

Online course

Human Mobility in the Context of Climate Change

Course handbook



Online course:
Human Mobility in the Context of Climate Change

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Responsible:
Dr. Dorothea Rischewski
Sebastian Burghof
Jasmin Remlinger
Felix Ries

Authors:
Dr. Kees van der Geest
Dr. Robert Oakes
Dr. Lisa Thalheimer
Claudia Fry

Layout:
Yannick Schillinger

Cover photo:
GIZ / Aaron March

Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) GmbH
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Module 1

Introduction to Human Mobility in the Context of Climate Change (HMCCC)

Introduction

SUMMARY

In this module you will learn about the basics of the debate on human mobility in the context of climate change (HMCCC).

It includes a short introduction to the impacts of climate change as well as key definitions and concepts of human mobility.

You will understand that HMCCC is a

multi-causal phenomenon and that the different categories of human mobility relate to voluntariness.

The module introduces four forms of climate related human mobility and immobility: migration, displacement, planned relocation and trapped populations.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

By the end of this modules you will be able to:

1. Define climate change and differentiate **slow-onset events and sudden-onset processes**
2. Determine how risk of climate change impacts depends on **hazards, exposure and vulnerability**
3. Distinguish **different types of human mobility** in the context of climate change
4. Explain how climate change influences human mobility as one of **multiple factors**
5. Categorize mobility along the **axes of voluntary-forced, temporary-permanent, short-long distance**
6. Identify why the impact of climate change on human mobility **differs between people**

Introduction to climate change

REFRESHER: WHAT IS CLIMATE CHANGE?

Climate change refers to changes in the Earth's **climate** (i.e. the average weather, measured over long periods of time) which can be identified in the changes of Earth's **mean surface temperatures, changing rainfall patterns** and **frequency of extreme weather events**.

In the video at the start of this module we have seen four examples of such events which are projected to increase in frequency due to anthropogenic (i.e. caused by human activity) climate change.

If you want to know more about climate change, check out this video: [What is climate change? - Met Office climate change guide - YouTube](#) (Note: this link leads to an optional external resource and will open in a new browser tab or window.)



Image credit: GIZ / Felix Ries

IMPACTS OF CLIMATE CHANGE

Have a look at the following graphs showing the change of global temperature and sea levels¹:

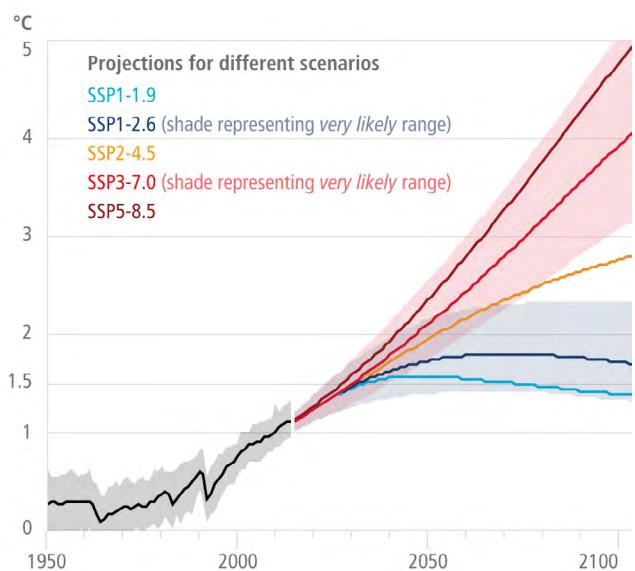


Image credit: [IPCC AR6 WGII \(2022\)](#)

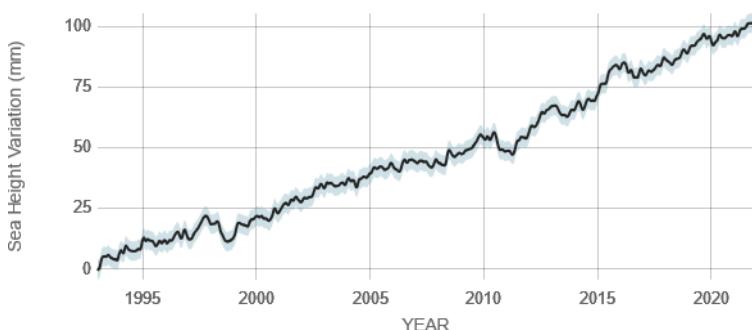


Image credit: [NASA's Goddard Space Flight Center \(2022\)](#)

Global sea level rise

As a result of the increasing temperature, global sea levels are rising as well, with recent rates being unprecedented over the past 2,000-plus years.

What about other changes?

Other climate phenomena that are relevant for human mobility (such as regional rainfall patterns) are much harder to project than temperature and sea level rise.

¹ Warming and sea level rise vary geographically and local changes are harder to project than the global averages.

² Due to the complexities in modelling climate processes and the uncertainties about the way human societies will develop, potential future temperatures are expressed by scientists through broad scenarios. As the graph depicts depending on the pathways taken the impacts could range from an increase of 1.5°C to 5°C by 2100.

TYPES OF CLIMATIC IMPACTS

There are different types of climatic impacts that have different implications for people, and for human mobility.

One important distinction is between **slow-onset processes** and **sudden-onset events**.

Slow-onset processes¹ include:

- increasing temperatures;
- desertification;
- loss of biodiversity;
- land and forest degradation;
- glacial retreat and related impacts;
- ocean acidification;
- sea level rise;
- salinisation

Source: [Slow onset events, UNFCCC](#)

¹ Also called “slow-onset events”, but “slow-onset processes” is a more correct term, as these phenomena evolve slowly over time. (Source: Mechler, R., T. Schinko, N. Hanke, R. Baldrich, L. Frey, M. Högl, A-K. Petersen, and M. Siebert (2021) Integrating slow onset processes into climate risk management. Bonn and Eschborn: GIZ.)

Sudden-onset events¹ include:

- Hydro meteorological hazards like flooding, windstorms, cyclones², mudslides and wildfires;
- Geophysical hazards like earthquakes, tsunamis or volcano eruptions

Due to climate change the frequency and intensity of such events increases.

Source: [AR5 Synthesis Report – Climate Change 2014](#)

¹ Sudden-onset events are also called rapid-onset events.

² Cyclones, hurricanes and typhoons are the same phenomenon but just have different names in different regions.

LOSS AND DAMAGE

A term, you will increasingly hear about in relation to climate change impacts is **loss and damage**:

“loss and damage refers to adverse effects of climate-related stressors that have not been or cannot be avoided through mitigation and adaptation efforts”
[\(van der Geest, K., & Warner, K., 2015\)](#)

For many places in the world, loss and damage is a **future risk**, but for vulnerable areas, such as low-lying islands and least developed countries, it is already a present-day reality.

Risk of climate change impacts

COMPONENTS OF RISK

The risk of climate change **impacts** depends on three components:

- **hazard**,
- **exposure**, and
- **vulnerability**.

A hazard is a climate event which can cause harm

The term **hazard** is used to describe the potential for (slow- and sudden-onset) events occurring that may have adverse impacts.

- Since the probability of such an event is independent of individual circumstances, a hazard is the same for all people living in a certain area. However, it should be noted that due to their location along the equator and range of marginal environments, developing countries tend to experience more frequent and more intense hazards.

Exposure refers to whether people are affected by hazards

The impacts of disasters depend in part on the presence of people, infrastructure, ecosystems, etc. that may be adversely affected.

- Different people might experience unequal impacts from the same hazard based on the degree to which they and their livelihoods are **exposed** to its effects.
- Human mobility is often an attempt to reduce exposure to climate hazards, by moving out of areas that are at risk.

Vulnerability refers to how exposed people are affected by a hazard

Not all people are affected equally by a climate hazard and not all people will respond in the same way – some will be able to adapt locally and others will move.

- This depends to a large extent on how **vulnerable** they are to climatic stressors
- There are two elements of vulnerability: **sensitivity** and **capacity to cope and adapt**

Sensitivity is determined by those factors that directly affect the consequences of a hazard.

Sensitivity may include physical attributes of a system (e.g. building material of houses, type of soil on agriculture fields), social, economic and cultural attributes (e.g. age structure, income structure).

Capacity in the context of climate risk assessments refers to the ability of societies and communities to prepare for and respond to current and future climate impacts. It comprises:

- *Coping capacity*: ‘The ability of people, institutions, organizations, and systems, using available skills, values, beliefs, resources, and opportunities, to address, manage, and overcome adverse conditions in the short to medium term’ (e.g. early warning systems in place).
- *Adaptive capacity*: ‘The ability of systems, institutions, humans and other organisms to adjust to potential damage, to take advantage of opportunities, or to respond to consequences’ (e.g. knowledge to introduce new farming methods).

Impacts are the manifestation of risk

The effects that people experience when a hazardous climate event occurs are called impacts. They are a key factor influencing somebody's intention to move.

- ▶ Impacts are the result of the interplay of hazard, exposure, and vulnerability and thus are different for each individual or household.

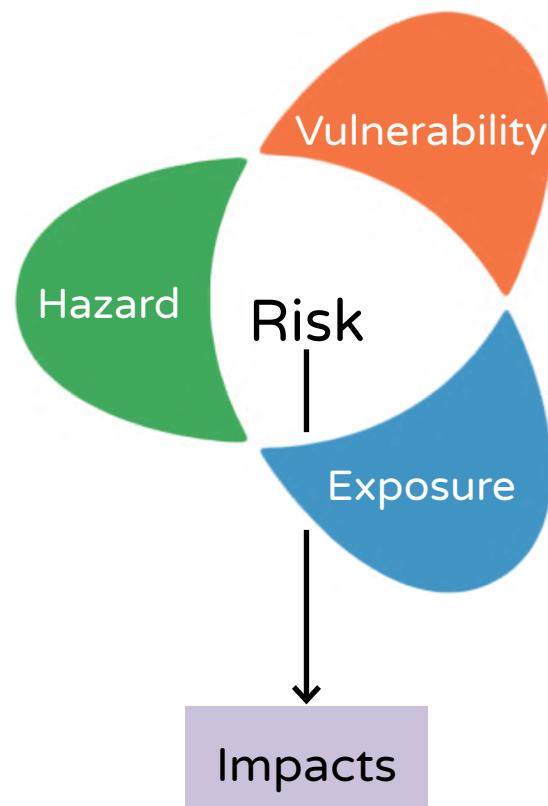
THE IPCC RISK FRAMEWORK

Risk is defined as the potential for adverse consequences for human or ecological systems, recognising the diversity of values and objectives associated with such systems. ([IPCC AR6II SPM, 2022](#), p. 5)

In the IPCC risk concept, risk is a result of the interaction of vulnerability, exposure, and hazard.

WHY IT IS IMPORTANT TO DISTINGUISH DIFFERENT TYPES OF CLIMATE HAZARD AND IMPACTS

Different hazards and impacts have different implications for human mobility. For example, when a village is hit by a flood, and people's lives are at risk, a likely outcome is that people will be temporarily displaced to move out of harm's way. But what if ...



... instead of experiencing a **flood**, the family is confronted with **rising sea levels**

Risk of future slow-onset processes vs actual current sudden-onset events

Instead of displacing people, it would mean they can try to adapt locally or, if this is not feasible, they can consider more permanent relocation.

... floods do not pose a **threat to the family's lives**, but will lead to **agricultural losses**

Direct vs indirect impacts¹

If people who depend on agriculture for their livelihoods lose their harvest in a given year, a coping strategy could be to migrate for work to feed the family.

¹ Climate stressors that have direct impacts pose an immediate danger to people's lives (e.g. cyclones, floods, sea level rise, wildfires, etc.)

Climate stressors that have indirect impacts cause damage to people's livelihoods or health (e.g. drought, heat, changing rainfall patterns, etc.)

CLIMATE CHANGE AND RISK



Different climate risks and impacts have different impacts on human mobility patterns.

For a more detailed look at climate change and climate risk, have a look at this online self-learning course: [Climate Risk Management – An Introduction](#) (Note: this link leads to an

optional external resource and will open in a new browser tab or window.)

Types of human mobility

DEFINING HUMAN MOBILITY

Human mobility refers to people's capability to choose where to live, including the option to stay, rather than as the act of moving or migrat-

ing itself (de Haas, 2021).

We distinguish four types of human mobility in the context of climate change:



Migration



Planned relocation



Displacement



Trapped populations

TYPES OF HUMAN MOBILITY

The video at the start of this module presented four stories of people being affected by hazards:

The communities in Selina's village in eastern Fiji had to move inland to protect themselves from the rising sea.

Do you know which of the four types of mobility they represent? Find out on the next page!

Juana and her family had to flee their home when Hurricane Maria hit Dominica.

The eldest son and daughter of the Nurudong family in Northern Ghana migrate to the south during the dry season to find employment there.

Salima's village in coastal Bangladesh is at risk of being swallowed by the river and is unsafe now, but she lacks the means to migrate.

The eldest son and daughter of the Nurudong family in Northern Ghana migrate to the south during the dry season to find employment there.

(Voluntary) Migration: Mobility when people have a reason and the necessary resources and capabilities to move. It is usually a decision taken by an individual or family.

► IOM Definition of migration: “*The movement of persons away from their place of usual*

residence, either across an international border or within a State.” ([IOM, 2019](#))

► Climate-induced migration is usually internal, i.e. within a country. Even when people cross borders, most people migrate regionally.

Juana and her family had to flee their home when Hurricane Maria hit Dominica.

(Disaster) Displacement: Usually a process in which people are forced to leave their normal place of residence, mostly in response to extreme weather events, such as droughts, floods or cyclones. While mostly internal, it can also be across borders and can be both temporary

or permanent.

► The involuntary movement, individually or collectively, of persons from their country or community, notably for reasons of armed conflict, civil unrest, or natural or man-made disasters ([IPCC, 2022](#)).

The communities in Selina’s village in eastern Fiji had to move inland to protect themselves from the rising sea.

Planned relocation is an organized process, typically instigated and implemented by governments from national to local level. It usually involves small communities and individual assets but may also involve larger populations. It is a response to the threat of people losing their place of residence because of the neg-

ative impacts of climate change, such as sea level rise. The close involvement of affected communities and host communities is crucial to successful planned relocation. Planned relocation is also termed resettlement or managed retreat (Sources: [IPCC, 2022](#); [Adaptation Community](#)).

Salima’s village in coastal Bangladesh is at risk of being swallowed by the river and is unsafe now, but she lacks the means to migrate.

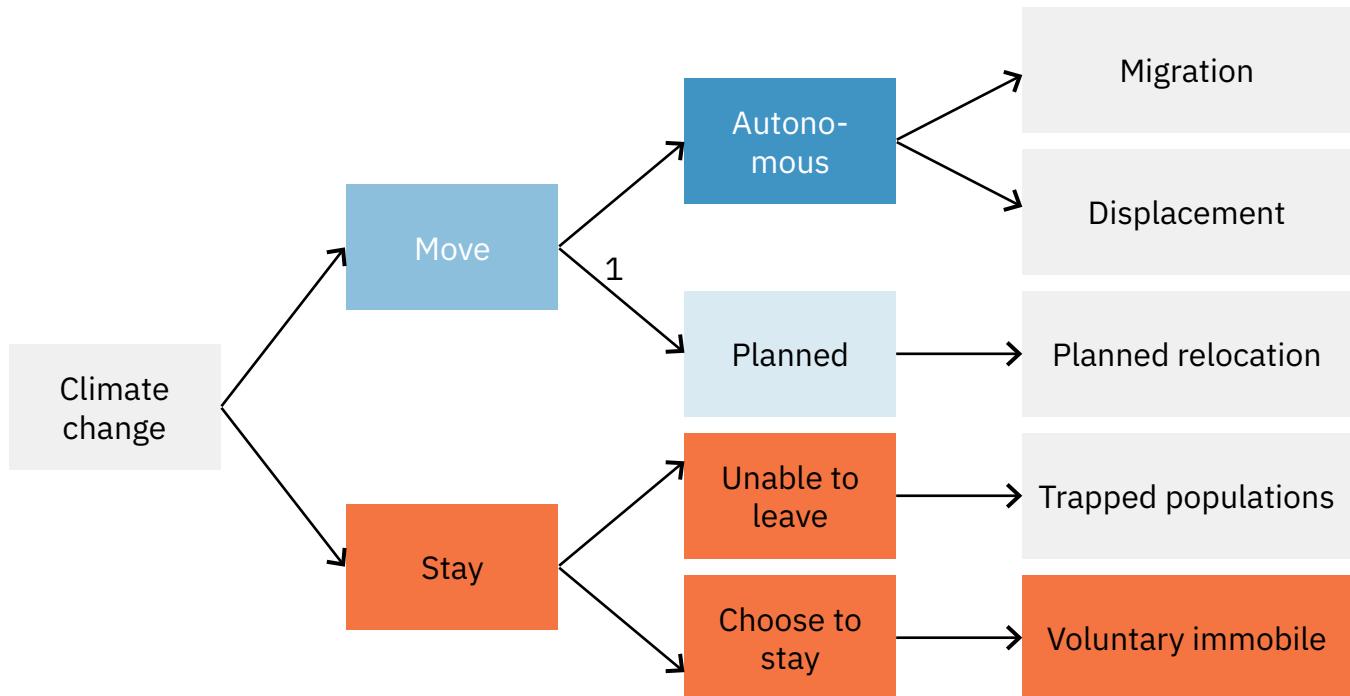
Trapped populations are those **unable to move away from situations of environmental risk, usually because they lack the means to migrate** (adapted from [Foresight: Migration](#)

[and Global Environmental Change, 2011](#)).

