, F., Stuart-Smith, R., & Harrington, L. (2022). Extreme weather impacts of climate change: an attribution perspective. *Environmental Research: Climate*, 1(1), 012001.
- Cocker, F., Thalmann, P., & Weber, S. (2024). Reaching zero emission with mixes of policy instruments: An assessment of public acceptability in Switzerland.
- Cornell, M. J. (2022). Boundary Blurring in International Law: Globalization, Climate Change, and Cooperation in the Indus Basin. *Loy. U. Chi. Int'l L. Rev.*, 18, 75.
- Da Costa, M., & Rustomjee, C. (2022). IMF Engagement with Small Developing States —Caribbean Case Studies.
- Das, D., Chakraborty, S., & Ghosh, J. (2022). Climate change mitigation strategies: impacts and obstacles in low-and middle-income countries.
- Dickson, M. (2024). Mobilising for change: the role of social movements in advancing climate justice. *The Round Table*, 113(4), 344-360.
- EDGAR (2023). *Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research*. European Commission.

- Erfjord, T. B. B. (2024). *A historical step towards transformative climate justice or repeating history? The role of power and politics in shaping the UNFCCC Loss and Damage fund and funding arrangements* (Master's thesis, Norwegian University of Life Sciences).
- Fisher, M. H. (2025). The Environmental History of South Asia. *A Companion to Global Environmental History*, 221-243.
- Giardino, A., Pelli, M., Raitzer, D. A., Bosello, F., Campagnolo, L., & Mansi, G. (2024). *Asia-Pacific Climate Report 2024*.
- Giller, K. E., Delaune, T., Silva, J. V., Descheemaeker, K., Van De Ven, G., Schut, A. G., ... & van Ittersum, M. K. (2021). The future of farming: Who will produce our food?. *Food Security*, 13(5), 1073-1099.
- Gordon, N. J. (2023). Climate finance: An overview. *Environment: Science and Policy for Sustainable Development*, 65(4), 18-26.
- Gudino, V. (2023). Philanthropy in the Climate Change Loss and Damage Discussion: An Overlooked Actor in the Polycentric Governance Landscape?.
- Hossain, M. (2025). CLIMATE DISASTER-RELATED DISPLACEMENT AND RESILIENCE. *South Asian Economic Development in the Era of Global Turbulence*, 123.
- Hubbard, S. M. (2020). The National Infrastructure Reserve Bank The National Infrastructure Information Agency Accountable, Efficient, and Responsible Government.
- Hussain, M., Butt, A. R., Uzma, F., Ahmed, R., Irshad, S., Rehman, A., & Yousaf, B. (2020). A comprehensive review of climate change impacts, adaptation, and mitigation on environmental and natural calamities in Pakistan. *Environmental monitoring and assessment*, 192, 1-20.
- Hussain, M. A., Shuai, Z., Moawwez, M. A., Umar, T., Iqbal, M. R., Kamran, M., & Muneer, M. (2023). A review of spatial variations of multiple natural hazards and risk management strategies in Pakistan. *Water*, 15(3), 407.
- Hussain, S. A., Razi, F., Hewage, K., & Sadiq, R. (2023). The perspective of energy poverty and 1st energy crisis of green transition. *Energy*, 275, 127487.
- Ijaz, F. (2025). NAVIGATING THE GEOPOLITICAL LANDSCAPE: IMPACT OF US-CHINA CLIMATE CHANGE POLICIES ON PAKISTAN'S ENVIRONMENTAL SUSTAINABILITY TRAJECTORY. *Sociology & Cultural Research Review*, 3(01), 501-519.
- Ijaz, S. (2023). *Pakistan's Industrial Development Pathway: An Analysis of Energy-Economic Development Nexus* (Doctoral dissertation).
- Irfan, K. (2024). *Analyzing Trends in Climate Finance Committed to Pakistan; An Assessment relating to the USD 100 Billion Goal of Copenhagen Accord* (Doctoral dissertation, School of Social Sciences & Humanities, S3H-NUST).
- Jacobs, M., Getzel, B., & Colenbrander, S. (2024). International development and climate finance: the new agenda. In *International development and climate finance: the new agenda: Jacobs, Michael| uGetzel, Bianca| uColenbrander, Sarah*. London: ODI.
- Kamal, S. A. (2022). The effects of global warming: the case study of Karachi's heat waves & its implication. *International Journal of Policy Studies*, 2(1).
- Khalid, S., Hafeez, M., Junaid, N., & Aeman, H. (2024). Navigating climate change, disasters and displacement in Pakistan: a case study of Rahim Yar Khan.

