



Background Paper for the UN Secretary-General's Panel on Critical Energy Transition Minerals

This background paper was developed by the United Nations in May 2024 at the beginning of the work of the Panel to frame the thematic discussions of Panel members. The paper reflects an overview of potential non-exhaustive elements which could be considered by Panel members. The background paper will not be updated.

Panel members have since been discussing potential principles and actionable recommendations for implementation under four different workstreams which will feed into final overarching outcomes ahead of the UN General Assembly in September 2024.

The workstreams are as follows:

- *Benefit sharing, local value addition and economic diversification*
- *Transparent and fair trade and investments*
- *Sustainable, responsible and just value chains*
- *Mineral value chain stability and resilience*

Introduction

Effective climate action and the global deployment of renewable energy technologies relies on the sufficient, reliable and affordable supply of critical energy transition minerals (CETMs). For the energy transition to be just, these minerals must be extracted, processed, transformed and recycled sustainably and equitably.¹

Given the volume of extraction and processing required, the expected pace of development, and the geographical concentration, CETMs are of particular importance to sustainable development, relations between nations, industrialization and structural transformation priorities, especially of mineral-producing developing countries.

According to the International Energy Agency (IEA), reaching net-zero globally by 2050 would require the demand for CETMs to increase three and a half times by 2030, with even steeper demand for key commodities such as lithium (8 times), graphite (7 times), and nickel (7 times).² The scale of change required is immense. Major investments are needed to increase supply, with financial analysts predicting that more than US\$1.7 trillion will be needed between 2020-2035.³ Investment in the mining of CETMs rose by 30% in 2022, however, global lead times to discover and develop mining projects average more than 16 years and current investments are falling short.⁴

Countries with large reserves of CETMs could, with careful action-orientated planning, have an opportunity to transform economies, create green jobs, and foster sustainable local, regional and global development, especially for developing countries and communities. However, mineral resource development has not always met this promise and has too often been characterised by enclave economic activity with few long-term linkages to local economies, thus missing the opportunity to utilise them for larger economic transformation. As stated by UN Secretary General António Guterres, when announcing the Panel on Critical Energy Transition Minerals, “we cannot repeat the mistakes of the past with a systematic exploitation of developing countries reduced to the production of basic raw materials.”⁵ Since the extraction of these resources from the locations where they are mined is finite, it is vital that greater consideration is given to building inter-generational equity for lasting prosperity in mineral-producing countries.

¹ Gielen, D. (2021), Critical Materials for the Energy Transition. International Renewable Energy Agency, Abu Dhabi. https://www.irena.org/-/media/Irena/Files/Technical-papers/IRENA_Critical_Materials_2021.pdf?rev=e4a9bdcb93614c6c8087024270a2871d

² IEA (2023). Critical Minerals Market Review 2023. International Energy Agency. December. <https://iea.blob.core.windows.net/assets/c7716240-ab4f-4f5d-b138-291e76c6a7c7/CriticalMineralsMarketReview2023.pdf>; IEA (2023), Critical Minerals Data Explorer, IEA, Paris <https://www.iea.org/data-and-statistics/data-tools/critical-minerals-data-explorer>; IEA (2021). The Role of Critical Minerals in Clean Energy Transitions. International Energy Agency. 283p. <https://iea.blob.core.windows.net/assets/ffd2a83b-8c30-4e9d-980a-52b6d9a86fdc/TheRoleofCriticalMineralsinCleanEnergyTransitions.pdf>

³ Kettle et al. (2020). Faster decarbonisation and mining: a crisis of confidence or capital? Wood Mackenzie. <https://www.woodmac.com/news/opinion/faster-decarbonisation-and-mining-a-crisis-of-confidence-or-capital/>

⁴ IEA (2021). Ibid.

⁵ UN (2023). Secretary-General Calls for 'Maximum Ambition on Mitigation, Maximum Ambition in Relation to Climate Justice', in Remarks to Group of 77 Leaders' Summit. Press Release. SG/SM/22067; 2 December. <https://press.un.org/en/2023/sgsm22067.doc.htm>

Building trust between producers and consumers, between producers and their local communities, and amongst producers is essential for just transitions.⁶ A just minerals transition means transforming the economy through mineral development in a way that is as fair and inclusive as possible for everyone concerned, creating decent work opportunities, supporting local beneficiation and sustainable economic diversification, building inter-generational equity, and leaving no one behind, while strengthening social and environmental safeguards and the rule of law.⁷

Mineral extraction can be an impediment to sustainable development, and efforts to raise sustainability and human rights standards, and ensure public participation in decision-making, including in support of the implementation of the right to a clean, healthy and sustainable environment, will need to be redoubled to preserve public trust. Any reduction in sustainability and responsibility standards to meet the urgency of mineral supply will undermine the credibility of the transition and the long-term markets for these minerals. Renewable energy production, for example, has the potential to exacerbate mining threats to biodiversity,⁸ and generate corruption, conflict and exploitation. More than half of critical energy transition mineral reserves are located on or near the lands of Indigenous Peoples.⁹

Ensuring sufficient and affordable access to CETMs will require reliable, transparent, diverse and resilient mineral supply chains. Stability and predictability of mineral supplies has emerged as a key topic of concern mainly for consumers, with many UN Member States developing mineral security policies and lists of ‘critical minerals,’ ‘critical raw materials’ and ‘strategic minerals’ to identify and reduce supply chain disruptions to manufacturing.¹⁰ Regional, national, intergovernmental, and industry-led sustainability standards and initiatives have also proliferated to address sustainability risks in mineral supply chains. While this points to the need for higher standards, UN Member States have called for greater harmonisation and alignment.¹¹ The UN has unique convening powers in this regard and is at the centre of multilateralism.

This background paper outlines a range of issues that need attention from the global community for the achievement of just and sustainable transitions, including in critical energy

⁶ UNFCCC (2022). Implementation of just transition and economic diversification strategies: a compilation of best practices from different countries. Bonn. <https://unfccc.int/sites/default/files/resource/A%20compilation%20of%20best%20practices%20on%20JT%20and%20EDT.pdf>; ILO (2015). Guidelines for a just transition towards environmentally sustainable economies and societies for all. International Labour Organization. Geneva. https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/--ed_emp/--emp_ent/documents/publication/wcms_432859.pdf

⁷ A whole of society approach to just and equitable transitions “encompasses pathways that include energy, socioeconomic, workforce and other dimensions, all of which must be based on nationally defined development priorities and include social protection so as to mitigate potential impacts associated with the transition” United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC; 2023) Decision -/CMA.5. United Arab Emirates Just Transition work programme. https://unfccc.int/sites/default/files/resource/cma5_auv_5_JTWP.pdf

⁸ Sonter et al. (2020). Renewable energy production will exacerbate mining threats to biodiversity. *Nat Commun* 11, 4174. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-020-17928-5>

⁹ Owen et al. (2023). Energy transition minerals and their intersection with land-connected peoples. *Nat Sustain* 6, 203–211. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41893-022-00994-6>

¹⁰ IEA has identified nearly 200 policies and regulations that have been introduced. See for example: Canada, Colombia, European Union, Finland, India, Japan, Nigeria, Norway, South Africa, United States and United Kingdom; <https://www.iea.org/policies?topic%5B0%5D=Critical%20Minerals&type%5B0%5D=Minerals%20list>

¹¹ Franks et al. (2022). Mineral resource governance and the global goals: an agenda for international collaboration. (UNEP/EA.4/Res.19). Nairobi, Kenya: United Nations Environment Programme.

transition mineral supply chains. The paper identifies relevant issues, why they are relevant and how they can be addressed in the context of sustainable development and just transitions. The paper includes an annex describing the existing commitments, standards and guidelines made by Member States and industry (Annex 1). By referencing and building on existing initiatives, a set of common voluntary principles can be developed to address the identified issues and offer a credible and just pathway towards achieving global climate ambitions and targets and other sustainable development imperatives.

The overarching opportunities presented by the critical energy transition minerals value chains should be harnessed to address historic injustices, create socio-economic opportunities and advancements, especially for developing countries, and narrow the divide of inequality between the Global North and the Global South.¹²

Objectives

Building on existing commitments, standards and applicable multilateral agreements, the Panel will develop a set of global and common voluntary principles on issues which are key to building trust between governments, communities and industry, enhancing transparency and investment and ensuring a just and equitable management of sustainable, responsible, and reliable value chains for terrestrial critical energy transition minerals.¹³

The principles will seek to provide guidance and best practice to governments and other stakeholders active across the full lifecycle of minerals, as well as for sustainable industrialisation means of implementation action support to developing countries.

The principles will seek to:

- Support global decarbonisation by enabling mineral-producing countries to yield sustainable economic and social benefits from their mineral resources and value chains.
- Support a just and equitable transition to renewable energy supply while harnessing critical energy transition minerals for sustainable development.
- Promote research and development, sound infrastructure, and a growing skills base in mineral-producing countries.
- Integrate and strengthen global supply chains of critical energy transition minerals and the support for economic diversification, and green industrialisation, while ensuring sustainability of these value chains globally particularly in developing countries.
- Ensure countries and local communities endowed with these minerals resources fully benefit economically, including through local value addition, while safeguarding human rights, social and environmental protections for affected communities and ecosystems.