► Another term for trapped populations is **involuntary immobility**

TYPES OF HUMAN MOBILITY IN THE CONTEXT OF CLIMATE CHANGE

This diagram shows how climate change can lead to different mobility outcomes:



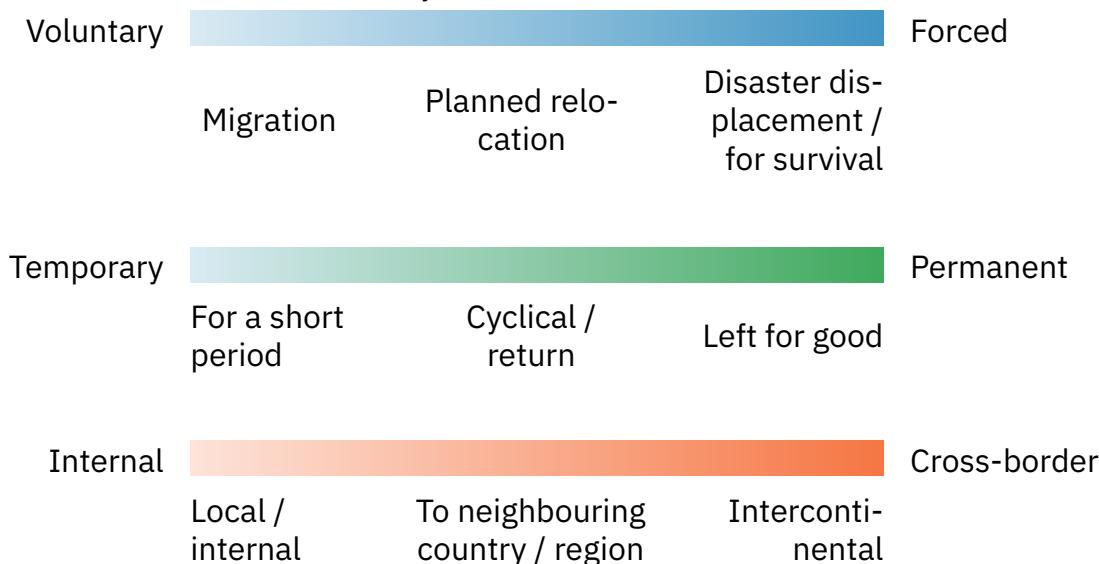
We will look into these four types in more detail in modules 3 to 6.

¹ The distinction between **autonomous** and **planned** comes from the IPCC, which defines planned adaptations as deliberate policy decisions on the part of public agencies, while autonomous adaptations are initiatives that occur naturally by private actors without intervention of public agencies.

Human mobility continuums

Human mobility and the individual decision to migrate are highly context-specific and need to be understood in all its complexity. Climate change impacts influence human mobility and

immobility. The following dimensions/features of human mobility can help understanding the broad range and different forms it can take:



EXAMPLE FROM STORY

In the case of the Nurudongs, who had to send their oldest son and daughter to Southern Gha-

na to find employment during the dry season, we can see some of the continuums:

- If drought threatens their livelihoods, there is a certain degree of force and the decision is **not completely voluntary**.



- Since drought conditions are seasonal, only some members of the family move during **parts of the year**.



- With only parts of the country are affected by drought, they **migrate internally**.



EXAMPLE OF CONTINUUMS: IOM DEFINITION OF ENVIRONMENTAL MIGRANTS

While migration is supposed to be (more) voluntary, in the case of migration in the context of

climate change, there is always some degree of force.

IOM defines environmental migrants as:

*"A person or group(s) of persons who, predominantly for reasons of sudden or progressive changes in the environment that adversely affect their lives or living conditions, **are forced to leave** their places of habitual residence, or choose to do so, either temporarily or permanently, and who move within or outside their country of origin or habitual residence." (IOM, 2019)*

Drivers of human mobility in the context of climate change

MIGRATION AS A MULTICAUSAL PHENOMENON

The movement of people has traditionally been part of the social organisation and experiences of many communities around the world. Generally, people move for various reasons and there are many modes and categories of human mobility. While conflicts, persecution and disasters (natural, climate-related or development-induced) have been major causes of displacement and migration, other people move as labour migrants or in response to changing

environmental conditions. Migration and displacement are therefore complex phenomena driven by many different interlinked factors. ([GIZ, 2019](#))

Migration is often a response taken at the household level to diversify income streams and secure livelihoods in the face of deteriorating environmental conditions. ([Foresight Report, 2011](#))



Climatic drivers and other drivers of migration interact.

The decision to migrate is influenced by five broad categories of ‘drivers’.



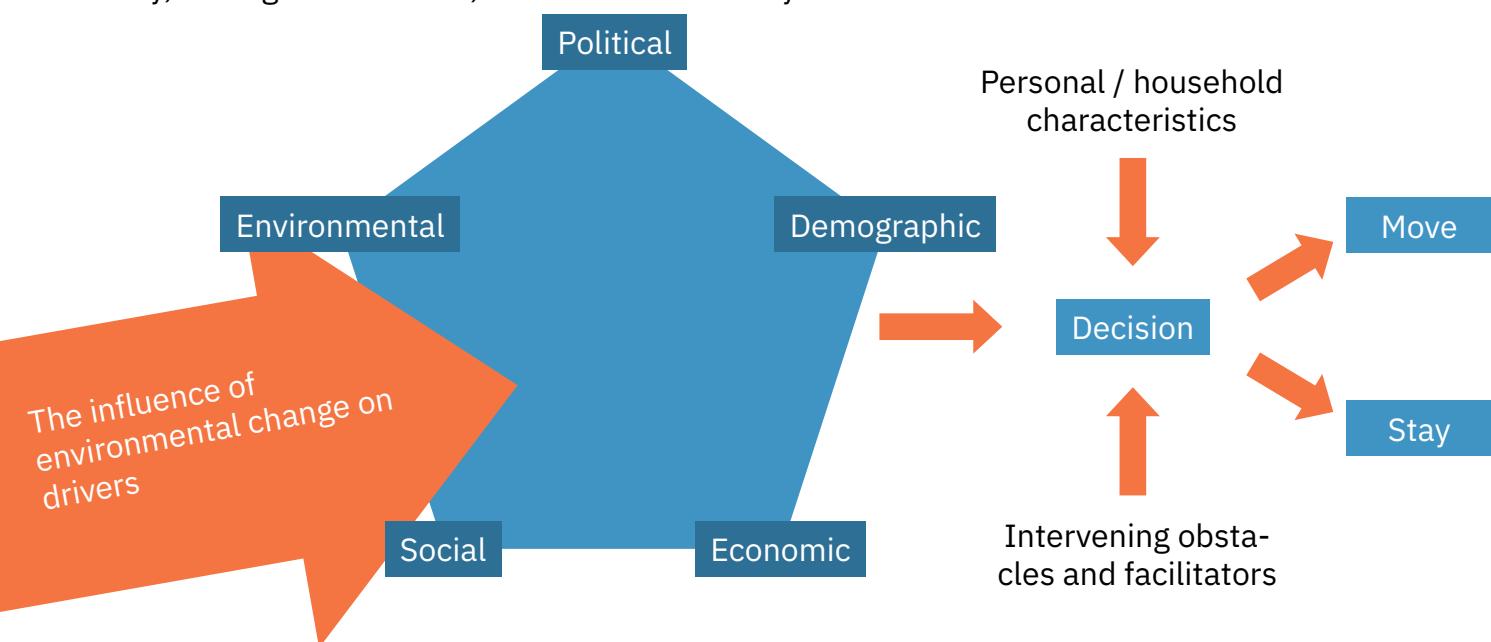
Do you know what these drivers are?

Find out on the next page!

DRIVERS OF HUMAN MOBILITY

These drivers are influenced by climate change.

They, among other factors, influence the mobility decision.



Besides the drivers of migration, migration decisions are also influenced by **household characteristics** (e.g. risk aversion) and **intervening obstacles and facilitators** (e.g. migration laws and regulations).

Watch this video from Migration Matters: Does climate change lead to migration?

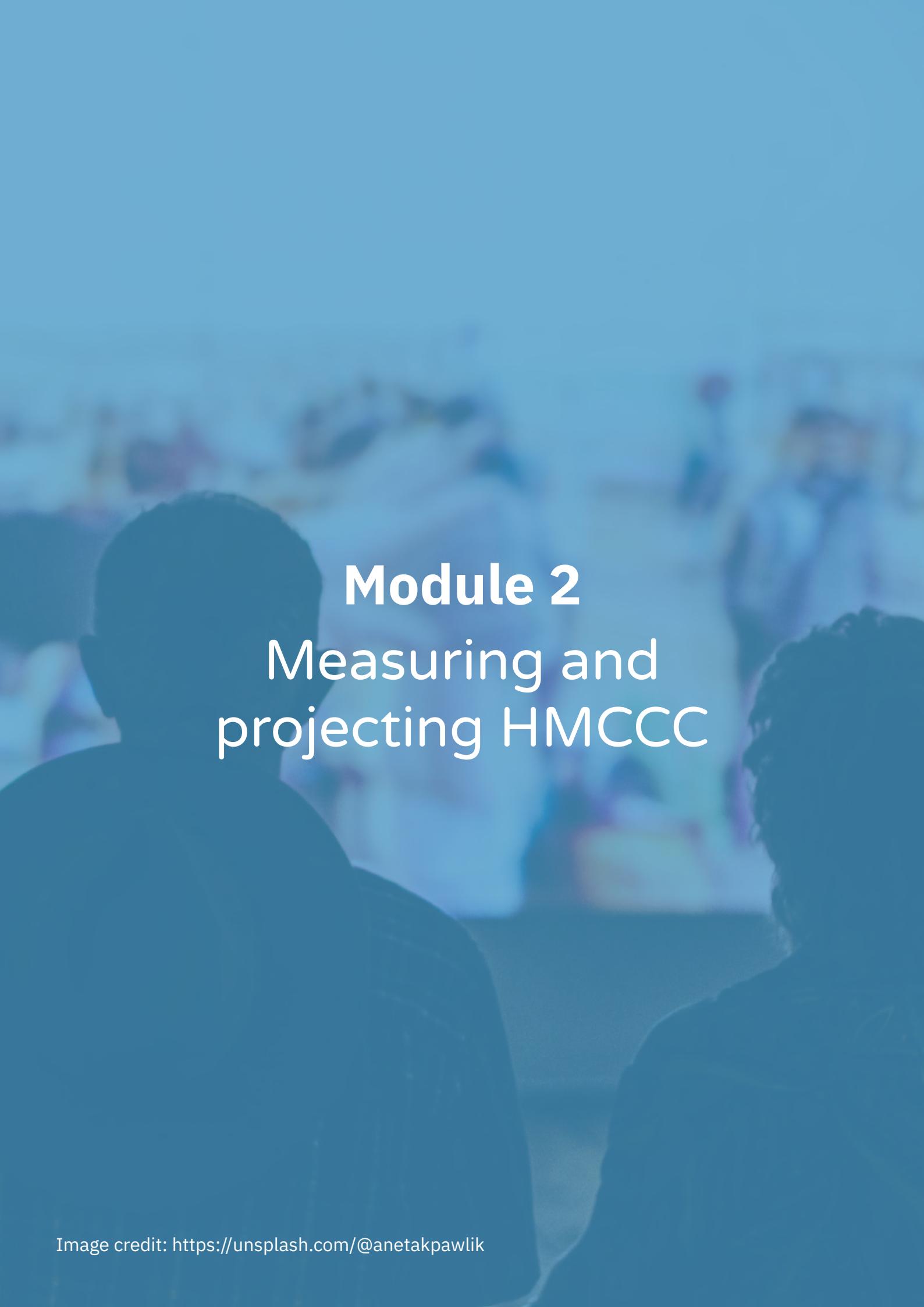
[Is there a link between climate change and migration? - YouTube](#)

OPTIONAL CONTENT:

CLIMATE CHANGE AND MIGRATION IN A NUTSHELL

Watch this video for a summary of the connections between climate change and human mobility.

[Climate change and migration: How do they connect? - YouTube](#)



Module 2

Measuring and projecting HMCCC

Introduction

SUMMARY

You now have a basic understanding of HMCCC and some of the main terms and issues which will be explored in the course.

This module will look at numbers of people moving as a result of climate change. It considers how HMCCC is measured and how HMCCC is projected for the future.

An understanding of numbers is important as data influences how policy attempts to address climate change, migration and HMCCC.

In addition, the portrayal of climate, migration and HMCCC in the media is conditioned by the data available.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

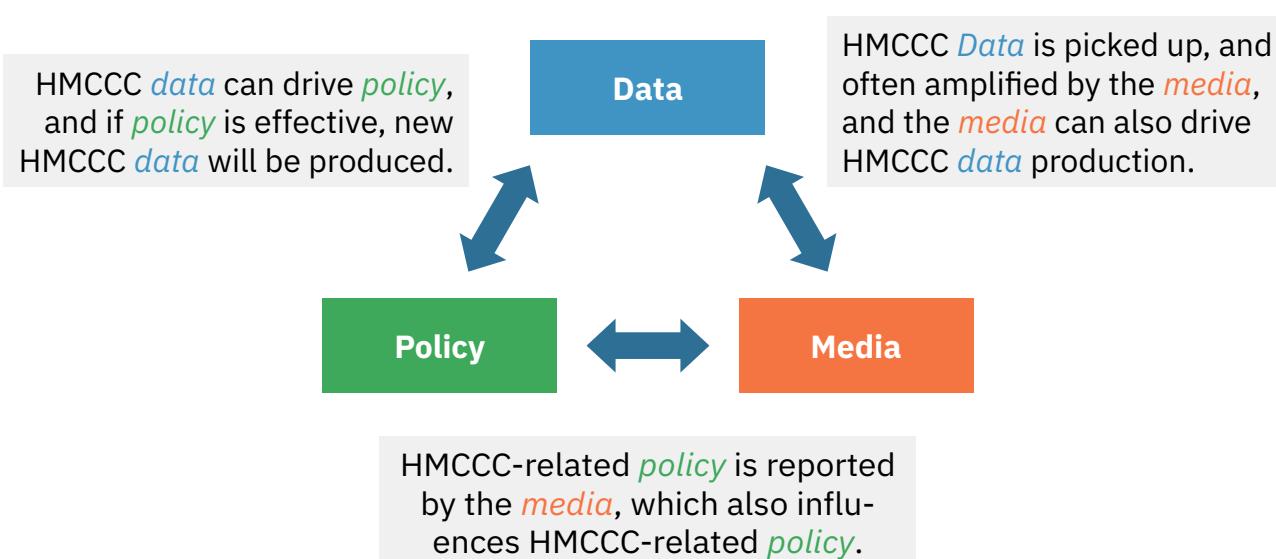
By the end of this modules you will be able to:

1. Appraise the **scale of HMCCC** and the complexities in public debates
2. Locate and navigate **sources of data** on HMCCC in different contexts and for the different forms of HMCCC
3. Explain **limitations of data collection and conceptualisation** on HMCCC
4. Understand **how HMCCC projections are developed** and understand the **differences between projections and predictions**

Numbers in the media

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DATA, POLICY AND THE MEDIA?

How are data, policy and the media interrelated?

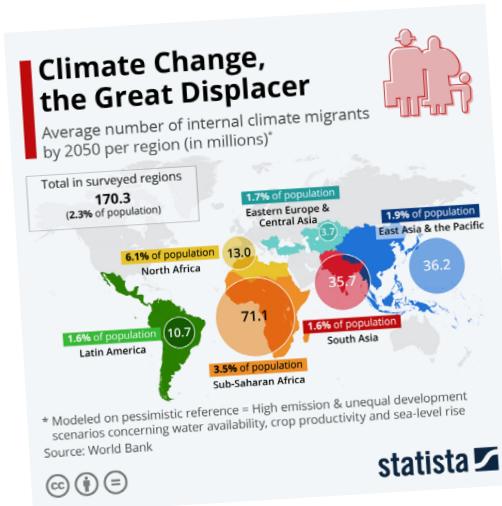


Measuring and projecting HMCCC

AN OBSESSION WITH NUMBERS?

As early as 1990, the first report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) speculated that the greatest single impact of climate change could be on human migration.

Since then, a range of estimates and numbers have been floating around.



What is meant by “losing control of the numbers”?

Numbers are highly political, and as soon as a number is given out, you lose control over what happens with it. Also numbers can be taken out of context by the media and then reproduced by other outlets in a similarly inaccurate way.

What is said about multicausality of HMCCC?