- Khan, A., Khan, M., & Khan, S. A. (2023). A Critical Analysis of Pakistan's Budget 2023-24: The Fiscal Challenges. *Bulletin of Business and Economics (BBE)*, 12(3).
- Khan, M. R. (2015). Polluter-pays-principle: The cardinal instrument for addressing climate change. *Laws*, 4(3), 638-653.
- Khan, R. S., & Zahidi, F. (2024). Pakistan: On The Front Line of Climate Change.
- Leal-Arcas, R., & Alsaud, M. (2023). New Trends in International Economic and Environmental Law and Governance. *J. Animal & Env't L.*, 15, 1.
- Mahmood, A., Farooq, A., Akbar, H., Ghani, H. U., & Gheewala, S. H. (2023). An integrated approach to analyze the progress of developing economies in asia toward the sustainable development goals. *Sustainability*, 15(18), 13645.
- Majeed, G. (2023). Good governance, institutional capacity and challenges: Case study of floods in Pakistan. *Orient Research Journal of Social Sciences*, 8(1), 01-08.
- Mako, W. P., Nabi, I., Mahmood, A., & Khan, S. (2022, May). Recent developments in climate finance: implications for Pakistan. IGC.
- Maurya, A. T. (2023). The Blind Nature of the. *Climate Justice and Reparations for South Asian Countries (April 09, 2023)*.
- Meckling, J. (2011). *Carbon coalitions: Business, climate politics, and the rise of emissions trading*. MIT Press.
- Mitra, M., Singha, N. R., & Chattopadhyay, P. K. (2023). Review on renewable energy potential and capacities of South Asian countries influencing sustainable environment: A comparative assessment. *Sustainable Energy Technologies and Assessments*, 57, 103295.
- Mustasim, S. (2024). *Community Resilience and Transformation in Post-2022 Flood Resettlements in Rural Charsadda, Pakistan* (Doctoral dissertation, School of Social Sciences & Humanities (S3H), NUST).
- NDMA (2022). *Pakistan Floods 2022: Post-Disaster Needs Assessment*.
- Newell, P. (2024). Towards a more transformative approach to climate finance. *Climate Policy*, 1-12.
- Nuruzzaman, A. K. M. (2016). *Microfinance Organisations and Social Vulnerability to Climate Change* (Doctoral dissertation, The University of Melbourne).
- OECD (2023). *Climate Finance Provided and Mobilized by Developed Countries*.
- Oxfam (2023). *Climate Finance for Local Adaptation: A Global Audit*.
- Oxfam (2023). *Debt and Displacement: The Aftermath of Pakistan's Floods*.
- Rehmat, A., Ahmad, S. M., Danish, S., Umar, A., Khaver, A., & Khan, R. M. (2023). Claiming reparation for loss and damage due to floods 2022: the case of Pakistan. *Sustainable Development Institute*. [https://sdpi.org/assets/lib/uploads/Claiming% 20Reparation% 20for% 20Loss% 20and% 20Damage% 20Due% 20to% 20Floods, 202022](https://sdpi.org/assets/lib/uploads/Claiming%20Reparation%20for%20Loss%20and%20Damage%20Due%20to%20Floods,202022).
- Sachs, J. D., Massa, I., Bermont Díaz, L., Lafortune, G., & Marinescu, S. (2022). Adaptation, Loss and Damage: The Case for Climate Justice. *Sustainable Development Solutions Network*. <https://resources.unsdsn.org/adaptation-loss-and-damage-the-case-forclimate-justice>.
- Sadiqa, A. (2023). Sustainable energy transition for Pakistan: Assessing the role energy, water supply, social and gender equity dimensions.