¹² These objectives are articulated in the UN Sustainable Development Goals, the Marrakesh Agreement establishing the World Trade Organisation and in the UNFCCC's Paris Agreement.

¹³ The scope of the Panel is confined to terrestrial (land-based) mineral deposits, noting that the ocean holds significant reserves of critical energy transition minerals, with a different set of environmental and cultural externalities and need of control measures, that an intergovernmental process is dealing with in the context of the International Seabed Authority and the UN Convention on the Law of the Sea. Similarly, potential future outer space mining (moon, asteroids etc) is outside the scope of the Panel and is being addressed through the UN Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space.

- Build and preserve inter-generational equity through sustainable management and effective governance of critical energy transition minerals value chains.
- Strengthen international cooperation including through the transfer of technology and knowledge and the alignment and harmonization of existing norms, standards and initiatives and agree on areas for enhanced multilateral action.
- Promote global resource efficiency and circularity.
- Promote the implementation of the agreed to principles of the multilateral system, including the UNFCCC and its Paris Agreement.

Clarifying Terminology

Renewable energy technologies require a diversity of mineral commodities: solar photovoltaics use copper, aluminium, silicon, cadmium, tellurium, and selenium; wind power uses copper, Rare Earth Elements (REEs), chromium, zinc and aluminium; hydro power uses copper, chromium, zinc and aluminium; electric vehicles and battery storage use copper, cobalt, nickel, lithium, graphite, manganese, REEs and aluminium; to name but a few technologies. Each of these technologies rely on large volumes of cement, aggregate and steel for their construction.

In recent years, some Member States, predominantly importing countries have developed mineral security policies and lists of ‘critical minerals,’ ‘critical raw materials’ and ‘strategic minerals’ to identify and reduce the risk of supply chain disruptions to manufacturing¹⁴ and to shore up their competitive advantages in related manufacturing value chains. A number of producer countries have also developed lists and strategies to leverage the opportunities for development provided by increased demand of these minerals and to ensure that there is better oversight and management for the benefit of their own citizens and regions. The term ‘criticality’ in these definitions refers to the economic vulnerability and disruption potential from the perspective of the country undertaking the assessment. The minerals on these lists therefore vary from country to country. While some minerals important for the energy transition have been identified as ‘critical’, by some countries, definitions of ‘critical minerals’ are typically not synonymous with energy transition minerals and include minerals that may also be used for a wide range of other purposes such as advanced manufacturing, the digital economy and the defence industry.

At the same time, some of the mineral commodities most important to the energy transition do not appear on critical minerals lists, because their supply is diversified and not considered at risk of disruption.¹⁵ These minerals, however, may experience acute sustainability issues that require attention and action.

¹⁴ For example, Canada, Colombia, European Union, Finland, India, Japan, Nigeria, Norway, South Africa, United States and United Kingdom. See summary of critical minerals lists here:

<https://www.iea.org/policies?topic%5B0%5D=Critical%20Minerals&type%5B0%5D=Minerals%20list> ; ‘Critical minerals’ refer to metallic and non-metallic elements that are essential for the economic and national security of states, especially advanced manufacturing and technology, that are at risk of supply chain disruption. See for example: Nassar, N. T. & Fortier, S. M. Methodology and Technical Input for the 2021 Review and Revision of the U.S. Critical Minerals List Open-File Report 2021–1045 (US Geological Survey, 2021); <https://doi.org/10.3133/ofr20211045>

¹⁵ For example, copper and nickel, despite their importance to the renewable energy transition, do not commonly appear on critical minerals lists. The same is true for steel, cement and sand, mineral materials that are by

For these reasons, this Panel uses the term “critical energy transition minerals” to simply refer to the mineral commodities that are necessary for the construction, production, and storage of renewable energy. The term is understood in this context to refer to the role and utility of critical energy transition minerals to enable green industrialisation, promote circularity, and preserve inter-generational equity.

The Panel’s focus on CETMs is due to the scale of their demand and urgency given climate ambitions and time scales, and possible externalities and opportunities contained in their development. It is recognized that many of the issues identified here are true for minerals required for other transitions and to achieve the Sustainable Development Goals.¹⁶

Benefit sharing, local value addition and economic diversification

The issue: *Ensuring any benefits from the extraction, production and processing of critical energy transition minerals are shared fairly, particularly with local communities and mineral-producing countries, while also contributing to the economic structural transformation of mineral-producing developing countries by introducing new sustainable upstream, side-stream and downstream activities linked to CETMs, generating more employment, higher and more stable revenues and intergenerational social economic advancement.*

Why is it relevant? Economic transformation will require broad-based sharing of benefits and the diversification of economies in commodity-dependent developing countries. Developing countries host an important share of energy transition mineral reserves. UNCTAD has classified thirty-one countries as commodity dependent, based on their mineral exports, exposing them to volatility in the international commodity markets.¹⁷ All but two are developing countries and more than half are from Africa. There is the risk that the increasing demand for critical energy transition minerals might perpetuate or even aggravate the negative effects of commodity dependence, such as the vulnerability to global price shocks or being locked into patterns of primary product export specialization.¹⁸ Local value addition to mineral ores and capturing a larger share of value in the mineral’s value chain with forward linkages to domestic manufacturing would not only generate more revenues for host countries through employment creation, higher tax revenues and export earnings but also reduce volatility of export revenues and contribute to the industrial development and economic structural transformation of host countries. At the same time, developing mid- and downstream capacities in developing and developed countries fosters global value chain diversification and integration, thereby increasing the resilience of worldwide supply of

volume the most important for the construction of renewable energy infrastructure and are also subject to substantial sustainability and mineral security issues. Exceptions to the exclusion of copper on critical minerals lists include Canada and India, while the European Union includes copper (and nickel) as a strategic raw material. Australia added nickel to its critical minerals list in February of 2024 (outside of the official update period of the list), because of disruption to its nickel mining sector caused by oversupply.

¹⁶ Franks et al. (2023). Mineral security essential to achieving the Sustainable Development Goals. *Nature Sustainability* 6, 21–27. <https://rdcu.be/cXgIF>

¹⁷ UNCTAD (2023). State of Commodity Dependence 2023. New York. 258p. https://unctad.org/system/files/official-document/ditccom2023d3_en.pdf

¹⁸ United Nations (2021). Policy Brief: Transforming Extractive Industries for Sustainable Development. May. https://www.un.org/sites/un2.un.org/files/sg_policy_brief_extractives.pdf

CETMs. It is also important that the value of critical energy transition minerals is preserved for future generations since these resources are exhaustible at the locations of extraction.

How can it be addressed? Increased beneficiation and processing of CETMs, and downstream manufacturing of mineral-based renewable energy technology in producer-countries; use of CETM rents for promoting diversification also in sectors outside the CETM value chain;¹⁹ a progressive fiscal regime for mining; sovereign wealth funds for long-term value preservation; fair and equitable sharing of benefits by citizens, including through citizen participation in decision-making; research and development cooperation; and partnerships and the involvement of local and national businesses in mineral supply chains can be pathways to lasting positive outcomes. International cooperation to enhance capacity and share knowledge, technology and research on sustainable, efficient, and just extraction and processing practices of critical energy transition minerals can expedite positive change.²⁰ Triangular knowledge exchange between and among developing and developed countries, technology transfer and support for capacity building can enhance the credibility and success of the energy transition and global climate change action.

Existing commitments, standards and guidelines (for details see links below to Annex 1):

UN Sustainable Development Goals (e.g. 9b, 17.7)

UN Resource Management System (UNRMS) (e.g. Principle 7 - value addition)

Africa Mining Vision (AMV)

Framework of Action for the Development of the Mineral Resources Sector in African, Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) Countries

Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) Minerals Cooperation Action Plan (2016-2025)

G20 Voluntary High-Level Principles for Collaboration on Critical Minerals for Energy Transitions

Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative (EITI) (e.g. requirement 6)

OECD Guiding Principles for Durable Extractives Contracts (e.g. Principle III - 13, 15; Principle IV -20, 21; Principle VIII – 57, 58)

Intergovernmental Forum on Mining, Minerals, Metals and Sustainable Development (IGF) Mining Policy Framework (MPF) (e.g. section 3 socio-economic benefits)

International Council on Mining and Metals (ICMM) Mining Principles and Position Statements (e.g. performance expectation 9 - social performance)

Natural Resource Charter

¹⁹ SEforALL (2023). Africa Renewable Energy Manufacturing: Opportunity and Advancement. Vienna. https://www.seforall.org/system/files/2023-01/%5BFINAL%5D%2020220115_ZOD_SEForAll_AfricanManufacturingReport.pdf; SEforALL (2023), Renewable Energy Manufacturing: Opportunities for Southeast Asia, <https://www.seforall.org/system/files/2023-08/SEAREMI-report-August-2023.pdf>

²⁰ Minerals and mining have not historically, or comparatively, been topics that have attracted significant attention or resources in international development cooperation. According to the OECD, mineral resources and mining were one of the lowest recipients of Official Development Assistance by sector with US\$600M of US\$253B in 2021; OECD (2023). OECD.Stat. Aid (ODA) by sector and donor [DAC5]. <https://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=Table5>.