It is difficult to be sure that a particular movement is only related to climate change.

Why is data on displacements more reliable than that on migration?

Due to the multicausality of climate-change related migration, it is challenging to produce reliable data. Displacement, especially due to disasters, has a clearer causality.

THE DANGER OF OBSESSING OVER NUMBERS

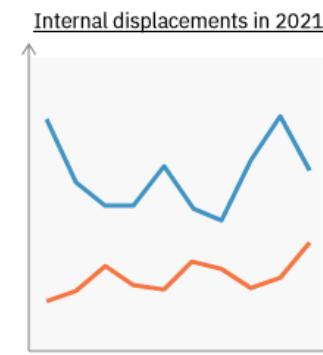
Numbers are important, but they can become **the** story. This can mean other aspects of mobility can be ignored by the media and policy makers.



“We are now seeing that these numbers do not have that kind of positive impact on better climate policy, but rather [lead to] more strict migration policy.”
[\(van der Geest, 2022\)](#)

Numbers can also contribute to panicked thinking about current and future levels of flows of human mobility.

A fixation on global numbers also shifts the focus away from local level data, which are needed to facilitate adaptation and migration interventions in addition to the provision of services for affected people.



FRAMING HMCCC

Measuring migration is important because the number of actual or projected migrants has an influence on the way in which they are framed in the media and in policy.

Here we introduce three broad ways of talking about HMCCC, with a respective priority on

- security
- protection of migrants
- adapting to climate change.

	Security	Protection	Adaptation
Key concepts	Irregular migration of large numbers	Human Rights Loss and Damage	Adaptive capacity, livelihood diversification, remittances
Portrayal of migrant	Factor contributing to insecurity	Lacking agency and at risk	Agents of positive change
Implication for policy	Borders should be controlled and mobility restricted due to risks to society, resources and culture.	If people move, they should be able to do so in dignified and safe conditions.	HMCCC is part of a spectrum of responses to climate change.

THE NEED FOR DATA AND PROJECTIONS

Although there are limitations to data and its use for informing policy it is necessary to understand that:

Media and Public	Policy makers
The media and the public will be interested in headline figures around mobility, especially if they are large, surprising or worrying. This is doubly true for projections about future number of people moving.	Policy makers at national and local level want to know how many people have, or will move in order to plan and respond. They like to base policies and interventions on quantitative data which is typically seen as more robust or trustworthy than qualitative forms of information. In fact, the ability to access funds for programmes is often determined by data.

As such it is useful to consider where these numbers come from and their implications.

Displacement data

CURRENT DATA – CLIMATE CHANGE RELATED DISPLACEMENT

The availability and quality of data depend on a range of factors:



Data for **disaster displacement** is more available than other forms of HMC-CC. Generally, it is possible to match displacements to **concrete events** such as floods and storms which have identifiable start and end points. Moreover, such events may trigger national or local governments to declare a **state of emergency**, with intensified efforts to track displaced persons to provide shelter and assistance.

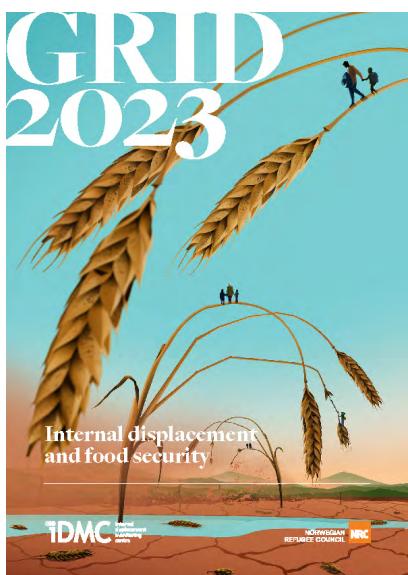
Comprehensive datasets on the number of people moving, or at risk of moving, at the global level do not exist. Varying estimates are often based on different data sources and methods.



Where do these figures come from?

- **National governments** collate information on displacement and evacuations linked to disasters. Local-level displacement data may be available from **humanitarian agencies** (NGOs, UN agencies) engaged in relief operations.
- The numbers of **humanitarian visas** (e.g. US, Brazil, Ecuador or Mexico) or **residence permits** granted (e.g. Argentina) linked to disasters can provide **information on cross-border displacement**.

NEW DISPLACEMENTS



The [Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre \(IDMC\)](#) has compiled data on internal disaster displacement in the context of climate change since 2008 globally through its online [Global Internal Displacement Database](#) (GIDD).

Data is based on information from national authorities, UN agencies, non-governmental organizations and media reports.

Figures are published in the annual [Global Report on Displacement](#) (GRID), which also covers internal displacement due to conflict.

Data on internal displacement due to natural hazards are available for most countries. IDMC's data considers both:

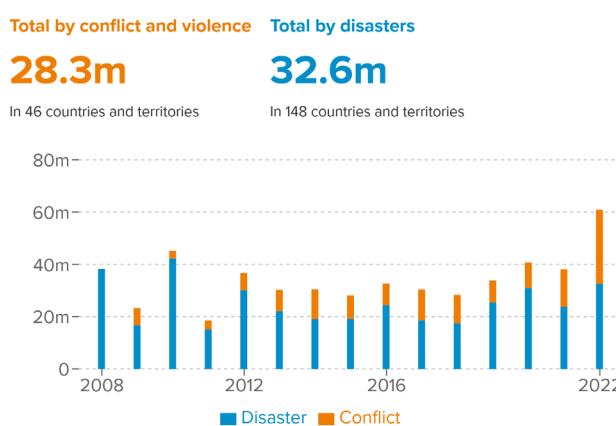
1. Flows (new internal displacements): “Flows” of people newly displaced by specific events. These figures are totalled to give a number of people displaced each year.

Measuring and projecting HMCCC

2. Stocks (total numbers of IDPs): “Stocks” of people in the condition of displacement. The figure quoted is the number of displaced people on 31st December each year. It includes people displaced in previous years and still in a state of displacement.

DISPLACEMENT DATA

Take a look at these graphs from IDMC’s 2023 Global Report on Internal Displacement ([GRID](#)) and Global Internal Displacement Database ([GIDD](#)):



Internal Displacement 2008-2022

The chart shows that for every year in the past 15 years there have been 2-3 times as many displacements triggered by disasters than conflict and violence.

New displacements 2022

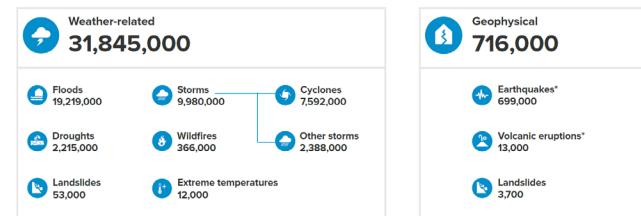
The vast majority of disaster displacements are weather related. While it is impossible to ascribe these hazards to climate change, we do know that

1. the probability of events occurring and
2. their intensity

increase through climate change.

Have a look at the [IDMC database](#) and explore the data for your country of interest.

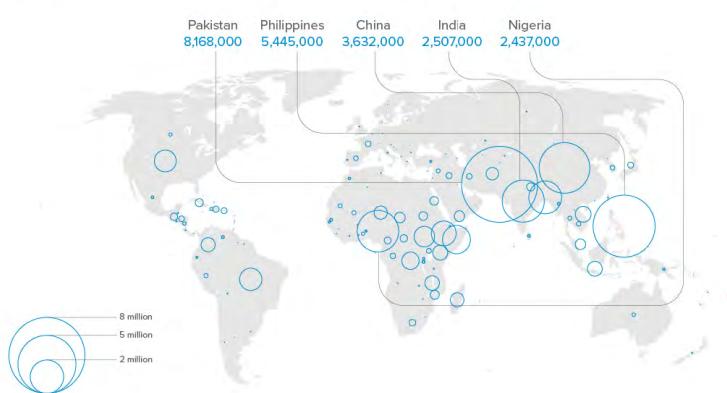
Which events caused the most displacements?



6 out of 10
disaster displacements were triggered by floods, surpassing storms for the first time since 2016

98%
of disaster displacements were triggered by weather-related hazards such as floods, storms and droughts

Five countries reporting the highest figures



Displacements by region and state

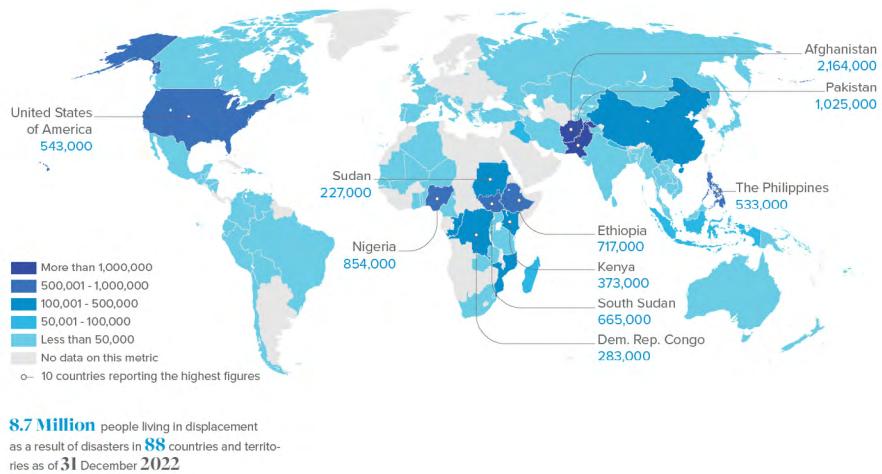
Displacements are a function of hazards, exposure and vulnerability. Most displacements occur in the Global South.

The countries with the most displacements tend to be the most populous, but this should not obscure the proportion of the population affected.

For example, 3.6 million people were newly displaced in China in 2022, but the 1.1 million displaced in Somalia represents a much larger proportion of the population.

Currently internally displaced by disasters

At the end of 2022, 8.7 million people were in a condition of internal displacement in 88 countries.



FUTURE AVENUES OF DISPLACEMENT DATA

Hydro-meteorological hazards which cause the most displacements can be predicted. This means that numbers of displacements can be reduced through disaster risk reduction measures.



However, data on the number of displacements does not capture the characteristics or conditions of people's displacement. For example, disaggregated data would allow for targeted policy to protect children.



IDMC IDMC is developing methodologies to map and assess [future disaster displacement risks](#) and has developed the [Global Displacement Risk Model](#).

Data on cross-border displacement is starting to be gathered and is being supported as part of the work of the Data and Knowledge Working Group of the State-led [Platform on Disaster Displacement](#).



Data needs

MIGRATION DATA

Why is migration data less reliable than displacement data?



Image credit: <https://unsplash.com/@pflores>

Causality

- The start point and end point of the environmental process which contributes to migration is not easy to discern.
- The relationship between social, economic and political triggers which interact with climate change to cause migration tend to be more complicated than in displacement which can be more easily ascribed to a climate related event.



Image credit: <https://unsplash.com/@viktortalashuk>

Data availability

- Many movements occur within countries and in places with limited administrative control.
- Different countries may have different ways of measuring and recording migration based upon their needs.
- Data is scattered between different case studies and collected with different objectives and methods, resulting in a low intercomparability ([Vinke and Hoffman, 2020](#)).

SOURCES OF MIGRATION DATA

There are useful sources of “general” migration data – i.e. not specifically related to HMCCC:

<https://www.migrationdataportal.org/>

 A screenshot of the Migration Data Portal website. At the top, there's a navigation bar with links for 'DATA', 'THEMES', 'RESOURCES', 'GLOBAL PROCESSES', and 'WHO WE ARE'. Below the navigation is a search bar. The main content area features a large world map with blue dots representing migration data points. A callout box on the left says 'Explore international migration statistics on our world map'. Below the map, there's a paragraph of text and a 'ENTER MAP' button.

IOM manages a rich source of data on migration through its Global Migration Data Analysis Centre (GMDAC):

<https://www.migrationdataportal.org/>

<https://www.un.org/development/desa/pd/content/international-migrant-stock>

 A screenshot of the United Nations Population Division International Migrant Stock page. At the top, there's a navigation bar with links for 'Home', 'CPD', 'GA', 'Themes', 'Events', 'Publications', 'Data', 'SDGs', and 'About Us'. Below the navigation is a search bar. The main content area has a section titled 'International Migrant Stock' with a brief description and a link to 'International Migrant Stock 2020 (Total)'. There's also a 'Data' section with a link to 'International Migrant Stock 2020 (Total)'.

SPECIFIC DATA NEEDS FOR MIGRATION

There are a range of different types of data which can be used to understand migration (and HMCCC more generally) and aid both practice, research and policy.

Qualitative data

Descriptive or conceptual information – the qualities relevant to HMCCC

Examples could be **aspiration to move** and **presence of networks** to facilitate mobility.

Quantitative data

Data represented by numbers such as the amount of migrants

Relevant information might include **income**, **size of household** and **numbers of mobile people**.

Georeferenced data

Data related to a defined location

It can be useful to link people and their data to **exact locations** to consider the **spatial aspects of risk**.

Longitudinal data

Data gathered in at least two moments in time allowing temporal comparison

Changes over time can show the **effectiveness of policies** or how climate impacts or HMCCC **impact people over time**.

Disaggregated data

Data broken down according to population subsets

It is important to understand the **differentiated** aspirations, capabilities and experiences of **separate groups** such as **women**, **children** and **minorities** who may be vulnerable.

PLANNED RELOCATION AND TRAPPED POPULATIONS DATA

Why is data for **planned relocation** generally available?

Data for past planned relocation is readily available and reliable as it has already occurred and there will always be a paper trail. Such information will ideally include an account of the participatory processes which were undertaken.

A good starting place for data on planned relocation is [this report from the Platform on Disaster Displacement](#).



Image credit: UNHCR / Taw Naw Htoo



Image credit: GIZ / Ragna John

Why is data for **trapped populations** not available?

Data for trapped populations is, however, in short supply. Some people affected by climate risks do not have the capacity to move, this may be through insufficient funds or social networks. As this data does not correspond to an event or a move it is not normally recorded.

Why is data for **trapped populations** needed?

Trapped populations are by definition vulnerable and as such data to inform action and protection are needed.

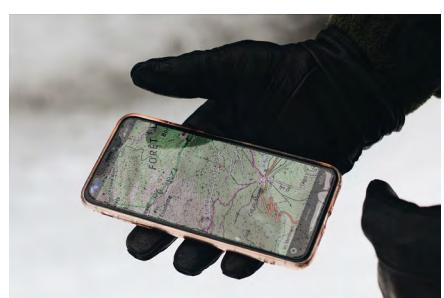


Image credit: https://unsplash.com/@mael_balland

THE PROMISE OF BIG DATA

Innovative data sources include mobile phone-based sources such as call detail records (CDRs). Big data generated by mobile phone users before and after disasters, such as the 2010 earthquake in Haiti and cyclones in the Philippines and Bangladesh,



Image credit: <https://unsplash.com/@nasa>

was used to track displaced persons and deliver humanitarian assistance.

Big data can provide information on movements at a small-scale and seasonal patterns linked to adaptation to climate change and disasters that cannot be unveiled through traditional research tools. Other projects use satellite images or social media data to identify early signs of environmental stressors that could lead to displacement.

For an example, see "[Facebook releases improved Displacement Maps for crisis response](#)".

THE WEIGHT OF NUMBERS

The sheer mass of data produced every day means there is new and emerging information all the time.

What potential issues might there be with the production, storage and use of big data?

Who owns the data?

How / where is the data stored?

How secure is the data?

Who will the data be shared with?

And perhaps most importantly, what will the data be used for?

Will the data be used to respond to needs or to develop more restrictive migration policies?

These questions are particularly important when we consider the vulnerability of migrants who may be irregular and have concerns about their security.



Image credit: [DataReportal in partnership with Meltwater and We Are Social \(2023\)](#)

Data on the future

PROJECTIONS

According to the [IPCC \(2014\)](#) a projection is a “potential future evolution of a quantity or set of quantities, often computed with the aid of a model. Unlike predictions, projections are conditional on assumptions concerning, for example, future socio-economic and technological developments that may or may not be realized” (p. 126).

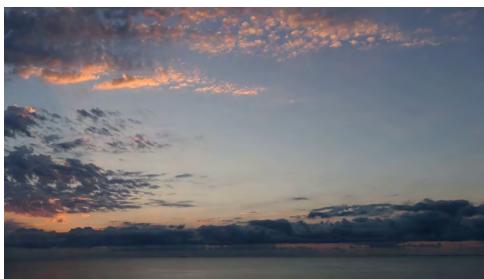


Image credit: https://pixabay.com/users/javier_rtg-16842455

Models are attempts to simplify complex systems. Their use in the natural sciences are well established. For example, climate models are based upon scientific laws and large amounts of observed data, often going back decades. This means that climate models are able to effectively project what will happen to future temperatures (with a degree of uncertainty).

Social systems can also be modelled. They require assumptions about how people, households and communities will respond to climate risk. These responses are conditioned by a range of economic, social, political and cultural factors some of which are quite personal and difficult to predict.