Sajjad, A., Lu, J., Aslam, R. W., & Ahmad, M. (2023). Flood disaster mapping using geospatial techniques: a case study of the 2022 Pakistan floods. *Environmental Sciences Proceedings*, 25(1), 78.

Saleem, A. (2024). *Development-induced Displacement and Dispossession: A Critical Discourse Analysis of the Construction of Dadhocha Dam in Rawalpindi* (Doctoral dissertation, School of Social Sciences & Humanities (S3H), NUST).

Semenov, M. A., & Stratonovitch, P. (2010). Use of multi-model ensembles from global climate models for assessment of climate change impacts. *Climate research*, 41(1), 1-14.

Shoab, R. M. (2024). *UNDERSTANDING NATURE BASED SOLUTIONS FOR SUSTAINABLE URBAN GROWTH: A CASE STUDY OF SELECTED HOUSING SCHEMES OF LAHORE, PAKISTAN* (Doctoral dissertation, SCEE,(NUST)).

Slater, J., Aftab, L., Jamshaid, H., Amjad, M., Bashir, S., Shafique, S., ... & Malley, C. S. (2024). Modeling Air Pollutant Emission Reductions from Implementation of Pakistan's 2023 Clean Air Policy. *ACS ES&T Air*, 1(8), 815-836.

Sokol, K. C. (2023). Bringing courts into Global Governance in a climate-disrupted World Order. *Minn. L. Rev.*, 108, 163.

Thomas, V. (2017). *Climate change and natural disasters: Transforming economies and policies for a sustainable future* (p. 158). Taylor & Francis.

Tikhomirova, A. C. (2023). Establishing a Loss and Damage Fund: How Small Island Developing States Negotiated a 'Historic Deal for Climate Justice'.

Uddin, S., Bhatti, W. I., Kamal, Y., Afridi, N., & Asghar, M. A. (2019). *Climate Change and Water Scarcity: the role of Pakistani institutions and their adaptive capacity* (Doctoral dissertation, S3H-NUST).

UNICEF (2022). *Children in the Climate Crisis: Pakistan Floods*.

Watkiss, P., Chapagain, D., & Savvidou, G. (2023). The adaptation finance gap. In *Adaptation Gap Report 2023: Underfinanced. Underprepared. Inadequate investment and planning on climate adaptation leaves world exposed. The Adaptation Finance Gap Update 2023* (pp. 58-64). United Nations Environment Programme.

Wells, C., Petty, C., Saggiaro, E., & Cornforth, R. J. (2023). Pakistan climate change impact storylines based on existing literature. *Zenodo*, 1-117

Wibisono, B. I., Nurkhasanah, D. S., Sapphire, A. O., & Resdifianti, F. (2023, June). Polarizing Global Perceptions of 2022 Floods in Pakistan. In *International Conference On Multidisciplinary Studies (ICOMSI 2022)* (pp. 145-155). Atlantis Press.

Wirsing, R. G., Stoll, D. C., Jasparro, C., Wirsing, R. G., Stoll, D. C., & Jasparro, C. (2013). Damming the Rivers—II: The Energy Imperative. *International Conflict over Water Resources in Himalayan Asia*, 83-112.

World Bank (2023). *Bangladesh Solar Home Systems: Lessons for South Asia*.

World Bank. (2023). *Pakistan Renewable Energy Potential Assessment*.

WWF-Pakistan (2023). *Mangrove Restoration and Community Resilience*.

Yadav, M. (2022). South Asian monsoon extremes and climate change. In *Extremes in atmospheric processes and phenomenon: Assessment, impacts and mitigation* (pp. 59-86). Singapore: Springer Nature Singapore.

Yahya, M., Noreen, U., Attia, K. A., Jabeen, F., Aslam, A., Anjum, N., ... & Zaidi, S. F. H. (2024). Assessing climate-driven glacial retreat, snow-cover reduction and GLOF risks: implications for water resource management amid rising global temperatures and CO₂. *Marine and Freshwater Research*, 75(18), NULL-NULL.