Transparent and fair trade and investments

The issue: *Enabling trade and investments in critical energy transition minerals through fair, transparent and accountable practice and cooperation, across entire supply chains, supported by innovation, technology sharing and capacity development.*

Why is it relevant? Building trust in a reliant and resilient supply chain requires that trade of and investments in critical energy transition minerals are open, fair and transparent and supported by technological, policy and institutional innovations. Given asymmetric economic power, information, access to technology and other factors, which can inhibit trade, restrict minerals flows, lead to inequitable benefit sharing and even foster crime and corruption, it is important that international and regional trade and investments are based on transparency and respect, with the aim of greater global equity.²¹

How can it be addressed? Fairer outcomes might be achieved through: fairer prices, fair trade and greater price transparency for commodities traded bilaterally, such as the setting of benchmark prices to avoid abusive transfer pricing or mispricing and tax avoidance that undermine the benefits that could be potentially received by the communities where the CETMs are extracted; efforts to ensure that all partners secure fair contracts that guarantee fair revenues, such as capacity building initiatives and advisory services for design of mining codes and concessions, community engagement and development schemes and contract negotiation; investing in research and development for technology innovation, traceability, and the promotion of sustainable production and consumption; regular assessments of potential vulnerabilities across supply chains and dialogue on collective action to respond to potential disruptions; collaboration between countries or regions to sufficiently understand markets, costs and dynamics and the rationale for the introduction of any trade-related measures;²² transparent disclosure of relevant information, such as the revenue received by governments and beneficial ownership; and anti-corruption policies that promote integrity and accountability across the full lifecycle of minerals.

Existing commitments, standards and guidelines (for details see links below to Annex 1):

Stockholm Declaration of the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment (e.g. Principle 10 – price stability and adequate earnings).

UN Sustainable Development Goals (e.g. SDG 7a)

UN Global Compact (e.g. Principle 10)

United Nations Convention against Corruption (UNCAC)

United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (UNTOC)

UN Principles for Responsible Investment (PRI) (e.g. Principle 1, 2, 3 & 4)

UN Resource Management System (UNRMS) (e.g. Principle 11)

UN Framework Classification for Mineral Resources

²¹ Fair Trade is “a trading partnership, based on dialogue, transparency and respect, that seeks greater equity in international trade;” World Fair Trade Organisation and Fairtrade International (2018). The International Fair Trade Charter.

²² IEA (2021). Ibid; UNCTAD (2023) Technical note on critical minerals: Supply chains, trade flows and value addition. UNCTAD/DITC/MISC/2023/14. https://unctad.org/system/files/official-document/ditcmisc2023d1_en_0.pdf

Africa Mining Vision (AMV)**Framework of Action for the Development of the Mineral Resources Sector in African, Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) Countries****Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) Minerals Cooperation Action Plan (2016-2025)****CONNEX Guiding Principles towards Sustainable Development****Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative (EITI)****OECD Guiding Principles for Durable Extractives Contracts** (e.g. financial benefits)**Initiative for Responsible Mineral Assurance (IRMA) Standard for Responsible Mining** (e.g. Chapter 1.5 - revenue and payment transparency; Chapter 3.1 – fair labor and terms of work)**Natural Resource Charter**

Sustainable, responsible and just value chains

The issue: *Promoting environmental sustainability, ensuring the protection of human rights, securing social justice, encouraging responsible businesses and governments to preserve the integrity of the environment, implementing and upholding the rule of law, contributing to climate action, supporting circular economy principles of reuse, recycle and recovery, and going beyond doing no harm to create net positive benefits, including through value addition and community benefit sharing. Furthermore, ensuring protection and respect of the human rights of Indigenous Peoples, workers, children and people affected by mineral development.*

Why is it relevant? Large quantities of critical energy transition minerals are located in contexts with high environmental and social risks.²³ The mining and processing of CETMs is also forecast to escalate the generation of large volumes of tailings and mine waste. One recent study found that mine waste generation for four metals used in batteries (copper, lithium, manganese, and nickel) could generate nearly 2 trillion tonnes of waste between 2020 and 2050.²⁴ For copper, the expected increase is 2.4 times the total amount of tailings produced in the entire 1900-2020 period. The additional tailings storage costs for these metals could amount to US\$1.6 trillion.

Human rights risks are also prevalent in mineral supply chains and the full lifecycle of minerals and represent a threat to the integrity of the renewable energy transition. Any failure to effectively manage these risks is also a threat to the transition itself, with the potential to disrupt supply and undermine the achievement of sustainable development and climate change goals. It may also result in failure to uphold and fulfil the human right to a clean, healthy, and sustainable environment.²⁵ The Business and Human Rights Resource Centre identified 495 allegations of human rights abuse between 2010 to 2021, of which 61 were made in 2021, associated with the mining of key commodities in renewable energy

²³ Lèbre, É., Stringer, M., Svobodova, K. et al. (2020). The social and environmental complexities of extracting energy transition metals. *Nature Communications* 11, 4823. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-020-18661-9>; IEA (2021). Ibid.

²⁴ Valenta, R. K. et al. (2023). Decarbonisation to drive dramatic increase in mining waste—options for reduction. *Resources, Conservation and Recycling* 190 106859 1-11. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.resconrec.2022.106859>

²⁵ UN (2022). The human right to a clean, healthy and sustainable environment. General Assembly resolution 76/300. A/RES/76/300. https://digitallibrary.un.org/record/3983329/files/A_RES_76_300-EN.pdf?ln=en

technologies (Co, Cu, Li, Mn, Ni, Zn).²⁶ One-third of these allegations were directed at human rights defenders (a third of these Indigenous Peoples). Attacks on human rights defenders represented the number one category of allegations, followed by water pollution. Human rights allegations were directed at mining operations of all sizes, artisanal to large scale, with over two-thirds of the allegations including just twelve of the most well-established and prominent companies in the sector. The human rights of workers, children and people affected by mineral development, including mineral processing and manufacturing must be protected and respected. Planning is also required in the context of just transitions to support those impacted upon end of life of mining, mineral processing, manufacturing and recycling operations, especially with rapidly changing technologies driving demand for different minerals, to avoid stranded communities and stranded assets.

More than half of critical energy transition mineral reserves are located on or near the lands of Indigenous Peoples and peasants.²⁷ Indigenous Peoples, local communities and women have historically been excluded and marginalised from decision-making about mining and have infrequently shared equitably in the benefits of development. As a result, opposition to mining projects has been increasing in several parts of the world, especially where consultation with affected communities is insufficient.²⁸

How can it be addressed? Sustainable, responsible and just value chains can be supported through a wide range of measures, including: identifying, assessing and managing potential and actual environmental and social impacts from mineral development activities, including exploration, extraction, closure and post-closure of mining projects as well as downstream processing and manufacturing and end-user activities; meaningfully engaging with, and involving, any affected communities in decision-making; prohibiting and avoiding any mineral exploration or development in legally protected conservation areas; where there are threats of serious or irreversible damage, applying the precautionary principle to support effective environmental protection measures; identifying and assessing potential and actual human rights impacts and corruption risks from mining activities, and when mining activities are conducted in conflict and high-risk areas performing human rights due diligence along mineral supply chains; consulting and cooperating in good faith with Indigenous Peoples, local communities and other key constituencies through their own representative institutions in order to obtain their free and informed consent prior to the approval of any project affecting their lands or territories and other resources.

Efforts to lower primary demand for CETMs, through demand reduction strategies,²⁹ R&D of alternative and more sustainable materials for potential substitution of currently used CETMs, re-mining existing wastes, addressing renewable energy technologies obsolescence to make them last for a longer time period, recycling post-consumer products and resource-service

²⁶ Cato J., Tochukwu M., Zbona C., and Zbona A. (2022). Transition Minerals Tracker: 2021 Analysis. Business & Human Rights Resource Centre. May. 13p. https://media.business-humanrights.org/media/documents/Transition_Minerals_Tracker_Global_analysis.pdf

²⁷ Owen et al. (2023). Energy transition minerals and their intersection with land-connected peoples. *Nat Sustain* 6, 203–211. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41893-022-00994-6> ; IRENA (2023). Geopolitics of the energy transition: Critical materials. International Renewable Energy Agency, Abu Dhabi. 149p.