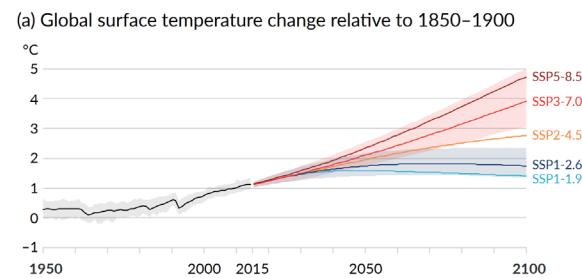


Image credit: <https://pixabay.com/users/coverr-free-footage-1281706>

SO, IS A PROJECTION A PREDICTION?

Great, so can we predict the future with these models? Not, exactly. Projections are based on inputs relevant to HMCCC:

- Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs)¹
- Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSPs)²
- Shared Climate Policy Assumptions (SPAs)³
- Assumptions about HMCCC aspirations and capabilities
- Assumptions about policies to condition HMCCC aspirations and capabilities
- Assumptions about adaptation to climate change



¹ The quantity of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere

² Pathways developed for the IPCC which consider how global society, demographics and economics might change over the next century

³ Key policy attributes such as the goals, instruments and obstacles of mitigation and adaptation measures

This means that projections provide a range of possible futures depending on the assumptions made.

They provide scenarios to prepare and plan for ahead rather than depending on reactive measures.

GROUNDSWELL – WORLD BANK REPORT ON HMCCC

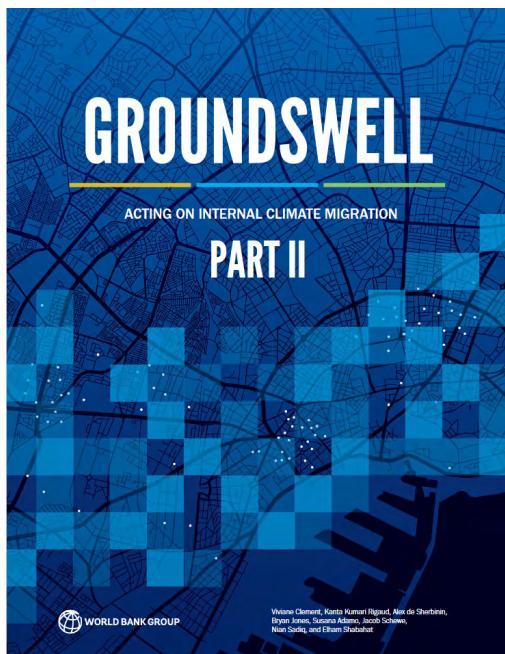


Image credit: World Bank, 2021

Future projections of climate migrants have been made in policy and academic literature for the last 30 years.

A recent attempt which got a lot of traction in the media was conducted by the World Bank with its [Groundswell Report](#). It focuses on slow-onset climate change and internal migration, originally across three regions (sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia and Latin America).

Groundswell II builds on the approach of the first report and includes East Asia and the Pacific, North Africa, and Eastern Europe and Central Asia.

It claims that over 350m people might move internally in the 6 different regions by 2050.

To address the uncertainties of analysing migration up to 2050, it considers three scenarios, based on two development and climate trajectories. The model then applies demographic, socio-economic, and climate impact data to model potential flows of human mobility.

THE GROUNDSWELL MODELLING APPROACH

The model adopted a population gravity model to project future population distributions according to the shared socioeconomic pathways (SSPs) used by the IPCC.

This was combined with projections of climate impacts on crop production and water availability.

The model also included future sea level rise and storm surges.

In this way, projected population distributions with and without climate impacts were used to estimate future migration.

The model does not attempt to model individual and community agency and if and how adaptation can occur.

Can you spot the assumptions in this approach?

Find out on the next page!

Measuring and projecting HMCCC

The model adopted a population gravity model to project future population distributions according to the shared socioeconomic pathways (SSPs) used by the IPCC.

This was combined with projections of climate impacts on crop production and water availability.

The model also included future sea level rise and storm surges.

The model does not attempt to model individual and community agency and if and how adaptation can occur.

In this way, projected population distributions with and without climate impacts were used to estimate future migration.

So the model which has had most influence in recent years is based upon a lot of assumptions. That is not to say the model is not useful, but it should be acknowledged that such numbers depend on other models (which in turn may be based upon other assumptions).

RESULTS FROM THE GROUNDSWELL REPORT

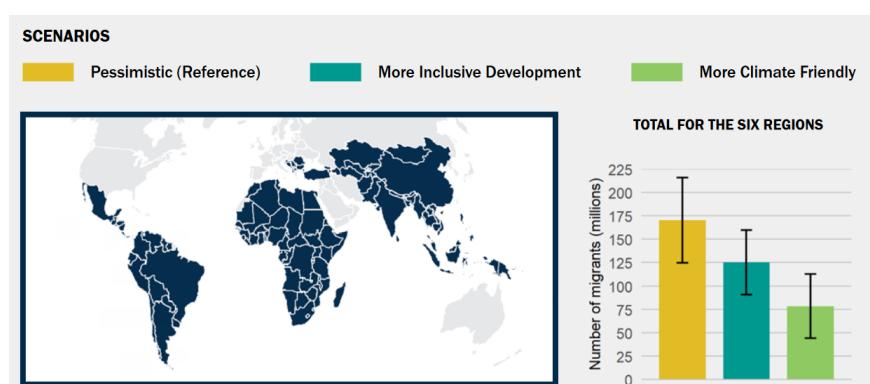


Image credit: World Bank, 2021

Total internal climate migrants by 2050

The Groundswell model projects a range of migrants for the regions depending on the assumptions inherent and considers different forms of sustainable development.

Climate migrants by region in 2050

It comes as little surprise that the poorer and most populous regions are the ones in which the most internal HMCCC is projected to take place.

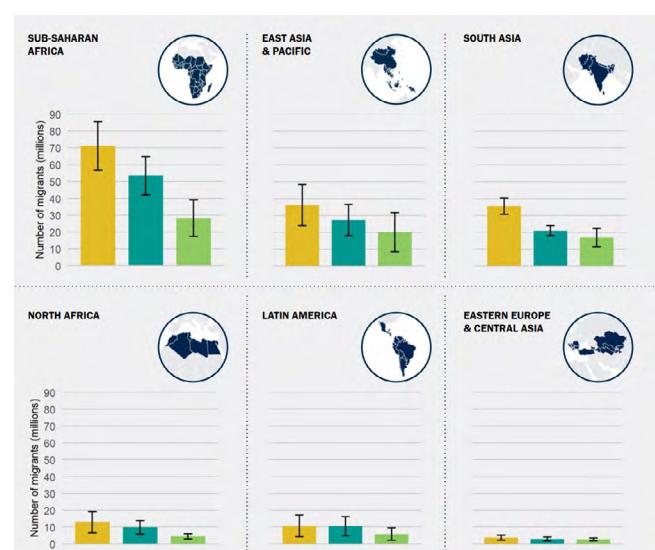


Image credit: World Bank, 2021

PROJECTIONS AT THE CASE STUDY LEVEL

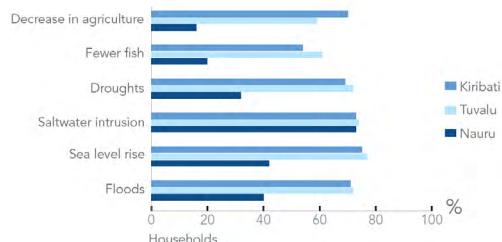
- The Pacific Climate Change and Migration (PCCM) project investigated the past migration experiences in addition to future migration intentions in the Pacific Small Island Developing States of Kiribati, Tuvalu and Nauru.
- It used a quantitative survey to find future aspirations and capabilities of HMCCC in Kiribati, Tuvalu and Nauru

Why might an island setting be appropriate for modelling?

- An island is a small and defined system with limited resources. This makes it relatively well suited to simulation.



Most households feel that migration will be a necessary strategy, if climate impacts worsen living conditions.



Most potential Pacific migrants will not have the financial means to migrate.

26%

Only 26% of people across Kiribati, Nauru, and Tuvalu believe they have the financial means to migrate.

\$12

Represents the median per capita monthly income in Kiribati, Nauru, and Tuvalu.

Image credit: UNU-EHS

PROJECTING HUMAN MOBILITY IN PACIFIC SIDS

A model was used to project human mobility and its effects on the populations of Kiribati and Tuvalu and their capital islands.

TUVALU	FUNAFUTI	KIRIBATI	SOUTH TAWARA
13,200 10,837	7,700 6,194	175,500 103,058	86,500 50,182

■ 2012 Census
 ■ 2010 Census
 ■ 2055

Image credit: UNU-EHS



Image credit: World Bank

The model clearly shows that unless there is a reduction in movements into the capital islands or an increase in movements out of the capital islands, their populations will continue to grow.

This is problematic due to the lack of freshwater, irregular rains and sea level rise which amplifies floods.

THE USE OF PROJECTIONS

As a model uses scenarios, it is able to consider “what if”. But they can also be useful for addressing “how”. The Groundswell Report finds that more sustainable forms of development which reduce climate change and build resilient societies lead to less HMCCC. For the Pacific SIDS, the PCCM model demonstrates the importance of a release valve of international migration to reduce pressure on land and resources¹.

It is hoped that the knowledge produced by model projections can influence policy makers. Just as climate models are essential in influencing the outcomes of climate negotiations, why shouldn't projections of human mobility influence migration policies and frameworks?

Whether such projections can and do influence policy is something which is covered later in the course.

FORMS OF DATA AND KNOWLEDGE FOR PROJECTIONS

So, which forms of data and knowledge are ideally needed to project future numbers of mobility?

We can distinguish three main categories of data and knowledge:

- Natural science
- Quantitative data
- Qualitative data

Can you sort the following types of data into the three categories?

- Geodata (topography, land use, bathymetry)
- Migration and development policies at all level
- Climate projections
- Surveys on economic capacity to move
- Mobility history and networks
- Interviews on mobility aspirations
- Census data
- Private and Public Adaptation

Find the correct answer on the next page.

¹ In most environments it is problematic to state that an area is overpopulated – it depends on the form of development, policies and equality amongst other factors. It is also rather a judgement. Nonetheless, in a low lying small island context, it is useful to consider physical limits which may constrain population numbers or conditions.

Natural science	Quantitative data	Qualitative data
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Geodata • Climate projections 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Census data • Surveys on economic capacity to move 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mobility history and networks • Interviews on mobility aspirations • Private and Public Adaptation • Migration and development policies at all levels

RECAP

Data on HMCCC is important because:

- They can help policy makers understand the present situation with regards to HMCCC.
- They can form evidential basis for policy interventions.

Projections of future HMCCC are useful because:

- They can help policy makers understand a range of future HMCCC outcomes.
- They can test what might happen under different policy responses.

Having seen how data on observed and projections on future flows of HMCCC are represented, the next modules will go into more detail on specific forms of human mobility.

The first module is on migration, that is the more voluntary form of human mobility.

A large, diverse crowd of people is walking through a modern building with a glass wall on the left and a grid-patterned ceiling with recessed lighting. The people are dressed in various casual and professional attire, suggesting a diverse group. The overall atmosphere is one of movement and activity.

Module 3

Migration

Image credit: <https://unsplash.com/@airamdatoon>

Introduction

SUMMARY

This module explores how climate change impacts affect people migrating.

First, general definitions and terms as well as a typology of migration will be introduced.

Additionally, migration will be discussed as an adaptation strategy.

Based on individual stories of migrants, different forms and dimensions of migration will be explored.

Lastly, following these migration stories, cross-sectoral linkages, policy responses and management options will be identified and discussed.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

By the end of this module, you will be able to:

1. Define **migration and climate migration** and distinguish **different types of migration**
2. Discuss **how climate impacts can lead to migration** along a continuum of distance, time and the degree of choice people have
3. Understand that migration can be applied as a **strategy to adapt** to negative impacts of climate change
4. Identify **policy options** to foster the benefits and minimise adverse drivers and risks behind migration
5. Know **relevant stakeholders and cross-sectoral linkages** to tackle migration in a sustainable way

Definitions and typology of migration

DEFINITION



Are all of these people migrants?

What do you think?



Image credit: <https://www.flickr.com/photos/jimforest/>, https://www.flickr.com/photos/eu_echo/, <https://www.flickr.com/photos/iip-photo-archive/>, GIZ / Aaron March, https://flickr.com/photos/stefano_lubiana_wines/

The International Organisation for Migration (IOM) defines a migrant as ...

“a person who moves away from his or her place of usual residence, whether within a country or across an international border, temporarily or permanently, and for a variety of reasons.” ([IOM, About Migration](#))

Please note, however, that the term “migrant” is not defined under international law, and no universally accepted definition exists!

DEFINITION OF CLIMATE MIGRATION

The movement of a person or groups of persons who, predominantly for reasons of sudden or progressive change in the environment due to climate change, are obliged¹ to leave their habitual place of residence, or choose to do so, either temporarily or permanently, within a State or across an international border

([IOM, 2019](#))



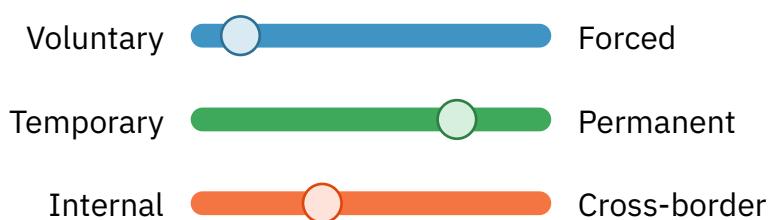
Image credit: GIZ / Felix Ries



Note: this is a working definition of IOM with an analytic and advocacy purpose which does not have any specific legal value.

TYPOLOGIES OF MIGRATION

Climate impacts can trigger migration along a continuum of distance, time and degree of choice:



Human mobility in the context of climate change captures a wide range of movements from voluntary to forced, from temporary to permanent, from internal to cross-border. As decisions to move are highly context-specific, different forms of migration cannot be classified in binary terms. They are situated somewhere along these spectra.

¹ Note that the lines between migration and displacement are blurred. The main distinction is the degree of choice from voluntary (migration) to forced (displacement). In this definition of climate migrants, IOM does speak of “being obliged to leave” or “choosing to do so” thus covering a broad range from voluntary to being forced.

TYPES OF MIGRATION

Here we discuss some forms of migration that are common in countries that are vulnerable to climate change impacts, particularly in the Global South¹:

Seasonal Labour Migration	Rural-Urban Migration	Pastoralism
 <p>Seasonal labour migration involves movement of people from their usual place of residence for several months a year to work elsewhere. This is typical in agricultural areas with a dry season when there is little farm work. In other cases, seasonal demand for labour drives migration. Seasonal migration destinations can be rural as well as urban, and international as well as internal. In most cases, seasonal migrants move individually, while other household members stay behind. In India, over 100 million people migrate seasonally. Seasonal labour migration can diversify livelihoods and income sources to cope with the impacts of climatic events, such as failed harvests.</p>	 <p>Rural-urban migration involves residents of rural areas moving to urban areas e.g. due to a lack of employment and decreasing agricultural productivity. However, people living in rural areas may also move to urban areas because of so-called ‘pull-factors’, such as different lifestyles and opportunities. This is sometimes referred to as ‘the bright lights of the city’. Rural-urban migration may be temporary or permanent and can involve individuals or whole families. It is often internal or regional. Climate change impacts can accelerate “natural” process of urbanisation which occurs due to economic development and demographic transition.</p>	 <p>Pastoralism is a form of seasonal migration. In certain months of the year, pastoral communities move with their livestock along established routes to gain access to water and pasture. It’s an age-old adaptation to climate variability. However, due to expansion of crop cultivation into former pastoral land and tighter border policies, this is increasingly difficult. Climate change impacts and natural resource scarcity can generate conflicts between pastoralists and crop farmers, which can trigger involuntary population displacements. This is particularly common in the Sahel.</p>

Image credit: https://flickr.com/photos/stefano_lubiana_wines/, <https://unsplash.com/@catalinpop>, <https://www.flickr.com/photos/ilri/>

¹ Although there is no official UN definition, the term ‘Global South’ refers to developing countries, many of which (but not all) are located in the Southern Hemisphere, in Africa, Asia, Latin America and Oceania ([more info](#)).

RETURN MIGRATION

IOM defines return migration as “the act or process of going back or being taken back to the point of departure.” This can be within countries or between countries. ([IOM, 2019](#))

There is not much research on return migration in the context of climate change.

However, a study from the Republic of the Marshall Islands showed that 62% of people who moved to the US indicated that climate change – and particularly sea level rise – affects their decision to return to Marshall Islands in the future ([van der Geest et al., 2020](#)).



Image credit: Mark Uriona

TYPOLOGIES OF MIGRATION

Have a look at the **example story** and assess the **type of migration** (seasonal, rural-urban, or pastoralism), whether it is **voluntary or forced, temporary or permanent**, and **internal or cross-border**.

“The food that a single mother farmer in a mountain village in Nepal can produce from her small farm is usually not enough to feed her children the whole year. As there are no non-farm work opportunities for her in the village, every year, she has no other choice than to move 50 km to an area with commercial rice farms where she works as a labourer in the harvest.”

“A young man in Senegal thinks that there is no future in his family’s farm activities. As he has finished secondary school, and hopes to find a job outside of agriculture, he decides to try his luck in the capital, Dakar.”

Find the answers on the next page.

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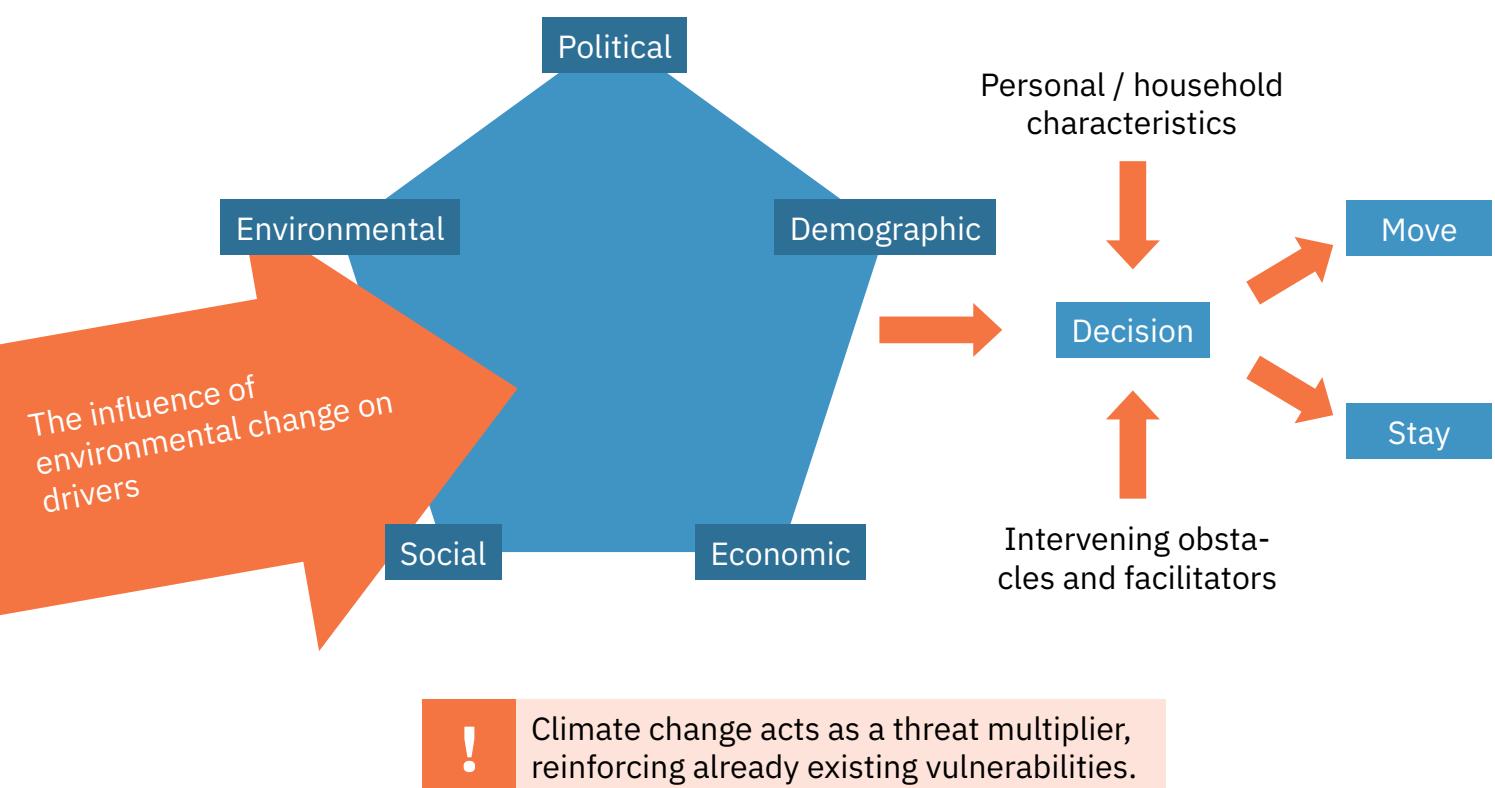


“A young man in Senegal thinks that there is no future in his family’s farm activities. As he has finished secondary school, and hopes to find a job outside of agriculture, he decides to try his luck in the capital, Dakar.”

Linkages between climate change and migration

MULTI-CAUSALITY

As we have seen in Module 1, climate change usually interacts with other drivers of migration:



Think back to the story from this unit's introduction video:

Mr Nurudong in Northern Ghana decided to let two of his five children migrate to the south to work during the dry season as a strategy to cope with crop failure and food scarcity caused by drought.

While climate factors seem to play a key role in this migration example, it is important to note that there are other factors at play too.



What do you think might be other factors at play in this example?

Find possible answers on the next page.

Mr Nurudong in Northern Ghana decided to let two of his five children migrate to the south to work during the dry season as a strategy to cope with crop failure and food scarcity caused by drought.

1

Demography

The fact that this household has two grownup children in a productive age enables them to use this option.

2

Lack of support

With better support for climate-smart agriculture (such as drought resistant crops) or insurance against crop failure, the household would not need to rely on migrants' income.

3

Social networks

Mr Nurudong has a relative who is already living and farming in Southern Ghana. This makes it easier for his household members to also go there and find work.

ENVIRONMENTAL SHOCKS VERSUS GRADUAL ENVIRONMENTAL CHANGES

While the global public debate is predominantly focused on environmental shocks and rapid-onset hazards, when looking at migration we need to consider gradual environmental changes:

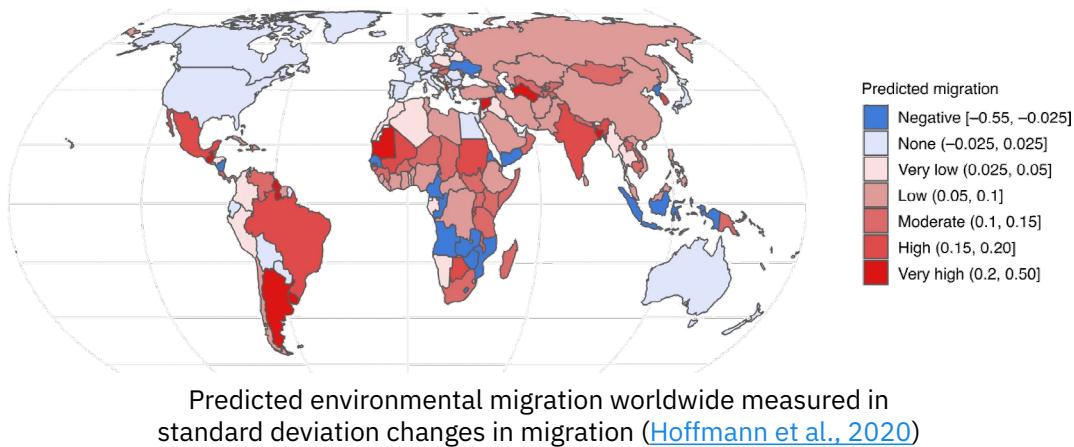
Slow-onset processes such as increasing temperatures, sea-level rise, increasing rainfall variability and desertification may directly and indirectly affect people's decisions to migrate.



If you would like a refresher on the difference between sudden-onset events and slow-onset processes, you may refer back to Module 1.

EVIDENCE OF THE LINK BETWEEN CLIMATE CHANGE AND MIGRATION

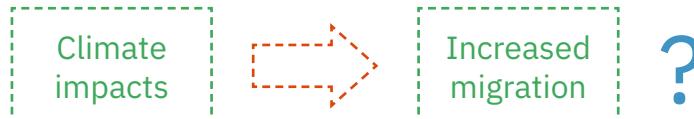
According to a meta-analysis and modeling of existing studies on environmental change and migration, the relation between climate and migration is strongest (red shades) in the Global South and in countries with high proportion of people depending on agricultural livelihoods.



CLIMATE IMPACTS ON MIGRATION

Intuitively, we often think that people move when something is wrong in their home area.

- ▶ Therefore, when the climate or weather is bad and causes problems, we think more people will move away:



Do you think that climate impacts always lead to an increase in migration?

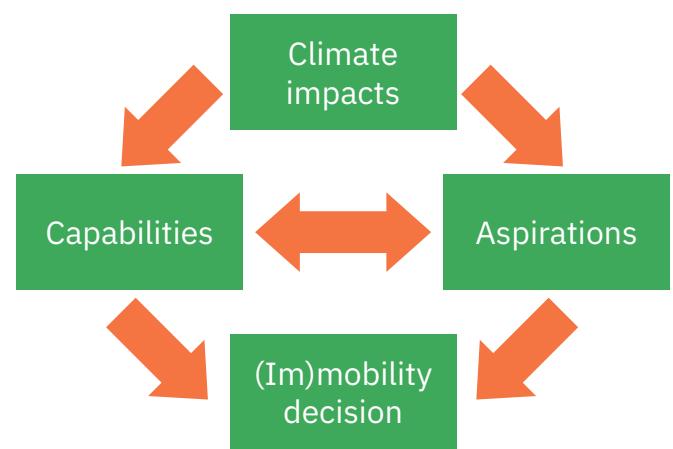
CLIMATE IMPACTS CAN ALSO REDUCE MIGRATION

Resources are needed for migration, especially if migration is over larger distances.

When climate events occur or when climatic conditions worsen gradually, this can actually reduce people's ability to migrate.

Moreover, people migrate not only because of negative problems in their home area, but also because of things they aspire to achieve or experience in other places.

Climate impacts can influence people's aspirations to migrate.



We will look in more detail at the aspirations and capabilities framework in Module 6.

CLIMATE MIGRATION, VULNERABILITY AND RESILIENCE

Insights from the [“Where the Rain Falls” Project:](#)



CARE
WHERE THE RAIN FALLS : CLIMATE CHANGE,
FOOD AND LIVELIHOOD SECURITY, AND MIGRATION
AN 8 COUNTRY STUDY TO UNDERSTAND RAINFALL,
FOOD SECURITY AND HUMAN MOBILITY

UNITED NATIONS
UNU-EHS

How do vulnerable households use migration to manage the risk of rainfall variability and food insecurity?

- ▶ The study showed that similar climatic hazards generate different migration patterns according to people's vulnerability profiles.
- ▶ Migration further generated different impacts on households.

HOUSEHOLD MIGRATION AND VULNERABILITY PROFILES

Based on the findings of the “Where the Rain Falls” project, we can differentiate four different vulnerability profiles:

1. Resilient
2. Coping
3. Erosive
4. Trapped

Source: adapted from [Warner and Afifi \(2013\)](#)

Kiribati is a small island state in the Pacific. The atolls forming this nation face several climate-related threats, such as sea level rise and lack of freshwater. These threats are becoming more severe over time, and many residents from the smaller outer islands relocate to the main island, which has better protection and water provision. However, many families who see the need to move are forced to stay because they don't have enough money to buy or rent a place on the main island.

When a flood hit in India, it destroyed the paddy rice harvest and caused food insecurity. The eldest son, Krishna, migrated to Mumbai for 6 months to work as a riksha driver. Most months he was able to send home 2000 rupees (25 euro) which his parents used to buy food for the family.

Due to changing rainfall patterns and land degradation on the Altiplano in Bolivia, farming and livestock keeping is becoming less rewarding and more risky. A farm household decides to sell half of their llamas to invest in a little business in the capital, La Paz, for their eldest daughter who has finished secondary school and some skills training. She opens a small street food stall and when the business starts running, she supports the family in the village. This way the family becomes less dependent on the vagaries of the weather.

As we have seen in the intro video, many young men and women in Northern Ghana migrate to Southern Ghana in the dry season when there is less work to do on their own farms. This way they can make some money and still contribute to their own family farm in the rainy season. However, in a particularly bad year, when the harvest is so poor that there is not enough food to feed the whole family, the poorer families who have no financial buffer or stored food, are forced to ask the seasonal migrants to stay away longer and fend for themselves. This way the family survives, but the problem is that the migrants don't contribute their labour to the family farm, leading to an even smaller harvest in the next year, and making the situation worse.

Can you match these stories to the four profiles? Find the solution on the next page.

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- **Trapped:** Those who were not able to move at all because they lacked financial or human resources to migrate

When a flood hit in India, it destroyed the paddy rice harvest and caused food insecurity. The eldest son, Krishna, migrated to Mumbai for 6 months to work as a riksha driver. Most months he was able to send home 2000 rupees (25 euro) which his parents used to buy food for the family.

- **Coping:** Those who used migration to cope successfully with climate-induced shortages

Due to changing rainfall patterns and land degradation on the Altiplano in Bolivia, farming and livestock keeping is becoming less rewarding and more risky. A farm household decides to sell half of their llamas to invest in a little business in the capital, La Paz, for their eldest daughter who has finished secondary school and some skills training. She opens a small street food stall and when the business starts running, she supports the family in the village. This way the family becomes less dependent on the vagaries of the weather.

- **Resilient:** Those who could use migration to increase resilience

As we have seen in the intro video, many young men and women in Northern Ghana migrate to Southern Ghana in the dry season when there is less work to do on their own farms. This way they can make some money and still contribute to their own family farm in the rainy season. However, in a particularly bad year, when the harvest is so poor that there is not enough food to feed the whole family, the poorer families who have no financial buffer or stored food, are forced to ask the seasonal migrants to stay away longer and fend for themselves. This way the family survives, but the problem is that the migrants don't contribute their labour to the family farm, leading to an even smaller harvest in the next year, and making the situation worse.

- **Erosive:** Those for whom migration had negative impacts on their livelihoods, making them more vulnerable

Migration as adaptation

BACKGROUND

Migration is often seen as a failure to adapt, i.e. people move away when all other options to adapt have failed.

However, since pre-historic times, migration has been essential for humans to adapt to natural hazards and environmental changes.

There is an increasing acknowledgement that migration and climate change adaptation can go hand in hand. This can work in two ways:

After Typhoon Haiyan struck the Philippines in 2013, there was a sharp increase of remittances that families received from their migrant relatives overseas.

Young people from rural areas use new ideas and skills they've learned in the city – and money they've earned there – to start small businesses in their home areas.

Migration is used as a strategy in itself to adapt to climate change.

Migration revenues and acquired skills are used to support other types of climate change adaptation.

HOW CAN MIGRATION BE A STRATEGY TO ADAPT TO CLIMATE CHANGE?

It can be a way to move out of harm's way, such as in the case of sea level rise.

People may migrate from areas where it is increasingly difficult to earn a living, such as in the case of desertification.

Migration can be a way for rural households to diversify livelihoods, which is a way to spread risks. When the harvest fails, for example, the household can survive on remittances sent by migrants.



Example

After Typhoon Haiyan struck the Philippines in 2013, there was a sharp increase of remittances that families received from their migrant relatives overseas ([Su & Mangada, 2018](#)).

- ▶ This is not exceptional: remittances tend to go up after disasters ([Bragg et al., 2018](#))
- ▶ This helps the recipients to cope with losses and damages to properties, food insecurity and lack of income

However:

- It tends to increase inequality ([Su & Mangada, 2018](#))
- Remittances tend to increase only in the first few months, but later drop again ([Bragg et al., 2018](#))

HOW CAN MIGRATION SUPPORT OTHER CLIMATE CHANGE ADAPTATION MEASURES?

Migration can be a way to finance (through savings and remittances) other adaptation measures, such as climate-smart agriculture or investment in non-farm income sources that are less sensitive to climate impacts.

In their destination areas, migrants can acquire new skills that can help them to adapt to climate change when returning home.



Image credit: Mark Uriona

Example

Rural areas where most people depend on subsistence farming for their livelihoods tend to be **more vulnerable** to climate change impacts.

When young people migrate to urban areas or regions with commercial agriculture to find work, they are exposed to **new farming techniques** or ways of **earning a living outside agriculture**.

If at some point, they decide to return to their villages, they often **bring new ideas and skills** that they acquired in their destination areas.

They often use these new ideas and skills – and the savings they made – to **start small businesses** in their home areas.

- ▶ This way the **local economy diversifies** and becomes **less dependent** on rainfed, subsistence agriculture.
- ▶ This is an **important adaptation to climate change**.

CRITICAL REFLECTION



Can you think of at least two reasons why we must be careful not to put too much faith in ‘migration as adaptation’?

Find possible answers on the next page.

Why do we have to be careful not to put too much faith in ‘migration as adaptation’?

- 1 It may shift responsibility for climate change adaptation from governments to migrants.
- 2 Emphasizing that people can adapt by migrating downplays the seriousness of the Losses and Damages which climate change can bring.
- 3 The migration as adaptation option is not open to all. The most vulnerable households often have limited migration options (they are trapped) and receive little to no remittances.
- 4 Migration can contribute to increased inequality. Wealthier households, for example, can educate their children and increase their chances of well-earning jobs, and they can afford the cost of international migration, which generates much more remittances ([Warner and Afifi, 2014](#)).