²⁸ Franks, D.M., Davis, R., Bebbington, A.J., Ali, S.H., Kemp, D. and Scurrell, M., (2014). Conflict translates environmental and social risk into business costs. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 111(21), pp.7576-7581. <https://www.pnas.org/doi/full/10.1073/pnas.1405135111>

²⁹ Dominish, E., Florin, N., Wakefield-Rann, R., (2021). Reducing new mining for electric vehicle battery metals: responsible sourcing through demand reduction strategies and recycling. Report prepared for Earthworks by the Institute for Sustainable Futures, University of Technology Sydney.

models can be pursued as a matter of priority and may contribute to greater resource efficiency.³⁰ However, it is very unlikely that in the short to medium term the demand for critical energy transition minerals can be met from these sources alone.³¹ Circular economy solutions can also be achieved through product design measures and the production of large volume by-products that can reduce mineral wastes, for example, ore-sand by-products for the construction sector.³²

Existing commitments, standards and guidelines (for details see links below to Annex 1):

Universal Declaration of Human Rights (e.g. Article 3 & 25)

Stockholm Declaration of the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment (e.g. Principle 5 and Recommendation 56)

Rio Declaration of the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development

UN Sustainable Development Goals (e.g. SDG 6.3, 6.5, 12.4, 12.5, 14.1, 14.2, 15.1, 15.2, 15.4, 15.5)

UN Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples (UNDRIP)

UN Declaration on the Rights of Peasants and Other People Working in Rural Areas (UNDROP)

UN Global Compact (e.g. Principle 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9)

United Nations Guiding Principles on Business and Human Rights

UN Principles for Responsible Investment (PRI) (e.g. Principle 1, 2 & 3)

UN Resource Management System (UNRMS) (e.g. Principle 2 & 4)

UNECE Aarhus Convention on Access to Information, Public Participation in Decision-Making and Access to Justice in Environmental Matters

ILO Convention concerning the Prohibition and Immediate Action for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour (182)

EU Principles for Sustainable Raw Materials

International Finance Corporation's Performance Standards on Environmental and Social Sustainability

Mosi-Oa-Tunya Declaration on Artisanal and Small-scale Mining, Quarrying and Development

G20 Voluntary High-Level Principles for Collaboration on Critical Minerals for Energy Transitions (e.g. Principle 1)

OECD Due Diligence Guidance for Responsible Supply Chains of Minerals from Conflict-Affected and High-Risk Areas

Minerals Security Partnership (MSP) Principles for Responsible Critical Mineral Supply Chains

Intergovernmental Forum on Mining, Minerals, Metals and Sustainable Development (IGF) Mining Policy Framework (MPF)

³⁰ For example, reduction of the use of silver and silicon in solar cells has contributed to a significant rise in solar PV use in recent years and substantial efforts are underway to survey historical mine wastes in Australia for energy transition mineral resources; IEA. (2021). *Ibid.*; Geoscience Australia (2022). *Atlas of Australian Mine Waste puts secondary prospectivity on the map.* <https://www.eftf.ga.gov.au/news/atlas-australian-mine-waste-puts-secondary-prospectivity-map>; UN (2022). *United Nations Resource Management System – Principles and Requirements, Geneva, UN ECE Energy Series 74.* https://unece.org/sites/default/files/2023-02/2229237_E_ECE_ENERGY_144_WEB.pdf

³¹ Sovacool, B. K. et al. (2020). Sustainable minerals and metals for a low-carbon future. *Science* 367, 30–33

³² Segura-Salazar, Juliana and Franks, Daniel M. (2023). *Ore-sand co-production from Newcrest's Cadia East HydroFloat Reject: an exploratory study.* Brisbane, QLD, Australia: The University of Queensland. <https://doi.org/10.14264/96249f6>

Voluntary Principles on Security and Human Rights (VPs)

Global Industry Standard on Tailings Management

Initiative for Responsible Mineral Assurance (IRMA) Standard for Responsible Mining

International Council on Mining and Metals (ICMM) Mining Principles and Position Statements

Guidelines for Social Responsibility in Outbound Mining Investments

Just energy transition principles for human rights in business and investment

Code of Risk-mitigation for ASM engaging in Formal Trade (CRAFT)

Natural Resource Charter

Mineral value chain stability and resilience

The issue: *Facilitating the reliable, resilient, secure, sustainable and affordable supply of critical energy transition minerals through cooperation between producers and consumers including the expansion, access, financing, infrastructure and diversification of mineral supply chains, as well as respect for the principle of sovereignty, equal rights, right to development and self-determination of peoples.*

Why is this relevant? Energy security, and the stability and accessibility of mineral supplies are fundamentally linked. Ensuring sufficient and affordable access to CETMs will require reliable, diverse and resilient mineral supply chains. Mineral security has emerged as a key topic of concern, with many UN Member States developing mineral security policies and lists of ‘critical minerals,’ ‘critical raw materials’ and ‘strategic minerals’ to identify and reduce supply chain disruptions to their economies. To be consistent with existing human security commitments, mineral security exists “when all people have sufficient and affordable access to the minerals necessary for human development, including for shelter, mobility, communication, energy and sustenance.”^{33, 34}

The availability of minerals for future use as revenue generator, store of equity, and as inputs into processes and providers of services that facilitate structural transformation are crucial for economic security and stability in mineral-producing countries. Stabilising the flow of minerals while ensuring that mineral-producing developing countries break away from the past economic model of merely supplying raw materials in global value chains is essential.

How can it be addressed? Mineral security is relevant for both mineral-producing countries as well as mineral-consuming. For mineral-consuming countries, the reliable supply of critical energy transition minerals is necessary for manufacturing renewable energy technologies and products. A more widely distributed and robust global supply chain of CETMs and associated manufacturing, thus can build resilience to supply chain disruptions and accelerate the accessibility of technologies necessary for all countries to achieve their climate change commitments.

³³ Franks et al. (2023). Mineral security essential to achieving the Sustainable Development Goals. *Nature Sustainability* 6, 21–27. <https://rdcu.be/cXqIF>

³⁴ For existing human security commitments see the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (Article 3 and 25-1); the principles outlined in the Stockholm Declaration of the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment (Principle 3, 5 and 21) and SDG 1.4, 7, 7.1 and 7.2 (see Annex 1).

For mineral producing countries with large reserves of CETMs, as well as for those countries without access to either minerals or mineral-based manufacturing industries, they experience a range of mineral security risks associated with unaffordable access to mineral-based renewable energy products, technologies, infrastructure, as well as the lack of capacity to build forward linkages with local manufacturing. CETM producing countries currently do not sufficiently benefit from the technologies enabled by their mineral endowment. For example, of the 1980 kt of lithium exported from Chile, Argentina and Bolivia between 2002 and 2022, only 13 kt of lithium was returned to Latin America (>150 times less), incorporated into high-cost and technologically complex products.³⁵ Supply stability must be balanced with transformation across the value chains and building circular economic sectors in mineral-producing countries.

International engagement, including south-south cooperation and dialogue between consumer and producer countries, is therefore necessary to improve mineral security, within the context of Member State commitments to energy security, sustainability and poverty-reduction, as well as respect for the principles of sovereignty, right to development, equal rights and self-determination of peoples. Such cooperation could include: clear market signals on fair minerals pricing, supply and trade, de-risking investments, energy transition and climate objectives; dialogue between producers and consumers to identify key bottlenecks and co-ordinate investment decisions; renewed commitments to technology and capability transfer and development, including for mineral processing, refining and manufacturing; agreements to support affordable and reliable access for mineral-producing countries to the products made from their minerals; promoting North-South collaborations and research and development; ensuring technology transfer; facilitating the development of regional supply chains leveraging complementary CETM resources, aggregated demand and linkages to manufacturing; ensuring mineral security is a focus of poverty reduction strategies and actions; cooperation to strengthen geological knowledge about mineral prospectivity respecting sovereignty; using consistent classification and reporting standards for transparent, accurate and comprehensive information and data management across the lifecycle of CETMs;³⁶ and the introduction of environmental and social safeguards and policies.

Finally, to ensure long-term stability in mineral-producing countries, efforts must be directed at encouraging governments to build fiscal preservation instruments or sovereign wealth funds within sound government frameworks. This would ensure revenue stabilisation in the long-term while avoiding macro-economic dislocations and socio-economic frictions that could be triggered by international price shocks, reversal of capital inflows, and job losses.

Existing commitments, standards and guidelines (for details see links below to Annex 1):

Universal Declaration of Human Rights (e.g. Article 3 & 25-1)

Stockholm Declaration of the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment (e.g. Principle 3, 5 & 21)

UN Declaration on the Right to Development (DRTD)

UN Sustainable Development Goals (e.g. SDG 1.4, 7, 7.1 & 7.2)

³⁵ Orquera, E, Xu, G, Zhang, Z and Matsubae, K (2024) Material Flow Analysis of Lithium in Latin America. Tohoku University; see also UNCTAD (2023) Ibid.

³⁶ UNECE, United Nations Framework Classification for Resources, <https://unece.org/sustainable-energy/sustainable-resource-management/united-nations-framework-classification>

Annex 1. Existing Commitments, Standards and Guidelines

Summary	Parties	Commitments
Inter-governmental		
Universal Declaration of Human Rights	The Declaration was adopted by the UN General Assembly at its 183 rd meeting, held in Paris on 10 December 1948.	<p>The Declaration establishes the basis for human security, and the indivisibility and interdependence of <i>all</i> human rights. The Declaration states, inter alia:</p> <p>Article 3: Everyone has the right to life, liberty and the security of person.</p> <p>Article 25 (1): Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and of his family, including food, clothing, housing and medical care and necessary social services, and the right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond his control.</p> <p>UN (1948). Universal Declaration of Human Rights. https://www.un.org/en/about-us/universal-declaration-of-human-rights</p>
Stockholm Declaration of the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment	<p>The United Nations Conference on the Human Environment was held in Stockholm, Sweden, on the 5-16 June 1972 and was the first world conference on the environment. The Conference was attended by representatives of 113 UN Member States, as well as members of the specialized UN agencies.</p> <p>The participants adopted by acclamation the Stockholm Declaration which contained 26 principles for sound management of the environment. At its twenty-seventh session, on 15 December 1972, the UN General Assembly, adopted resolution 2994 (XXVII) noting with satisfaction the report of the Conference and drew the attention of Governments to the Declaration.</p> <p>On the 2nd and 3rd of June, 2022, the Stockholm 50+ conference was convened to advance the</p>	<p>The Stockholm Declaration established principles and recommendations with relevance to critical energy transition minerals, energy security and mineral security, including:</p> <p>Principle 5: The non-renewable resources of the earth must be employed in such a way as to guard against the danger of their future exhaustion and to ensure that benefits from such employment are shared by all mankind.</p> <p>Principle 8: Economic and social development is essential for ensuring a favorable living and working environment for man and for creating conditions on earth that are necessary for the improvement of the quality of life.</p> <p>Principle 10: For the developing countries, stability of prices and adequate earnings for primary commodities and raw materials are essential to environmental management, since economic factors as well as ecological processes must be taken into account.</p> <p>Principle 21: States have, in accordance with the Charter of the United Nations and the principles of international law, the sovereign right to exploit their own resources pursuant to their own environmental policies, and the responsibility to ensure that</p>

Summary	Parties	Commitments
	<p>legacy of the original conference, featuring four plenary sessions in which leaders made calls for bold environmental action to accelerate the implementation of the 2030 Agenda and the Sustainable Development Goals. The conference included three leadership dialogues, hundreds of side events and webinars, as well as series of regional multi-stakeholder consultations.</p>	<p>activities within their jurisdiction or control do not cause damage to the environment of other States or of areas beyond the limits of national jurisdiction.</p> <p>Recommendation 56: It is recommended that the Secretary-General provide the appropriate vehicle for the exchange of information on mining and mineral processing.</p> <p>(a) Improved accessibility and dissemination of existing information is required; the body of literature and experience is already larger than one would think.</p> <p>(b) Possibilities include the accumulation of information on: (i) the environmental conditions of mine sites; (ii) the action taken in respect of the environment; and (iii) the positive and negative environmental repercussions.</p> <p>(c) Such a body of information could be used for prediction. Criteria for the planning and management of mineral production would emerge and would indicate where certain kinds of mining should be limited, where reclamation costs would be particularly high, or where other problems would arise.</p> <p>(d) The appropriate United Nations bodies should make efforts to assist the developing countries by, inter alia, providing adequate information for each country on the technology for preventing present or future environmentally adverse effects of mining and the adverse health and safety effects associated with the mineral industry and by accepting technical trainees and sending experts.</p> <p>UN (1973). Report of the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment. New York. A/CONF.48/14/Rev.1. 77p.</p> <p>UN (2022). Stockholm 50+: a healthy planet for the prosperity of all – our responsibility, our opportunity. A/CONF.238/9. 28p.</p>
<p>UN Declaration on the Right to Development (DRTD)</p>	<p>The DRTD was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly by its resolution 41/128 of 4 December 1986.</p>	<p>The 10 Articles of the DRTD provide a comprehensive framework and approach that integrate aspects of both human rights and development theory and practice and require active, free and meaningful participation of the people in the process of development. They embody the human rights principles of equality, non-discrimination, participation, transparency, accountability as well as international cooperation in an integrated manner. They reaffirm the principles of self-determination and full sovereignty over natural wealth and resources and involve both national and international dimensions of State responsibilities including responsibilities in the</p>

Summary	Parties	Commitments
		<p>creation of an enabling environment for development and favourable conditions for all human rights.</p> <p>The idea behind the right to development is the adoption of a comprehensive and human-centred development policy, participatory development processes, social justice and equity.</p> <p>UN (1986). Declaration on the Right to Development. General Assembly resolution 41/128 of 4 December.</p>
<p>Rio Declaration of the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development</p>	<p>The United Nations Conference on Environment and Development, also known as the 'Earth Summit', was held in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, from 3-14 June 1992 bringing together political leaders and representatives of civil society from 179 countries. This global conference was held on the occasion of the 20th anniversary of the Human Environment Conference in Stockholm, Sweden, in 1972.</p> <p>On the 20th to 22nd of June 2012, the United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development – or Rio+20 – took place in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. It resulted in a focused political outcome document which contains clear and practical measures for implementing sustainable development.</p>	<p>The Declaration includes the Precautionary Principle (15), which commits Member States to not use any lack of full scientific certainty as a reason for postponing measures to prevent environmental degradation; the Common But Differentiated Responsibilities Principle (7), where developed countries acknowledged the responsibility that they bear in the international pursuit of sustainable development in view of the pressures their societies place on the global environment and of the technologies and financial resources they command; the Intergenerational Equity Principle (3), where development and environmental needs of present and future generations are to be equitably met; and the Polluter Pays Principle (16), where the polluter is expected, in principle, to bear the cost of pollution, amongst other expectations.</p> <p>UN (1993). Report of the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development. Rio de Janeiro, 3-14 June, 1992. A/CONF.151/26/Rev.1 (Vol.I)</p> <p>UN (2012). The Future We Want. United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development. Rio de Janeiro, 20-22 June, 2012. A/CONF.216/L.1</p>
<p>UN Sustainable Development Goals</p>	<p>The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development was adopted by all UN Member States at the UN Sustainable Development Summit held in New York, 25-27 September, 2015. The Summit was convened as a high-level plenary meeting of the General Assembly. A SDG Summit was convened in September 2023 to mark the half-way point to 2030 and reconfirm commitment</p>	<p>While the Sustainable Development Goals do not make explicit reference to minerals they do commit to a range of issues relevant to energy transition, including equal rights of access to natural resources and energy security as well as international cooperation on natural resource management and capacity building. In particular:</p> <p>1.4. By 2030, ensure that all men and women, in particular the poor and the vulnerable, have equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to basic services,</p>

Summary	Parties	Commitments
	to the Agenda and implementation of all SDGs despite recent setbacks.	<p>ownership and control over land and other forms of property, inheritance, natural resources, appropriate new technology and financial services, including microfinance.</p> <p>7. Ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy for all.</p> <p>7.2. By 2030, increase substantially the share of renewable energy in the global energy mix.</p> <p>7.a. By 2030, enhance international cooperation to facilitate access to clean energy research and technology, including renewable energy, energy efficiency and advanced and cleaner fossil-fuel technology, and promote investment in energy infrastructure and clean energy technology.</p> <p>7.b. By 2030, expand infrastructure and upgrade technology for supplying modern and sustainable energy services for all in developing countries, in particular least developed countries, small island developing States and landlocked developing countries, in accordance with their respective programmes of support.</p> <p>9.a. Facilitate sustainable and resilient infrastructure development in developing countries through enhanced financial, technological and technical support to African countries, least developed countries, landlocked developing countries and small island developing States.</p> <p>9.b. Support domestic technology development, research and innovation in developing countries, including by ensuring a conducive policy environment for, inter alia, industrial diversification and value addition to commodities.</p> <p>17.7. Promote the development, transfer, dissemination and diffusion of environmentally sound technologies to developing countries on favourable terms, including on concessional and preferential terms, as mutually agreed.</p> <p>UN (2015). Transforming Our World: The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. A/RES/70/1.</p>
UN Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) & Paris Agreement	The UNFCCC is an international treaty to combat dangerous human interference with the climate system. The treaty has 165 signatories and 198 parties.	The UNFCCC's main objective is to stabilize greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere at a level that would prevent dangerous anthropogenic interference with the climate system.

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	<p>The Paris Agreement was adopted on 12 December 2015 at the twenty-first session of the Conference of the Parties to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change held in Paris from 30 November to 13 December 2015. It has 198 signatories and 195 parties.</p>	<p>UN (1992). UN Framework Convention on Climate Change. FCCC/INFORMAL/84 GE.05-62220 (E) 200705.</p> <p>The Paris Agreement, in its article Article 2, sets out its purpose as follows:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. This Agreement, in enhancing the implementation of the Convention, including its objective, aims to strengthen the global response to the threat of climate change, in the context of sustainable development and efforts to eradicate poverty, including by: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Holding the increase in the global average temperature to well below 2 °C above preindustrial levels and pursuing efforts to limit the temperature increase to 1.5 °C above pre-industrial levels, recognizing that this would significantly reduce the risks and impacts of climate change; b. Increasing the ability to adapt to the adverse impacts of climate change and foster climate resilience and low greenhouse gas emissions development, in a manner that does not threaten food production; and c. Making finance flows consistent with a pathway towards low greenhouse gas emissions and climate-resilient development. 2. This Agreement will be implemented to reflect equity and the principle of common but differentiated responsibilities and respective capabilities, in the light of different national circumstances. <p>UN (2015). Paris Agreement. 25p.</p>
<p>UN Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples (UNDRIP)</p>	<p>UNDRIP was adopted by the UN General Assembly as a legally non-binding resolution [A/RES/61/295] on 13 September 2007. One-hundred and forty-three countries voted in favour. The four countries that originally voted against now support the Declaration.</p>	<p>UNDRIP commits Member States to respect the rights of Indigenous Peoples to Free Prior and Informed, amongst other expectations.</p> <p>United Nations (2007). United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples. General Assembly Resolution 61/295. October. 11p.</p>
<p>UN Declaration on the Rights of Peasants and</p>	<p>UNDROP was adopted by the General Assembly on the 17th of December 2018. One-hundred and</p>	<p>UNDROP calls on Member States to take appropriate measures to eliminate conditions that cause or help to perpetuate discrimination, including multiple and</p>