Migration policy and management options

MIGRATION POLICY



What is **migration policy**?

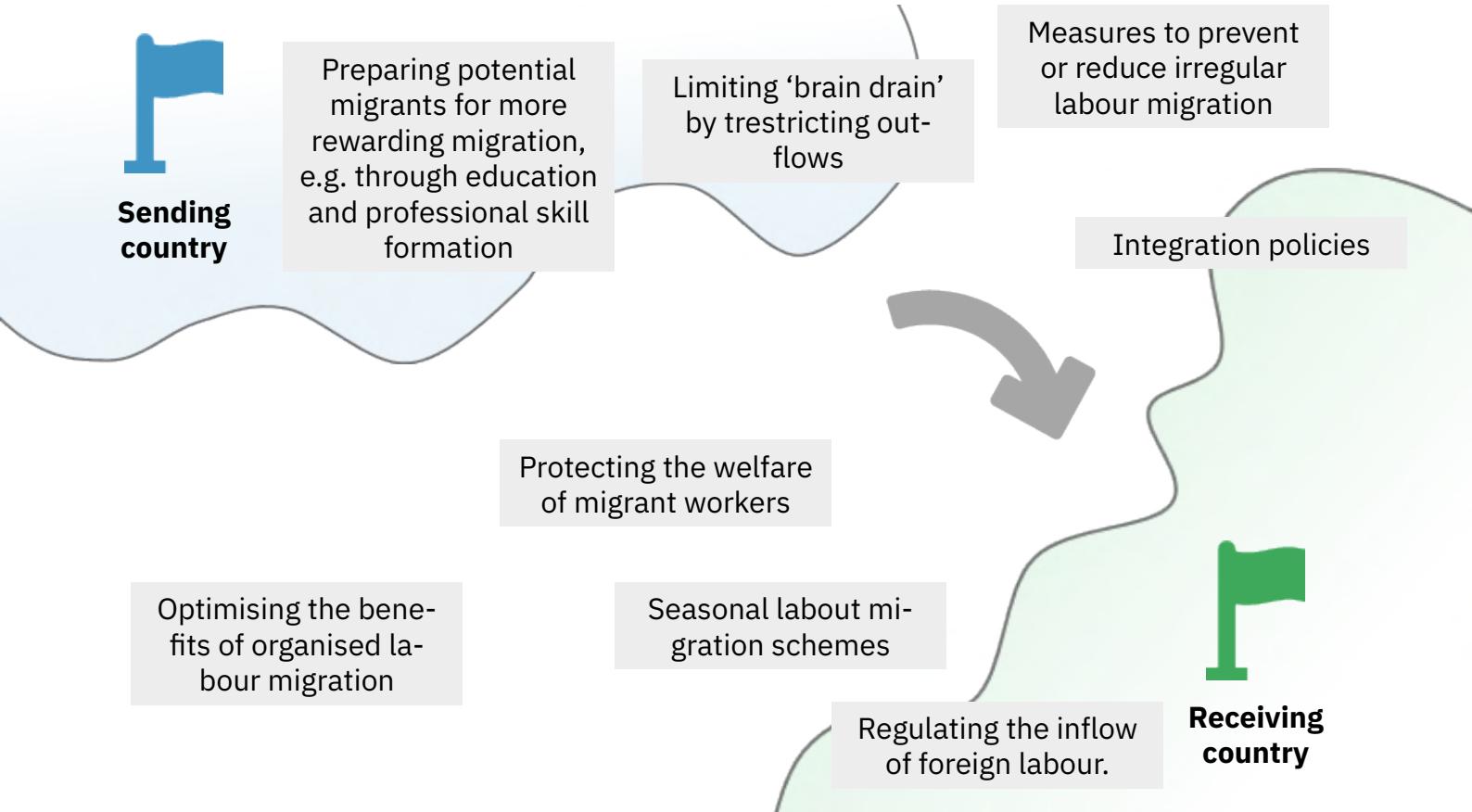
Take a moment to think about this question.

Did you think of states controlling borders and the number of people entering their countries?

Here you'll find out that it's much more than that!

We'll first give some examples of migration policy and then define it, distinguishing between migration governance and migration management.

SOME EXAMPLES OF MIGRATION POLICY



DEFINITIONS

The two main concepts to understand are **migration governance** (or policy) and **management**:

 Migration governance	 Migration management
<p>IOM does not define migration policy in its glossary. It rather speaks of migration governance, which includes migration policy, and is defined as follows:</p> <p>The combined frameworks of legal norms, laws and regulations, policies and traditions as well as organizational structures (subnational, national, regional and international) and the relevant processes that shape and regulate States' approaches with regard to migration in all its forms, addressing rights and responsibilities and promoting international cooperation (IOM, 2019).</p>	<p>The management and implementation of the whole set of activities primarily by States within national systems or through bilateral and multilateral cooperation, concerning all aspects of migration and the mainstreaming of migration considerations into public policies. The term refers to planned approaches to the implementation and operationalization of policy, legislative and administrative frameworks, developed by the institutions in charge of migration (IOM, 2019).</p>

MIGRATION POLICY IN THE CONTEXT OF CLIMATE CHANGE

With the right migration policy and management, mobility can lead to benefits for both sending and receiving countries:



If migrants crossing borders due to climate-related factors can do so through safe and regular channels and can access formal employment opportunities, they are more likely to contribute positively to their home country's development.



At the same time, migration may reduce population pressure on climate-stressed environments and could benefit destination countries by helping to fill labour shortages.



Well-managed and rights-based labour mobility and adaptation policies can provide an opportunity to boost resilience and enhance development while reducing the risk of future displacement.

EXAMPLES OF POLICY THAT INFLUENCES CLIMATE MIGRATION

Policies that explicitly address climate-induced migration are still rare. However, there are many ways in which policy can indirectly influence climate migration ([Migration Policy Institute, 2023](#)).

Here are some examples:

1. In drought-prone agricultural regions, policy can promote climate-smart agriculture to avoid drought-induced crop failures and hunger. This could result in less people migrating in search of money to buy food.



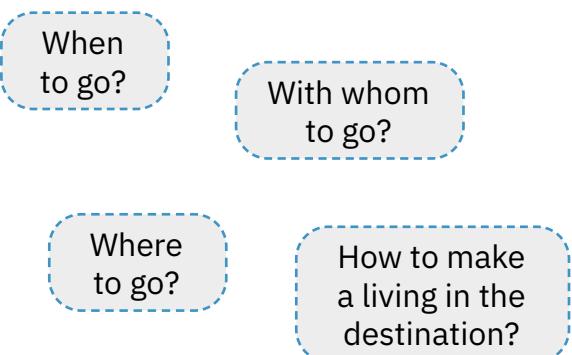
2. Policy and interventions that support host communities who receive climate-induced migrants. Such policy will make the well-being outcomes more positive, for migrants themselves and their host communities. Also, this may make the option to migrate more attractive, influencing the number of climate migrants.
3. Policy that aims to boost positive effects of migration. For instance, states can make it easier and cheaper for migrants to transfer money. This will result in more remittances¹, which influence home communities' vulnerability to climate change. Also, remittances may be invested in adaptation.



Image credit: CIAT/CCAFS / C Peterson, EC/ECHO / Anouk Delafortrie, AU/UN IST PHOTO / STUART PRICE

MIGRATION POLICY AND ADAPTATION

For migration to be adaptive, it's important that people have a choice and different options:



- For this there needs to be time to plan to move, it needs to be proactive, and not reactive
- A migration-friendly and enabling policy environment is crucial for this
- This is often lacking: for many countries migration governance amounts to restricting migration through border controls

! Policy can foster positive and reduce negative outcomes of migration.

¹ Personal monetary transfers, cross border or within the same country, made by migrants to individuals or communities with whom the migrant has links ([IOM, 2019](#))

A photograph of a man standing on a sandy beach, looking out over the ocean towards a distant shoreline. He is wearing a red tank top and light-colored shorts. The beach is covered in debris, including plastic bottles and other trash. In the background, there are hills and buildings across the water.

Module 4

Displacement

Image credit: Arthur Daniel

Introduction

SUMMARY

This module will consider displacement or forced mobility. It defines climate displacement and compares it to other forms of HMC. It introduces how hazards such as cyclones, floods and wildfires can lead to displacement, their impacts on displaced persons and how displacement can heighten risks for vulnerable groups.



Image credit: <https://unsplash.com/@5pacey>

LEARNING OUTCOMES

By the end of this module, you will be able to:

1. Identify **different forms** and examples of displacement
2. Discuss how **climate change impacts** can lead to displacement
3. Consider **vulnerabilities and gender dimensions** related to displacement
4. Name **response strategies** (reactive and proactive) for displacement

What is displacement (forced mobility)?

Environmentally displaced persons are those “who are displaced within their country of habitual residence or who have crossed an international border and for whom environmental degradation, deterioration or destruction is a major cause of their displacement, although not necessarily the sole one” ([IOM, 2011](#)).

When does displacement occur?



Displacement can be **proactive** (**before the event**) in the case of evacuation or **after the event** when homes, livelihoods or personal security are impacted and people are forced to move.

Where do displaced people flee to?



“People who flee within their own countries are called **internally displaced people (IDPs)**. **Cross-border disaster displacement** refers to forced movements between countries. Because people tend to be obliged to move when they are evacuated to avoid exposure to hazards, evacuation is normally considered a form of displacement albeit one that is usually short-term. When displaced people are unable to re-establish their lives and livelihoods for an extended period of time, they are referred to as living in protracted displacement” (UNDRR 2019, [Words into Action Guidelines on Disaster Displacement](#), p. 18)

DISTINGUISHING DISPLACEMENT

While types of mobility exist on a continuum, displacement is generally differentiated from migration in the following ways:

Characteristic	Migration tends to be	Displacement tends to be
Level of agency	More voluntary	More forced on the voluntary-forced continuum
When do they move?	More pro-active: before climate change impacts make life impossible at home	Re-active: After or just before event occurs
Triggering hazard	More likely in response to slow-onset processes	More likely in response to sudden-onset events
Preparations	More time to plan	Less time to plan
Options	Not a last resort	Often a last resort
Consequences	More likely to have positive outcomes	More likely to have negative outcomes: can cause significant losses and damages
Space	Shorter or longer distances	Usually short-distance
Temporality	Temporary or more permanent	Usually temporary, such as in the case of floods ¹

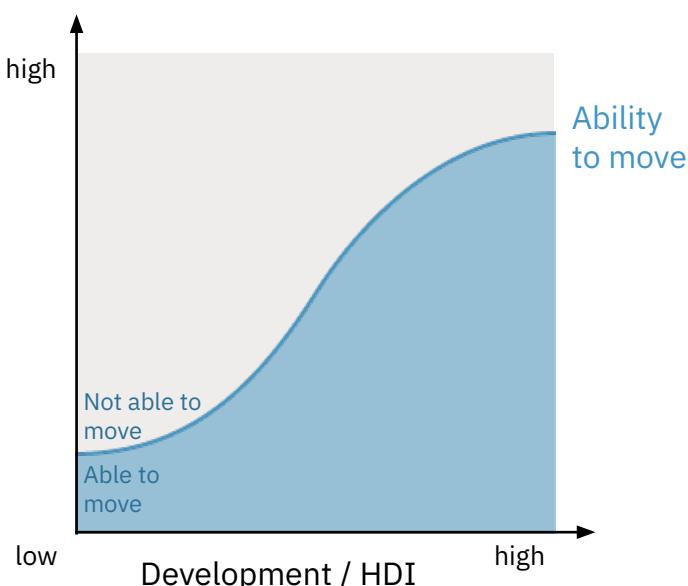
Now we will build up a graph showing how the level of **development** affects people's **ability to move** and their **vulnerability to climate change**, and how this relates to the four mobility and immobility situations discussed earlier.

On the horizontal axis of the graph we will show **development** (as measured by e.g. the Human Development Index²).

On the vertical axis we will show two dimensions.

First, the **ability to move**. As you might expect, with increasing levels of development, people's ability to move increases.

This divides the population in two sections: those who are able to move and those who are not.



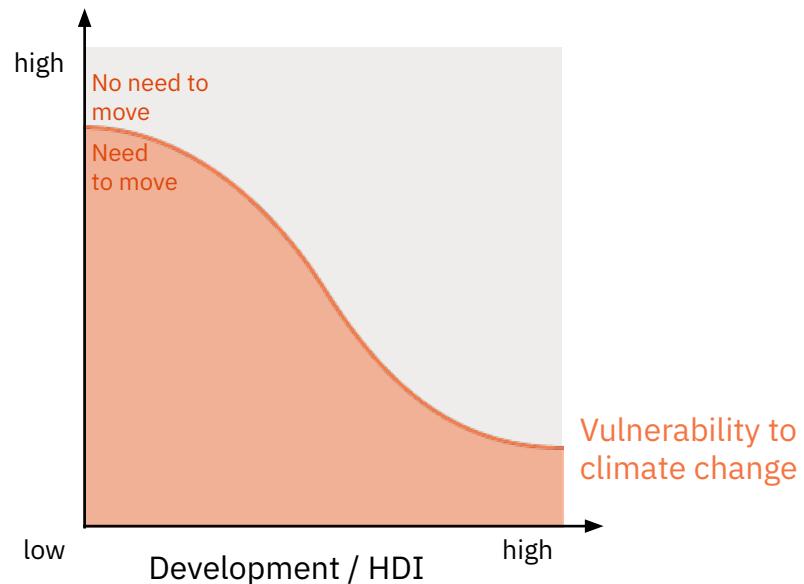
¹ Can become more permanent when situation at home does not return to normal (e.g. after landslide).

When displacement becomes more permanent, it is called 'protracted displacement'.

² The Human Development Index is a three dimensional index that is calculated based on life expectancy, education level and per capita income (more info: [UNDP](#)).

Secondly, we show **vulnerability to climate change**. Here, the relation is inverted: with higher development, people's vulnerability decreases.

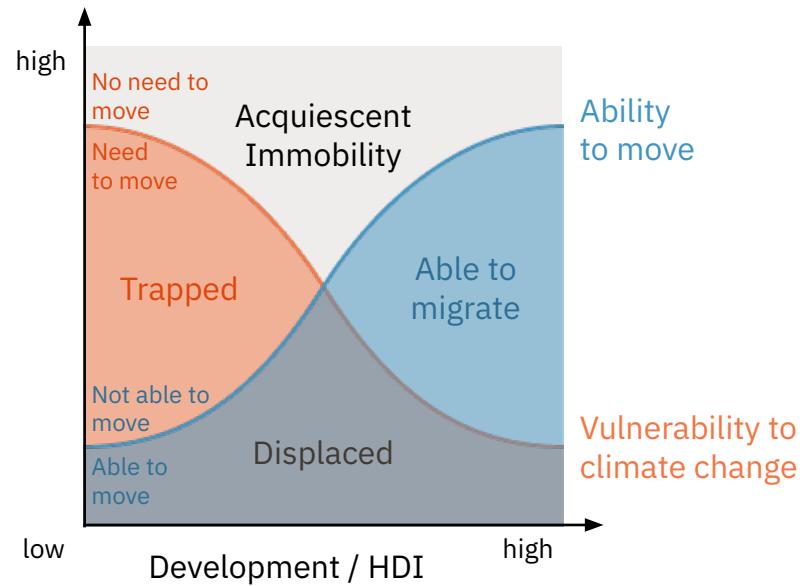
Again, the population is divided into two groups: those who have a need to move or who are forced to move and those who don't.



Now, we bring both dimensions together.

This will result in the four mobility and immobility types:

- ▶ On the left, we see those who need to move, but can't. They are trapped.
- ▶ On the right, there are those who are able to migrate if they want to and they are also able to stay where they are if they want to. This is the most ideal situation.
- ▶ Those who need to move or are forced to move and are able to. They are displaced people.
- ▶ Those who don't need to move, but wouldn't be able to even if they wanted. This mobility type is called "acquiescent immobility", which is a relatively new term in migration research.



As the diagram shows, displacement occurs when there is both an (urgent) need to move and the ability to do so.

DISPLACEMENT OUTCOMES

Although events and people are differentiated, displacement *tends* to have negative impacts on affected people as they have limited agency about whether, when and how to move. This is sometimes related to the idea of loss and damage. When people are displaced they are more likely to suffer losses and damages compared to other forms of HMC. However, it should be noted that forced movements also saves lives where there is no other option.



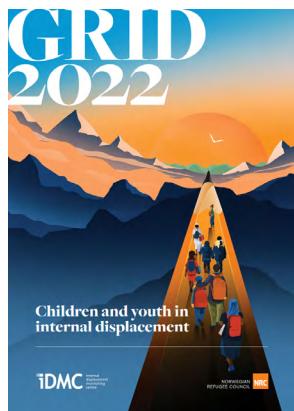
Climate change and displacement

In many parts of the world the impacts of climate change become apparent through increased volatility of extreme weather events. While it is difficult to generalise, extreme weather is becoming more common, even more intense but also less predictable. While we cannot be certain that a specific hazard has been caused by climate change, we can be confident its intensity or likelihood of occurring has increased as a result of climate change¹.