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Other People Working in Rural Areas (UNDROP)	twenty-one countries voted in favour of the resolution.	intersecting forms of discrimination, against peasants and other people working in rural areas, amongst other expectations. United Nations (2018). United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Peasants and Other People Working in Rural Areas . General Assembly Resolution 73/165.
United Nations Environment Assembly	<p>The United Nations Environment Assembly (UNEA) is the world's highest-level decision-making body for matters related to the environment, with a universal membership of all 193 Member States.</p> <p>It sets the global environmental agenda, provides overarching policy guidance, and defines policy responses to address emerging environmental challenges. It undertakes policy review, dialogue and the exchange of experiences, sets the strategic guidance on the future direction of the UN Environment Programme (UNEP), and fosters partnerships for achieving environmental goals and resource mobilization.</p>	<p>The fourth session of UNEA adopted resolution 4/19 on mineral resource governance which, inter alia, requests UNEP to collect information on sustainable practices, identify knowledge gaps and options for implementation strategies, and undertake an overview of existing assessments of different governance initiatives and approaches on sustainable management of metal and mineral resources. The implementation report is available online.</p> <p>In 2022, UNEA adopted a follow-up resolution, 5/12 on environmental aspects of minerals and metals management which, inter alia, requests UNEP to, convene transparent and inclusive intergovernmental regional consultations, with the aim of developing non-prescriptive proposals to enhance the environmental sustainability of minerals and metals; strengthen scientific, technical and policy knowledge with regard to sand; and compile a report on knowledge gaps in relation to the environmental aspects of tailings management. The implementation report, co-chairs' summary, and tailings knowledge gaps report are available online.</p> <p>The sixth session of UNEA, in March 2024, adopted a further resolution on environmental aspects of minerals and metals management (resolution 6/5) requesting UNEP to, among others, establish a digital knowledge hub on existing good practices relevant to the environmental aspects of minerals and metals; (b) develop capacity-building opportunities relating to environmental aspects of minerals and metals with experts on the subject from each region; (c) support enhanced cooperation among Member States to strengthen the policy, technological, technical and scientific elements of the management of environmental aspects of minerals and metals; and, to strengthen the cooperation between UNEP and relevant international and regional organizations and forums, and with relevant stakeholders, on environmental aspects of minerals and metals. The resolution is currently being implemented.</p>
UN Global Compact	The UN Global Compact is a principle-based framework for businesses announced by then UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan at the World	The principles are as follows: Human Rights

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	<p>Economic Forum on 31 January 1999. It was officially launched at UN Headquarters in New York City on 26 July 2000, and now numbers nearly 25,000 participating organisations.</p>	<p>Principle 1: Businesses should support and respect the protection of internationally proclaimed human rights; and Principle 2: make sure that they are not complicit in human rights abuses.</p> <p>Labour</p> <p>Principle 3: Businesses should uphold the freedom of association and the effective recognition of the right to collective bargaining; Principle 4: the elimination of all forms of forced and compulsory labour; Principle 5: the effective abolition of child labour; and Principle 6: the elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation.</p> <p>Environment</p> <p>Principle 7: Businesses should support a precautionary approach to environmental challenges; Principle 8: undertake initiatives to promote greater environmental responsibility; and Principle 9: encourage the development and diffusion of environmentally friendly technologies.</p> <p>Anti-corruption</p> <p>Principle 10: Businesses should work against corruption in all its forms, including extortion and bribery.</p> <p>https://unglobalcompact.org/</p>
<p>United Nations Guiding Principles on Business and Human Rights</p>	<p>The Guiding Principles were unanimously endorsed by the UN Human Rights Council on June 16, 2011.</p>	<p>The Guiding Principles contain three pillars: protect, respect and remedy. Each defines concrete, actionable steps for governments and companies to meet their respective duties and responsibilities to prevent human rights abuses in company operations and provide remedies if such abuses take place. The framework has been incorporated into a wide range of industry and multi-stakeholder standards including those of the ICMM and the Initiative for Responsible Mineral Assurance (IRMA).</p> <p>Ruggie, J. (2011). Guiding Principles on Business and Human Rights: Implementing the United Nations “Protect, Respect and Remedy” Framework. March 21, 2011. A/HRC/17/31.</p>

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Addis Ababa Action Agenda of the Third International Conference on Financing for Development	The Addis Ababa Action Agenda is the outcome document adopted at the Third International Conference on Financing for Development held in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, 13–16 July 2015, attended by 193 UN Member States. It was endorsed by the General Assembly in its resolution 69/313 of 27 July 2015.	The Addis Agenda is a global framework that seeks to align financing flows and policies with economic, social, and environmental priorities. Expanding on the previous Financing for Development outcomes, the document includes seven Action Areas: Domestic public resources; Domestic and international private business and finance; International development cooperation; International trade as an engine for development; Debt and debt sustainability; Addressing systemic issues; Science, technology, innovation, and capacity building. UN (2015). Addis Ababa Action Agenda of the Third International Conference on Financing for Development . New York.
United Nations Convention against Corruption (UNCAC)	The convention was adopted by the UN General Assembly on 31 October 2003 and has been ratified by 190 parties and came into force in December of 2005.	The Convention Commits Member States to a series of anti-corruption measures with relevance to mineral development. Corruption is a key facilitator of illegality, including in the minerals sector. Types of corruption include bribery, embezzlement, trading in influence, abuse of functions or money laundering. Specific measures in line with the provisions of the Convention enable States to prevent, deter and, where necessary, prosecute corruption in the mining sector. UN Office on Drugs and Crime (2004). United Nations Convention against Corruption . Vienna.
United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (UNTOC)	The convention was adopted by the UN General Assembly on 15 November 2000 and has been ratified by 192 parties. The convention entered into force in September 2003.	The Convention is the main international instrument in the fight against transnational organized crime. ECOSOC Res. 2019/23 titled “Combating transnational organized crime and its links to illicit trafficking in precious metals and illegal mining, including by enhancing the security of supply chains of precious metals on the recommendation of the Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice” (E/2019/30’) raised concerns about the growing involvement of organized criminal groups in illicit trafficking in precious metals and the substantial increase in the volume and range of transnational criminal offence, encourages States to make use of the provisions of both the UNTOC and UNCAC. United Nations (2000). UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime . New York, 15 November.

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UN Principles for Responsible Investment (PRI)	The PRI is a United Nations-supported international network of financial institutions working together to implement six voluntary aspirational principles. More than 5,300 signatories from over 80 countries have signed up to the principles representing over US\$120 trillion in investment.	<p>The principles are as follows:</p> <p>Principle 1: We will incorporate ESG issues into investment analysis and decision-making processes.</p> <p>Principle 2: We will be active owners and incorporate ESG issues into our ownership policies and practices.</p> <p>Principle 3: We will seek appropriate disclosure on ESG issues by the entities in which we invest.</p> <p>Principle 4: We will promote acceptance and implementation of the Principles within the investment industry.</p> <p>Principle 5: We will work together to enhance our effectiveness in implementing the Principles.</p> <p>Principle 6: We will each report on our activities and progress towards implementing the Principles.</p> <p>https://www.unpri.org/</p>
UN Framework Classification for Mineral Resources	The UN Economic Commission for Europe through a Minerals Working Group of the Expert Group on Resource Management (EGRM) developed ‘Supplementary Specifications for the Application of the United Nations Framework Classification for Resources (UNFC) to Minerals Projects.’	<p>The UNFC is a classification standard for the sustainable management of mineral resources.</p> <p>UNECE (2021). Supplementary Specifications for the Application of the United Nations Framework Classification for Resources to Minerals. Geneva.</p>
UN Resource Management System (UNRMS)	The UN Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE) through a Minerals Working Group of the Expert Group on Resource Management (EGRM) developed the ‘United Nations Resource Management System – Principles and Requirements’	<p>The UNRMS is an innovative integrated resource management framework for resources to be used by governments, industry, investors, and civil society to support the development of policies and regulations in the advancement of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).</p> <p>United Nations (2022). United Nations Resource Management System – Principles and Requirements, Geneva, UNECE Energy Series 74.</p>
UNECE Aarhus Convention on Access to Information, Public Participation in	The Convention was negotiated in Aarhus, Denmark, on 25 June 1998. The Secretariat is	Signatories are committed to ensure public access to information on environmental matters, participation in decision-making, and access to justice.