Image credit: U.S. Navy photo by Jim Brooks

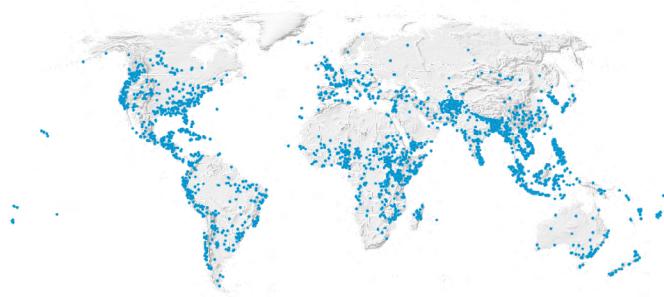
DISASTER DISPLACEMENT



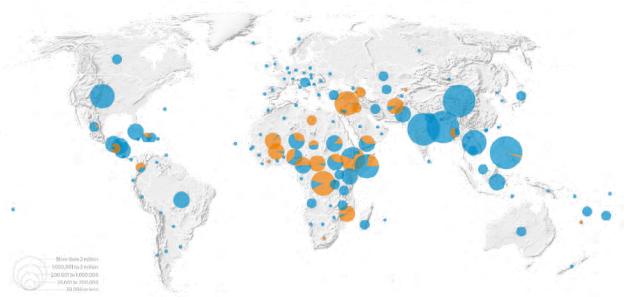
The Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC) produces annual figures on the number of persons displaced every year.

According to their data, an average of **23.3 million people** were displaced by disasters from 2013-2022 ([IDMC, 2023](#)).

While displacement events take place in **most countries of the world each year**, the number of events, and more importantly the number of people affected by each event **varies tremendously by country**.



Disaster displacement events 2020 (IDMC, 2021)



Displaced persons by country 2020 (IDMC, 2021)²

Explore this and other infographics on the [IDMC website](#).

¹ Attribution science is a “field of research, largely used in climate studies. It seeks to test whether – and by how much – climate change may be responsible for certain extreme weather events, such as droughts, extreme flooding, hurricanes, excessive heat or odd storm trajectories.” ([Science News Explores, 2019](#))

² The size of the circles represents the number of newly displaced persons in the year 2021 by country. The blue circles relate to disaster displacements while the orange circles relate to conflict displacements.

THE ROLE OF HAZARDS, EXPOSURE AND VULNERABILITY

As we have seen on the maps by the IDMC, the number of people displaced by disaster events varies tremendously by country. We can understand this through the risk propellor.

- ▶ Climate change **hazards** tend to be concentrated in countries situated near the equator, meaning they are more likely to be affected by weather extremes such as tropical storms.
- ▶ Large populations in developing countries tend to be **exposed** as many live in informal housing and work on, or near the coast.
- ▶ They may be **vulnerable** as their livelihoods depend on crops which may be flooded or access to fisheries be disrupted. They are likely to not have sufficient financial and social capital to absorb shocks.



TRIGGERS OF CLIMATE CHANGE RELATED DISPLACEMENT



There are different triggers for climate change related displacement. Can you think of some of them?



In the following chapter of this unit, we will look at two of the most common ones: tropical cyclones and floods.

Tropical cyclones and floods

TROPICAL CYCLONES

Cyclones (such as hurricanes or typhoons) are a major cause of displacement.

Tropical cyclones are strong storms and called hurricanes in the Caribbean and East Pacific, cyclones in the Indian Ocean and typhoons in the West Pacific Ocean.

Storms made up **more than half** of all weather-related disasters that displaced people globally in 2021, 90% of them being displaced by tropical cyclones ([IDMC, 2022](#)).

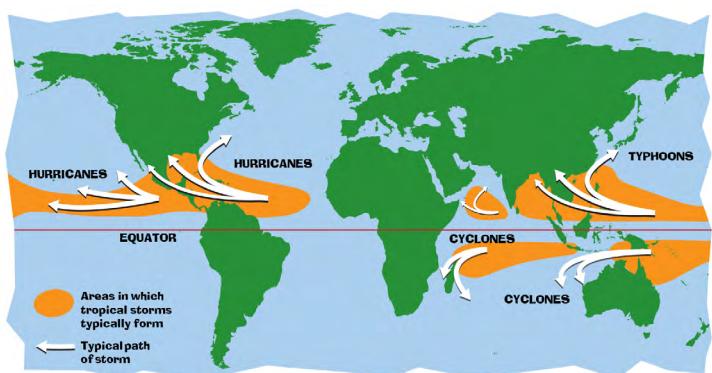


Image credit: NOAA SciJinks

CLIMATE CHANGE AND TROPICAL CYCLONES

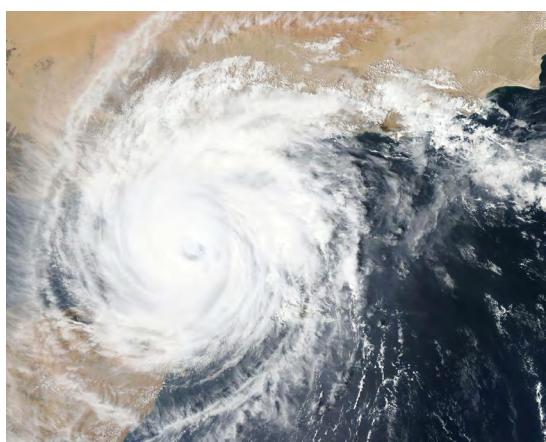


Image credit: <https://unsplash.com/@nasa>

How do **increasing temperatures** change the impacts of tropical cyclones?

If the increase in the global mean temperature is limited to 1.5°C or even 2°C, the total number of tropical cyclones is actually expected to decrease. However, we also have to note that this might differ regionally. According to the IPCC 1.5°C Special Report, the intensity of the storms is likely to increase and more of the highest category tropical cyclones will occur. This is due to warmer oceans acting like fuel: The heat provides more energy to feed the storms, hence making them stronger and thus potentially more damaging. In addition, warmer air can absorb more moisture leading to an increase in the precipitation associated with the storms.

How do impacts change when cyclones move **more slowly**?

Tropical cyclones may move more slowly ([Zhang et al., 2020](#)). "Consequently, they can release more rain on the affected area, although scientific debate on this matter continues. Peak wind speeds and precipitation will therefore most likely increase more significantly if average temperatures rise by 2°C compared to if they only rise by 1.5°C. Further rises in sea levels will result in more severe storm surges." ([Germanwatch, 2021](#))

FLOODS

The occurrence of storms and cyclones is closely linked to floods.

- We have already looked at flooding from a slow-onset perspective, where the increasing frequency and variability of periodic flooding can lead to crop failure and loss of livelihood as well as infrastructure, contributing to peoples' decisions to migrate.
- However, depending on the intensity and suddenness of a flooding event, flooding may also have direct impacts on vulnerable populations, forcing them to leave their homes and find shelter elsewhere.

In 2022, about **19.2 million people worldwide** had to leave their homes due to flooding ([IDMC, 2023](#)).

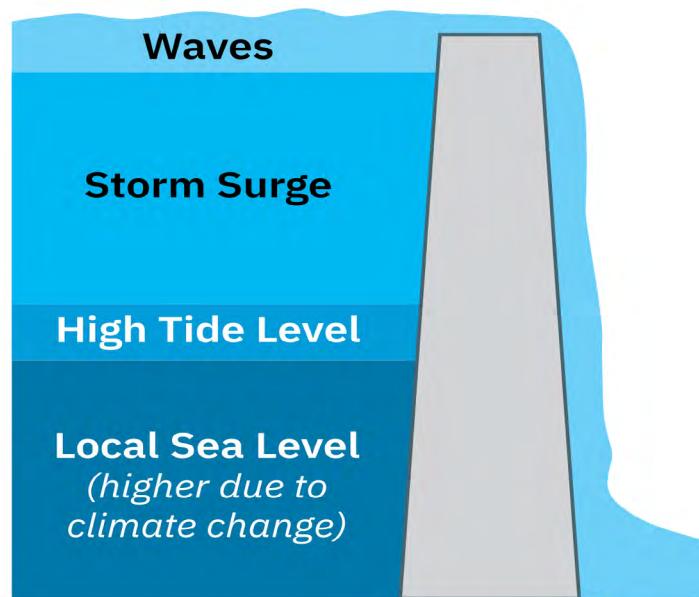
HAZARDS INCREASE IN FREQUENCY AND INTENSITY UNDER CLIMATE CHANGE

Floods are a normal event in many coastal areas around the world. Due to climate change, floods will occur more frequently.

This is because the local sea level is getting higher (due to sea ice melt and thermal expansion).

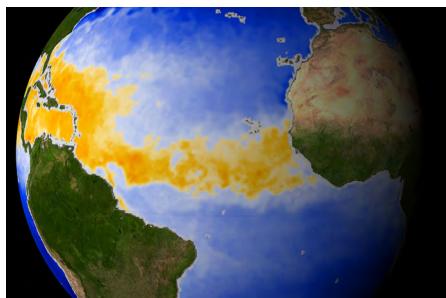
Climate change increases the strength of cyclones and the amount of rain they bring (as there is more heat and energy in the system). The frequency of cyclones might also increase.

This means that when a cyclone impacts a coastal area, the **storm surge** combines with sea level rise and tidal variations and is therefore more likely to push waves onto beaches, over seawalls and into homes and fields.



Case study: Caribbean THE EXPOSURE OF CARIBBEAN STATES

In the Small Island Developing States (SIDS) of the Caribbean, climate change has caused more frequent and devastating weather events such as flooding, tropical storms, and droughts. Under projected climate change more severe tropical cyclones and also the average strength of these storms could increase.



The “hurricane belt” will widen under climate change, with hurricanes exposing and displacing communities outside of the current band as hurricanes move 60 km closer to the poles each decade ([Kossin et al., 2014](#)).



The 2020 Atlantic hurricane season was the most active on record. There were 30 named storms, 13 of which became hurricanes (defined as sustained winds of over 119 km/h). The season was also one of the longest seasons with storms forming earlier than usual and lasting into November ([IDMC, 2021](#)).



In 2020, Hurricane Laura displaced over a million people in 5 countries of the Caribbean and the United States. Hurricane Eta and Iota displaced 1.7 million people in the Caribbean and Central America, with Iota impacting many people still affected by Eta ([IDMC, 2021](#)).

Image credit: NASA GSFC, NOAA, <https://www.flickr.com/photos/2cheap2keep/>

LOSS AND DAMAGE

Although outcomes are very much context specific, in general **displacement tends to have worse outcomes** than more voluntary forms of human mobility such as migration and planned relocation.

This is because when movements are forced, **affected people have little control** over where, when and how they move. As such, we can say that displacement tends to result in **more loss and damage** than migration, which can be considered a form of adaptation.

However, it is not so straightforward. For example, when people evacuate, they **may be able to return and recover swiftly** with livelihoods relatively unaffected.

On the other hand, the slow onset processes which drive migration such as sea level rise or drought can mean a place can be transformed and become **less habitable, or even uninhabitable**.

VULNERABILITY

As covered in previous modules, the impact of HMCCC is not characterised by “equal opportunities”. When a disaster strikes, it is usually the most vulnerable groups within a society who are most affected.

Children’s “*physical, psychological and emotional immaturity and their reliance on adults for security means that they are exposed to a variety of unique and heightened risks – both from the initial climate-related harm that leads to displacement, and as part of the process of moving itself*”.

([Unicef UK, 2017](#))

HOW DISPLACEMENT AND VULNERABILITY CAN RELATE TO GENDER AND CHILDREN

Which factors contribute to increased vulnerability for women and children before, during, and after displacement?



Can you sort these factors by whether they most likely affect women, children, or both?

Find the solution on the next page.

Women	Children	Both
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Role as caregivers means increased burden Intimate partner violence Cultural factors may mean people have not learned to swim 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Access to education Access to clean water and improved sanitation Physiological vulnerabilities can lead to increased fatalities Reduced access to nutritious food later causing stunting 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> At risk of sexual and physical abuse with hosts, at evacuation shelters and camps Reduced access to menstrual health products and services At risk of forced marriage Risk of separation from families Limited contribution to disaster decision making processes

Policy and displacement

POLICY FRAMEWORKS AND DISPLACEMENT

Displacement risks increase under climate change and can lead to forms of loss and damage. In this context it is important to better understand what policy can do to address displacement.

Within the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, the [Task Force on Displacement](#) has the mandate to advise states on how to “avert, minimize and address displacement”¹.

While states are responsible for people displaced internally, there may be a protection gap for people displaced across borders. It is this gap which the [Platform on Disaster Displacement](#) seeks to address.



The opportunities and weaknesses of international and regional frameworks will be explored further in Module 8.

POLICY RESPONSE – WORDS INTO ACTION

In 2019, the United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction (UNDRR) published the Words into Action guideline on Disaster Displacement. Watch the following video for a short introduction:

Six steps to reduce risk, explained | UNDRR | YouTube

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=8JN_yJadfP8

The video showed six steps to reduce the humanitarian consequences of disasters. Do you remember in which order the steps are to be taken?

¹ The composition of the Task Force on Displacement aims to bring together experts from a range of related fields and contains representatives of the United Nations, States and Civil Society.

POLICY RESPONSE – WORDS INTO ACTION

In 2019, the United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction (UNDRR) published the Words into Action guideline on Disaster Displacement:

Step 1: Avoid Displacement and Strengthen Resilience

Map previous displacement and identify at risk populations; develop DRR measures to increase resilience and reduce exposure; consider migration or planned relocation measures

Step 2: Prepare Unavoidable Displacement

Identify displacement focal points; ensure resources are available for local authorities to assist displaced people; inform and consult at risk communities about risks and evacuation plans; identify areas to house the displaced and plan service provision

Step 3: Respond

Ensure evacuations protect human rights including safety from gender-based violence and trafficking; identify displaced people and their needs; consult with and inform displaced populations

Step 4: Support Resilience of Displaced and Host Populations

As quickly as possible: ensure access to basic services; facilitate replacement documents; monitor and address needs over time; support integration into local labour market; support return to school

Step 5: Find Durable Solutions

Consult displaced people and host communities to develop durable solutions strategy; ensure budget allocations; include displaced people's needs in reconstruction and recovery plans

Step 6: Assess Over Time

Continually assess whether displaced people have found solutions; assess risk of future displacement

You can have a look at the Words into Action guideline by looking at this Modules' resources or by following the link below:

Disaster displacement: how to reduce risk, address impacts and strengthen resilience | UNDRR

<https://www.undrr.org/words-into-action/disaster-displacement-how-reduce-risk-address-impacts-and-strengthen-resilience>



Think about past events in your region or country where the Words into Action could have been helpful.

For further information on the Words into Action guideline on Disaster Displacement, have a look at this online self-learning course:

Disaster Displacement | Kaya

<https://kayaconnect.org/course/info.php?id=3028>

POLICY RESPONSES

The form of displacement can condition the severity of impact. Hazards are not the same as disasters. As a reminder, hazards become disasters when they impact on society. This means they affect exposed and vulnerable populations. This happens when coping capacity is exceeded and external assistance is required.

Evacuation



If there are evacuation orders, public assistance and shelter provision, evacuation rates can be high and so vulnerable populations can avoid being exposed to the hazard. In this case the loss and damage related to displacement may be limited.

What if people are unable to evacuate?

Policy Interventions

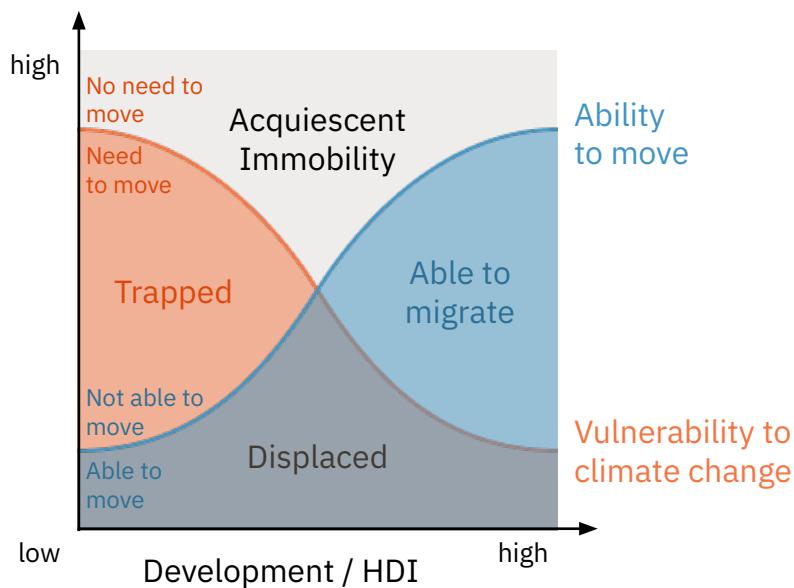


If vulnerable populations are targeted with policy interventions aimed at building up their coping capacity, then vulnerability can be reduced. This means exposed populations will be more able to cope with climate impacts if for example they have improved housing conditions. On the other hand, exposed populations will be more likely to evacuate if they are better educated and have the financial means to support evacuation.