Summary	Parties	Commitments
Decision-Making and Access to Justice in Environmental Matters	<p>provided by the UN Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE).</p> <p>The forty-seven signatories to the Convention are: Albania, Armenia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, European Union, Finland, France, Georgia, Germany, Greece, Guinea-Bissau, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Monaco, Montenegro, Netherlands, North Macedonia, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Ukraine, United Kingdom.</p>	<p>United Nations (1998). Convention on Access to Information, Public Participation in Decision-Making and Access to Justice in Environmental Matters. Aarhus, Denmark. 126p.</p>
ILO Convention concerning the Prohibition and Immediate Action for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour (182)	<p>The Convention was ratified by 187 parties and came into force on 19 November 2000.</p>	<p>The concept of worst forms of child labour and forced labour appears across a range of ILO Conventions and is applicable to some mining contexts. It applies to underground or underwater work, work with dangerous machinery and tools, carrying heavy loads, work that exposes children to hazardous substances or that severely harms their health, safety or morals in general.</p> <p>ILO (1930). ILO Convention C029 - Forced Labour Convention. Geneva. ILO (1999). ILO Convention C182 on Worst Forms of Child Labour. ILO. Geneva. ILO (1999). ILO Recommendation R190 - Worst Forms of Child Labour Recommendation. ILO. Geneva.</p>
Africa Mining Vision (AMV)	<p>The AMV was adopted by 54 Heads of State at the February 2009 African Union Summit following the October 2008 meeting of African Ministers responsible for Mineral Resources Development.</p>	<p>The AMV outlines aspirations for a transparent, equitable and optimal exploitation of mineral resources to underpin broad-based sustainable growth and socio-economic development. The shared vision of the AMV calls for:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a knowledge-driven African mining sector that catalyses and contributes to the broad-based growth and development of, and is fully integrated into, a single African market through economic linkages, including: downstream

Summary	Parties	Commitments
	<p>The Member States adopted the AMV are: Algeria, Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Central African Republic, Chad, Comoros, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Republic of the Congo, Djibouti, Egypt, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Eswatini, Ethiopia, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Ivory Coast, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Libya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Morocco, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sahrawi Arab Democratic Republic, São Tomé and Príncipe, Senegal, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Somalia, South Africa, Sudan, Tanzania, Togo, Tunisia, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe. South Sudan has since become an Africa Union Member.</p>	<p>(mineral beneficiation and manufacturing); up-stream (mining capital goods, consumables and services industries); side-stream (infrastructure skills and technology development); mutually beneficial partnerships between the state, the private sector, civil society, local communities and other stakeholders; and a comprehensive knowledge of its mineral endowment;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a sustainable and well-governed mining sector that effectively garners and deploys resource rents and that is safe, healthy, gender and ethnically inclusive, environmentally friendly, socially responsible and appreciated by surrounding communities; • a mining sector that has become a key component of a diversified, vibrant and globally competitive industrialising African economy; • a mining sector that has helped establish a competitive African infrastructure platform, through the maximisation of its propulsive local and regional economic linkages; • a mining sector that optimises and husbands Africa’s finite mineral resource endowments and that is diversified, incorporating both high value metals and lower value industrial minerals at both commercial and small-scale levels; • a mining sector that harnesses the potential of artisanal and small-scale mining to stimulate local/national entrepreneurship, improve livelihoods and advance integrated rural social and economic development; and • a mining sector that is a major player in vibrant and competitive national, continental and international capital and commodity markets. <p>African Union (2009). Africa Mining Vision. February. 47p.</p>
<p>Framework of Action for the Development of the Mineral Resources Sector in African, Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) Countries</p>	<p>Endorsed by the Africa, Caribbean and Pacific Committee of Ambassadors in 2011.</p> <p>The Organisation of African, Caribbean and Pacific States has 79 member states.</p>	<p>The Framework proposes actions to enhance the capacity of public mineral institutions; develop mineral exploration and geoscientific information systems; develop the small- and medium-scale mining sectors; reduce adverse social and environmental impacts; improve energy and transport infrastructure related to mining and enhance mineral-based industrialisation and diversification of ACP economies; as well as the ACP-EU Cooperative Framework for Private Sector Development in ACP</p>

Summary	Parties	Commitments
		Countries, that outlines a strategy for assisting small businesses in the provision of improved access to finance and supporting transition to the formal economy.
Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) Minerals Cooperation Action Plan (2016-2025)	Adopted by the ASEAN Member States at the 8th ASEAN Ministerial Meeting on Minerals on 8 October 2021. ASEAN Member States include: Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, and Vietnam.	The Plan seeks to create an advanced and progressive ASEAN minerals sector for socio-economic prosperity and environmental well-being, through enhancing trade and investment and strengthening cooperation and capacity building for sustainable mineral development in the region. ASEAN (2021). ASEAN Minerals Cooperation Action Plan 2016-2025 (AMCAP-III) Phase 2: 2021-2025.
EU Principles for Sustainable Raw Materials	The Raw Materials Supply Group, including EU Member States, regional authorities, industry associations, civil society, social partners, research organisations, as well as the European Commission developed and agreed upon a set of voluntary, non-mandatory EU principles for sustainable raw materials. The member states of the EU include: Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, The Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden.	The EU principles for sustainable raw materials align the understanding of sustainable raw materials extraction (from exploration to post-closure) and processing operations in the EU amongst Member States and define the general direction towards the SDGs. The eight principles build upon existing EU legislation concerning sustainability, and refer to internationally agreed sustainable raw materials extraction and processing initiatives. The principles do not impose any obligations on the Member States or industry. European Union (2021). EU Principles for Sustainable Raw Materials . Publications Office of the European Union.
International Finance Corporation's Performance Standards on Environmental and Social Sustainability	The Performance Standards have been adopted into a wide range of industry and multistakeholder standards including the Equator Principles, which has a membership of 140 financial institutions in 39 countries.	The Performance Standards include a wide range of environmental and socio-economic management commitments, which are a condition of finance for IFC funded private sector projects. Among these commitments the Performance Standards require “projects with adverse impacts to Indigenous Peoples...to engage them in a process of Informed Consultation and Participation (ICP) and in certain circumstances... obtain their Free, Prior, and Informed Consent (FPIC).” These circumstances include: where there are impacts on lands and natural resources subject to Traditional Ownership or under

Summary	Parties	Commitments
		<p>Customary Use; where relocation of Indigenous Peoples from lands and natural resources is anticipated; where a project may significantly impact on critical cultural heritage; or where a project proposes to use the cultural heritage including knowledge, innovations, or practices of Indigenous Peoples for commercial purposes.</p> <p>IFC (2012). IFC Performance Standards on Environmental and Social Sustainability. Washington. 66p.</p> <p>Equator Principles (2020). EP4. July. 36p.</p>
<p>Mosi-Oa-Tunya Declaration on Artisanal and Small-scale Mining, Quarrying and Development</p>	<p>The Declaration was carried by acclamation at the International Conference on Artisanal and Small-scale Mining and Quarrying held in Livingstone, Zambia, 11–13 September, 2018, attended by five-hundred and forty-seven delegates, representing 72 nations.</p> <p>The conference was opened by the President of the Republic of Zambia, and convened by the OACPS, European Union, UNDP and The Government of Zambia, with the support of The World Bank, The African Union, OECD, ICGLR, The Intergovernmental Forum on Mining, Minerals, Metals and Sustainable Development, German Cooperation, The African Minerals Development Centre, The African Minerals and Geosciences Centre and The Pacific Community.</p>	<p>The Declaration identifies principles and actions to better integrate artisanal and small-scale mining into poverty reduction and sustainable development and crucially was developed with the participation of large numbers of representatives of ASM associations. The Declaration itself builds on the ‘Harare Guidelines’ developed at the Interregional Seminar on Guidelines for Development of Small and Medium Scale Mining, held in Harare, Zimbabwe in 1993; the International Roundtable on Artisanal Mining held in Washington DC in 1996; and the Vision Statement of the Seminar on Artisanal and Small- scale Mining in Africa, held in Yaoundé, Cameroon in 2002.</p> <p>Mosi-oa-Tunya Declaration on Artisanal and Small-scale Mining, Quarrying and Development. September, 2018.</p>
<p>CONNEX Guiding Principles towards Sustainable Development</p>	<p>The Principles were developed by the CONNEX Initiative, which was launched by the G7 in 2014.</p> <p>The G7 includes: Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, the United Kingdom and the United States; with the European Union a ‘non-</p>	<p>The CONNEX Guiding Principles towards Sustainable Development assists developing and transitional countries in complex contract negotiations in the extractive sector.</p> <p>G7 (2014). CONNEX Guiding Principles towards Sustainable Development.</p>

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	enumerated' member that is represented at all meetings; the German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development established the CONNEX Support Unit as the implementing body in 2017.	
Voluntary High-Level Principles for Collaboration on Critical Minerals for Energy Transitions	<p>The Principles were developed as an outcome of the G20 Energy Transitions Ministers' Meeting, held in Goa, India 22 July, 2023, and noted by G20 Members.</p> <p>The G20 comprises 19 countries (Argentina, Australia, Brazil, Canada, China, France, Germany, India, Indonesia, Italy, Japan, Republic of Korea, Mexico, Russia, Saudi Arabia, South Africa, Türkiye, United Kingdom and United States) and two regional bodies: the European Union and the African Union.</p>	<p>The Principles are as follows.</p> <p>Principle 1: Critical minerals are important for the energy transition and there is a need to develop and build a stable, reliable, responsible and sustainable value chain of such minerals adhering to national Environmental, Social and Governance standards.</p> <p>Principle 2: Periodically collaborate to develop and deploy resource efficient and alternative technologies and on substitution of critical minerals where possible to reduce the risk of critical mineral supply-demand imbalances.</p> <p>Principle 3: Increase sustainable critical mineral supply by accelerating innovations and developing efficient technologies for exploration, mining, beneficiation at source and processing of critical minerals. Support local value creation in critical mineral supply chain through beneficiation and work towards technology diffusion, skill development and increased flow of public and private sector investments to resource rich countries to promote sustainable and responsible development of upstream supply.</p> <p>Principle 4: Work towards increasing the circularity of critical minerals by developing sustainable methods and scaling up technology innovations to increase the recovery and re-use of critical minerals.</p> <p>G20 (2023) Energy Transitions Ministers' Meeting Outcome Document and Chair's Summary. Goa, India 22 July, 2023.</p>
Minerals Security Partnership (MSP) Principles for Responsible Critical Mineral Supply Chains	<p>The MSP is a collaboration that aims to catalyze public and private investment in responsible critical minerals supply chains globally.</p>	<p>The principles outline the shared commitment of the MSP partner governments to the full integration of ESG standards, guidance, and support into MSP activities. The principles cover sustainable development, including the importance of human health, human rights, internationally recognized worker rights, good governance, local community benefit, indigenous consultation, stakeholder engagement, financial</p>

Summary	Parties	Commitments
	MSP partners include: Australia, Canada, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, India, Italy, Japan, Norway, the Republic of Korea, Sweden, the United Kingdom, the United States, and the European Union.	transparency, supply chain traceability and accountability, affordability, the circular economy, and environmental protection. MSP (2023) Minerals Security Partnership (MSP) Principles for Responsible Critical Mineral Supply Chains .
Multi-stakeholder		
Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative (EITI)	The EITI is a global standard for the good governance of oil, gas and mineral resources, and was first launched in September 2002 during the World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg. The EITI is implemented by fifty-seven countries and supported by sixty-two oil, gas and mining companies, financial institutions, and commodity traders. The EITI is implemented by more than 50 countries .	The EITI 2023 Standard includes a wide array of expectations, including many that are relevant to critical energy transition minerals. EITI (2023). Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative Standard 2023 . June. Oslo, Norway, 51p.
OECD Due Diligence Guidance for Responsible Supply Chains of Minerals from Conflict-Affected and High-Risk Areas	The OECD Due Diligence Guidance is a government-backed multi-stakeholder initiative developed and endorsed by the OECD, representing 38 member countries , and 11 members of the International Conference on the Great Lakes Region and the due diligence recommendations were supported by the UN Security Council in resolution 1952 [S/RES/1952(2010)].	The OECD Due Diligence Guidance provides a framework for companies to identify and mitigate risks of contributing to conflict financing, human rights violations, corruption and anti-money laundering in their supply chains, as well as an Appendix calling on all stakeholders to support the creation of economic and development opportunities for artisanal and small-scale miners. OECD (2016). OECD Due Diligence Guidance for Responsible Supply Chains of Minerals from Conflict-Affected and High-Risk Areas : Third Edition, OECD Publishing, Paris.
OECD Guiding Principles for Durable Extractives Contracts	Developed through multi-stakeholder consultations and endorsed at the OECD's 12 th Plenary Meeting of the Policy Dialogue on	The Guiding Principles set out eight principles and supporting commentary that host governments and investors can use as a common reference for future negotiations of enduring, sustainable and mutually beneficial extractive contracts.

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	Natural Resource-based Development in June of 2019. The OECD has 38 member countries .	OECD (2020). Guiding Principles for Durable Extractive Contracts. December. https://www.oecd.org/investment/guiding-principles-for-durable-extractive-contracts-55c19888-en.htm
Intergovernmental Forum on Mining, Minerals, Metals and Sustainable Development (IGF) Mining Policy Framework (MPF)	The IGF was established as an outcome of the World Summit on Sustainable Development, held in Johannesburg in 2002, and has 84 member countries.	The MPF represents the practices required for good environmental, social, and economic governance of the mining sector and the generation and equitable sharing of benefits to contribute to sustainable development. IGF (2023). Mining Policy Framework . IISD.
Voluntary Principles on Security and Human Rights (VPs)	The VPs were developed in 2000 following a government-backed multi-stakeholder process, and the current membership includes 8 governments (Argentina, Australia, Canada, Colombia, Ghana, Switzerland, United Kingdom and United States), 30 companies, 14 non-governmental organisations and 9 observers.	The VPs set expectations on how companies should conduct their security operations while respecting human rights. The Voluntary Principles on Security and Human Rights (2000) 9p.
Global Industry Standard on Tailings Management	The standard was co-convened by UNEP, the Principles for Responsible Investment and the ICMM, and is expected to be implemented by all ICMM member companies.	The standard was developed in 2020 following the catastrophic tailings facility failure at Brumadinho, Brazil, and contains detailed expectations on tailings facility management for conforming companies. ICMM, UNEP, PRI (2020). Global Industry Standard on Tailings Management . 39p.
Initiative for Responsible Mineral Assurance (IRMA) Standard for Responsible Mining	The Standard is an independent social and environmental performance standard for mine sites developed through a multi-stakeholder process. The standard was developed over a ten-year period involving consultation with >100 companies and organisations.	The Standard includes requirements on business integrity, planning for positive legacies, social responsibility and environmental responsibility. Initiative for Responsible Mining Assurance (2018). IRMA Standard for Responsible Mining IRMA-STD-001. June. 203p.
Industry and Non-government Organisations		

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International Council on Mining and Metals (ICMM) Mining Principles and Position Statements	ICMM is the peak international mining association which has a membership of twenty companies and forty national, commodity and professional associations. The ICMM represents around a third of the metal mining sector by production.	The ICMM Principles and Position Statements set performance expectations of members across a wide array of environmental, social and economic issues. The principles include commitments on protected areas, closure, water stewardship, energy efficiency, community development and local economic development, among others. The Principles also require members to “Work to obtain the free, prior and informed consent of Indigenous Peoples where significant adverse impacts are likely to occur, as a result of relocation, disturbance of lands and territories or of critical cultural heritage and capture the outcomes of engagement and consent processes in agreements.” ICMM (2023). Mining Principles. Performance Expectations . June. London. 14p.
Guidelines for Social Responsibility in Outbound Mining Investments	The Guidelines were developed by the China Chamber of Commerce of Metals, Minerals and Chemicals Importers and Exporters (CCCIMC), an industry association aimed at promoting the sustainable development of the outbound investment and trade operations of the Chinese mining industry.	The Guidelines codify the expectations of the UN Guiding Principles on Business and Human Rights and the OECD Due Diligence Guidance for Responsible Supply Chains of Minerals from Conflict-Affected and High-Risk Areas for members of the CCCIMC. CCCIMC (2015). Guidelines for Social Responsibility in Outbound Mining Investments . 29p.
Just energy transition principles for human rights in business and investment	The Business and Human Rights Resource Centre developed the Principles through research on the just transition and tested them through engagement with partners and allies.	The Principles encourage governments and businesses to commit to actions that promote human rights, Indigenous rights and social protection; shared prosperity; and fair negotiations. BHRRC (2023). Just energy transition principles for human rights in business and investment .
Code of Risk-mitigation for ASM engaging in Formal Trade (CRAFT)	The CRAFT Code was developed by the Alliance for Responsible Mining and Resolve and has been adopted by both upstream and downstream actors in mineral supply chains.	The CRAFT Code contains a wide array of requirements that set a standard for responsible ASM. Alliance for Responsible Mining and Resolve (2020). CRAFT Version 2.0 . Volume 1. October. 113p.
Natural Resource Charter	The Natural Resource Charter is a set of principles to guide governments' and societies' use of natural resources. The Charter document was initially written by a group of leading experts on natural resource governance.	The charter is organized around 12 core precepts offering guidance on key decisions governments face, beginning with whether to extract resources and ending with how generated revenue can produce maximum good for citizens. NRGI (2014). Natural Resource Charter . Second Edition.

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<p>Global Reporting Initiative (GRI)</p>	<p>GRI is an independent international organization that has pioneered sustainability reporting since 1997 transforming it from a niche practice to one adopted by a growing number of organizations in over 90 countries. The GRI Sustainability Reporting Standards have been continuously developed over 20 years and represent global best practice for reporting on economic, environmental, and social issues. The GRI Standards are the first and most widely adopted global standards for sustainability reporting.</p> <p>The practice of disclosing sustainability information inspires accountability, helps identify and manage risks, and enables organizations to seize new opportunities. Reporting with the GRI Standards supports companies, public and private, large, and small, to protect the environment and improve society, while at the same time enhancing competitiveness by improving governance and stakeholder relations, enhancing reputations, and building trust, and driving innovation</p>	<p>GRI standards encompasses environmental impact reporting aspects (such as biodiversity, water usage, emissions), hence covers disclosure and due diligence for Companies. Sustainability reporting standards that allow organizations to publicly report. Materiality is determined based on impacts on the economy, environment, and people.</p> <p>GRI 14: Mining Sector 2024 is a comprehensive, global sustainability reporting standard that focusses on the impacts from mining. The Standard provides a common set of metrics that represent the broad information needs of stakeholders, providing a baseline for transparency in the sector.</p> <p>GRI (2024). GRI: 14 Mining Sector 2024. Sector Standard. Amsterdam, The Netherlands. 99p.</p>