IMPACTS OF SOCIAL, ENVIRONMENTAL AND ECONOMIC CHANGE

We'll now look at how different changes or policy measures affect people's need and ability to move.

For this purpose, let's revisit the graph showing the four types of (im)mobility.



Below are some environmental, social, and economic changes and the impact they might have on HMCCC:

- Increased investment in healthcare: Need ↓
- Investment in a seawall, or other flood defences: Need ↓
- Coastal population increases: Need ↑
- Extension of bilateral/regional mobility agreement: Ability ↑
- Climate resilient agriculture: Need ↓
- Business as usual: Need ↑ , Ability ↓
- Increased investment in education: Ability ↑
- Integration of DRR and development policies: Need ↓
- Facilitation of remittances: Need ↓ , Ability ↑
- Focus on gender equality: Need ↓ , Ability ↑
- Increased tourism: Tourism can influence need and ability to move in various ways, depending on the form of tourism. What do you think are potential outcomes of increased tourism?

A photograph showing a series of colorful wooden houses built on stilts, perched on a steep green hillside. The houses are painted in various colors like blue, white, and orange. Power lines run across the scene, and lush tropical vegetation is visible at the base of the hill.

Module 5

Planned Relocation

Image credit: GIZ / Ragna John

Introduction

SUMMARY

The module explains how the risk of rapid onset extreme weather events and slow-onset climatic changes can lead to the necessity of relocating households and whole communities out of risk-prone areas.

It explores key issues to be considered during a planned relocation, such as free prior and informed consent (FPIC), land tenure, livelihood, access to services, community dynamics and gender.

The module presents the different stages of a relocation process and uses examples from Fiji, the US and the Philippines to illustrate the needs, considerations and policy approaches to planned relocation.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

By the end of this module, you will be able to:

1. Discuss how **slow- and rapid-onset impacts** of climate change make planned relocation **necessary** under specific circumstances
2. Explain why planned relocation is often considered only as a **last resort**
3. Identify relevant **stakeholders** to plan relocation in a sustainable way
4. Value the relevance of **transparent, gender-sensitive, pro-poor and participatory approaches** toward planned relocation
5. Discuss the relevance of **livelihood** and **land tenure issues** in designing planned relocation processes
6. Understand that planned relocation is a **multi-dimensional process**

Climate impacts and planned relocation

DEFINITION OF PLANNED RELOCATION

According to UNHCR, planned relocation is ...

“a planned process in which persons or groups of persons move or are assisted to move away from their homes or places of temporary residence, are settled in a new location, and provided with the conditions for rebuilding their lives” ([UNHCR, 2015, p. 5](#)).

Furthermore ...

- Planned relocation is typically initiated and implemented by governments.
- The close involvement of affected communities and host communities is crucial to successful planned relocation.

OTHER TERMINOLOGIES

In academic and policy documents, you can come across alternative labels.

“resettlement”

“managed retreat”

“managed realignment”

There is no agreement about how exactly these terms differ, but there may be subtle, yet politically relevant differences in nuance.

Within the topic of HMCCC, GIZ decided to use the term **planned relocation**, as this is also the common term used by the UNFCCC.

INTERNAL VS INTERNATIONAL RELOCATIONS

Planned relocations are usually within country borders and over short distances.

However, in exceptional cases, planned relocations can be international.

If the whole country is affected by climate impacts and no safe land area is available for internal relocations, international relocation might be the only option. This can be the case in **atoll nations** – countries that consist entirely of low-lying atolls. When sea level rise threatens their inhabitants, planned relocation to another country may be an option.

There are only four atoll nations in the world:

- Kiribati
- Republic of the Marshall Islands
- Tuvalu
- Maldives



Image credit: <https://www.flickr.com/photos/jopolopy/>

Other small island states that have areas at risk of sea level rise tend to have alternative places to go to ('higher grounds') within their own territory. Planned relocations tend to be within country borders there.

Example: Kiribati

In 2014, its government bought land on Fiji for potentially relocating 60,000-70,000 inhabitants if their islands would become uninhabitable in the future.

*Note: Currently, the land is being developed for agriculture to increase Kiribati's food security.
(The Guardian, 2021)*

FORCED VS VOLUNTARY

As with migration and displacement, there is a continuum between forced and voluntary. The degree of force varies from one planned relocation to the other:

Voluntary  Forced

There are three dimensions of force:

- How strongly do climate impacts undermine the safety, habitability and livelihoods of the place?
- Are there other adaptation alternatives?
- Do authorities impose the relocation on the habitants or do they leave them a degree of choice?

EXERCISE: PLANNED RELOCATION, DISPLACEMENT, OR EVACUATION?

The difference between planned relocation, displacement, and evacuation¹ in the context of climate change can be confusing.

A coastal village is increasingly at risk due to sea-level rise. The community becomes frequently inundated. In an initial attempt to mitigate the saltwater intrusions and protect the community, a seawall is constructed, however, over time this barrier becomes ineffective. The affected village approaches national authorities and initiates a process of planning to move to a safer location up in the hills.

A coastal village is at risk due to sea-level rise. A tropical storm is moving towards the village with heavy flooding and potential damage to houses expected. Villagers seek temporary shelter at a nearby village further up before the storm hits.

A coastal village is at risk due to sea-level rise. The village is hard hit by a sudden and intense flooding, causing significant losses and damages to the villagers. Houses are destroyed and villagers' lives are at risk. There is little time for villagers to plan where, how, and when to move. Instead, they are forced to move to a nearby village for shelter.

Can you identify which category (planned relocation, displacement, or evacuation) the examples belong to? Find out on the next page.

¹ Evacuation is “the rapid physical movement of people away from the immediate threat or impact of a hazard to a safer place” ([UNHCR, 2014](#), p. 10).

Evacuation in response to climate hazards is a form of human mobility that is usually:

1. in response to rapid-onset events
2. preventive: people evacuate before the hazard strikes
3. short distance: as there is usually little time, nearby safe places are preferred
4. short duration: people usually return shortly after the hazardous situation has ended

Planned Relocation

A coastal village is increasingly at risk due to sea-level rise. The community becomes frequently inundated. In an initial attempt to mitigate the saltwater intrusions and protect the community, a seawall is constructed, however, over time this barrier becomes ineffective. The affected village approaches national authorities and initiates a process of planning to move to a safer location up in the hills.

► **Planned relocation**

A coastal village is at risk due to sea-level rise. A tropical storm is moving towards the village with heavy flooding and potential damage to houses expected. Villagers seek temporary shelter at a nearby village further up before the storm hits.

► **Evacuation**

A coastal village is at risk due to sea-level rise. The village is hard hit by a sudden and intense flooding, causing significant losses and damages to the villagers. Houses are destroyed and villagers' lives are at risk. There is little time for villagers to plan where, how, and when to move. Instead, they are forced to move to a nearby village for shelter.

► **Displacement**

CASE STUDY: PLANNED RELOCATION IN COASTAL LOUISIANA (USA)

Introduction: Isle de Jean Charles (Louisiana, USA) is a Native American community on the South Coast, threatened by sea level rise and coastal storms.

Video: Watch this video from CBS Mornings and reflect on the questions:

Disappearing Louisiana island could create America's 1st climate change refugees| CBS Mornings| YouTube

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=t-uRB26a-sg>

- Think of some reasons why many of the islanders resist relocation.
- Sea level rise and cyclones endanger the island, but what other threats and causes of vulnerability are mentioned in the video?
- How may the fact that the inhabitants are Native Americans influence their resistance to relocation?

Find out more on the next page.



Image credit: <https://www.flickr.com/photos/karenapicot/>

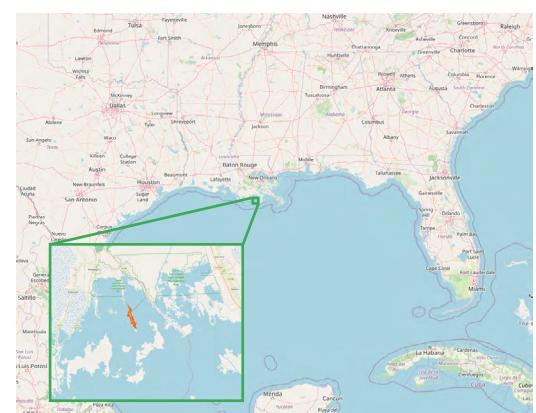


Image credit: OpenStreetMap contributors

Reasons why many of the islanders resist relocation:

- Strong cultural ties and a sense of belonging/attachment to the island
- They want to stay together as a community
- Their livelihoods are tied to the island (e.g. the shrimp fisher)

What other threats and causes of vulnerability are mentioned in the video?

- Activities of the oil company
- A levee was built, but the island was left out.

How may the fact that the inhabitants are Native Americans influence their resistance to relocation?

- Lack of trust because of a long history of discrimination

The woman interviewed in the video considers the term “America’s first climate refugees” an insult.



Why do you think many climate mobility researchers and activists would agree with her?

- The word “refugee” may bring to mind a number of (not always accurate) images: tented camps and dangerous boat crossings. People facing the prospect of moving hope that they will have some choice in the timing and circumstances of their movement, move with dignity, and remain independent and self-sufficient ([Randall, 2013](#)).
- In addition, estimates of numbers of “climate refugees” may be instrumentalised by xenophobic and anti-immigrant political movements rather than directing attention to those who champion these numbers to call for bolder climate action ([Durand-Delacre et al., 2021](#)).
- At its worst, reference to “climate refugees” fuel nationalistic and xenophobic responses, even when the intent is otherwise ([De Sherbinin et al., 2022](#)).

Further reading on the term “climate refugees”:

- **Chapter “Climate Migration is about People, not Numbers” by Durand-Delacre et al. (2021) in book: Negotiating climate change in crisis**
<https://www.openbookpublishers.com/books/10.11647/obp.0265>
- **Climate refugees? Where's the dignity in that? | Alex Randall | The Guardian**
<https://www.theguardian.com/environment/2013/may/17/climate-change-refugees-dignity-migration>
- **Climate Refugees: Should You Use the Term? | Melissa Siegel | YouTube**
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QOVCZr9Umpw>

Reflection: The Isle de Jean Charles experience is also an example of how different forms of human mobility co-exist.

There were more than 200 houses, now 35.

Prior to the planned relocation of last remaining households, many have moved out already:

- Some more voluntarily (migration, more pro-active, also in response to opportunities such as education, employment elsewhere)
- Some more forced (displaced, more sudden, for example after house destroyed in a hurricane ... no place to go back to)

Exercise: As you have seen, the situation on Isle de Jean Charles results in different types of human mobility. Do you know what types the following (fictional) stories exemplify?

As hurricane Ida approached in 2021, Melinda and her children left the island for temporary shelter in a suburb of New Orleans.

Ryan and his family experience frequent flooding of their home, but they are staying on the island because they lack the resources to start anew somewhere else.

The day before hurricane Isaac hit the island in 2012, Tom and his family sought shelter on the mainland. When they returned after four days, they found that their house was destroyed. They lacked the money to re-build and decided to move to the mainland.

Lydia grew up on the island. In 2012, she moved to New Orleans to attend college. When she finished college, she decided not to return to the island because she found a job in New Orleans.

Can you match the four stories to the four types (displacement, migration, evacuation, trapped)? Find out on the next page.

As hurricane Ida approached in 2021, Melinda and her children left the island for temporary shelter in a suburb of New Orleans.

► **Evacuation**

Ryan and his family experience frequent flooding of their home, but they are staying on the island because they lack the resources to start anew somewhere else.

► **Trapped**

The day before hurricane Isaac hit the island in 2012, Tom and his family sought shelter on the mainland. When they returned after four days, they found that their house was destroyed. They lacked the money to re-build and decided to move to the mainland.

► **Displacement**

Lydia grew up on the island. In 2012, she moved to New Orleans to attend college. When she finished college, she decided not to return to the island because she found a job in New Orleans.

► **Migration**

MEASURE OF LAST RESORT

Planned relocation should be seen as a measure of last resort. It is costly and comes with risks. Other adaptation options should be explored first.

“Planned relocation should only be implemented when no other means of adaptation are available to enhance the population’s resilience and ability to remain in their original settlements ...” ([UNHCR, 2014](#), p. 20)

There are different arguments around why planned relocation is seen as a last resort measure.



Please take a moment to think and write down two reasons why you think it is seen as last resort measure.

Find potential answers on the next page.

Planned Relocation

Why is planned relocation seen as a measure of last resort?

- Moving people away from their traditional sources of food and income (e.g. fishing) can have severe consequences for their livelihood security.
- People often have a strong attachment to the place where they and their ancestors grew up. Relocation comes with significant cultural disruption and emotional damage.
- Planned relocations are usually more expensive than adaptation and disaster risk reduction measures.

To address the problem of loss of livelihood and emotional damage of leaving one's place of residence, what could be an option?



Take a moment to think how these issues may be addressed, then click the button below.

Possible option to address the problem of loss of livelihood and emotional damage of leaving one's place of residence

- When identifying new sites for relocating communities, preference should be given to the community's own traditional lands, and be located in a similar environment or in close proximity of traditional sources of livelihood.

PLANNED RELOCATION IN A MULTI-HAZARD CONTEXT

Planned relocation often occurs in multi-hazard contexts.

In such cases there is usually one proximate or dominant hazard triggering the decision to relocate. Other climate processes or events may occur before, after or alongside the main trigger, and the combined harm or risk leads to the need to relocate (Source: [Platform on Disaster Displacement, 2021](#), p. 30).

It is often a combination of slow-onset and sudden-onset stressors.

Example:



Risk of coastal storms causing inundation (sudden-onset)



Do you remember from Module 1 which climate-related stressors are slow-onset and which are sudden-onset? Refer to the graphic to refresh your memory.

Image credit: adapted from UNFCCC (2017)

Key issues to consider in planned relocation

EXAMPLE: TUKURAKI VILLAGE (FIJI)

Tukuraki is an old village in a landslide-prone area.



After a landslide occurred, people were forced to vacate the village and dispersed over neighbouring villages where they lived as guests.



After 5 years, a new village was established at 1.5 hours walk from the old village.

- + Safe houses and better services

- Farmlands were far away
- Poor market access
→ Compromising villagers' livelihood

Watch this video from GIZ and then continue to a short exercise:

Tukuraki Village – Climate Change Relocation | GIZ | YouTube

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MYIc4-EqyVc>

The video mentioned several challenges and opportunities of the new village.

Distance to urban centres

Sanitation facilities

Access to school

Ownership of farm land

Medical centre

Cyclone resistant housing

Community hall

Can you sort these aspects into **challenges** and **opportunities**?

Find out on the next page.

Challenges	Opportunities
Distance to urbane centres	Cyclone resistant housing
Ownership of farm land	Sanitation facilities
	Community hall
	Access to school
	Medical centre

KEY ISSUES TO CONSIDER IN PLANNED RELOCATION

Here are some key issues to consider in planned relocation:

Land & Tenure



Although there is land around the new village, the Tukuraki villagers do not own land there. Because of traditional land tenure arrangements they are not allowed to establish farms on this land. They have to go to their traditional land to farm. No provision for farming land was made when discussions on the new village site were made with the traditional landowners.

This example shows how important it is to take land tenure into account when planning relocations, particularly when the villagers have agricultural livelihoods.

Livelihoods

With no access to farm land in the new village, some households decided to continue farming in the old village.



Others found employment in urban centres, but these are too far away to allow commuting.

If a site had been selected that was at commuting distance from urban employment, then more households would have resided in the new village permanently.

Taking livelihood into account is a key factor for successful planned relocation.

Culture



The Tukuraki villagers have lived in their old village for several generations. Their culture is closely related to the place where they lived and where their ancestors are buried.

The same was the case for the residents of Isle de Jean Charles who refuse to leave due to cultural ties to their ancestral lands.

Is relocation really necessary?

As we've discussed earlier, relocation should be seen as a **measure of last resort**.

Cultural ties and place attachment play an important role in people's decisions whether to move or not. Many communities in the Pacific have a **strong desire to stay** in their villages and prefer to **adapt locally** with support from their government and other organizations.

Minimise cultural losses

When this is really not possible, and relocation is inevitable, the design of planned relocation efforts should do whatever possible to minimise the cultural and emotional losses.

Can you think of ways to achieve this¹?

Physical and Mental Health

Moving away from environmental risk and having improved access to medical centres and sanitation facilities can be key health opportunities for the Tukuraki villagers.

However, relocation also comes with **health challenges**. This has been documented in other relocation cases in Fiji, such as in the case of Vunidogoloa village:



Villagers who had relocated reported reduced access to (nutrient-rich) traditional diets and instead increased consumption of packaged and processed foods and alcohol with impacts on their physical health.

The loss of place attachment had negative effects on emotional health and wellbeing for some.

Some women experienced increased domestic violence as the relocation meant a shift from a communal lifestyle to single family households. With that, women lost the protection that communal living affords.

¹ How to minimise cultural and emotional losses:

- Consult villagers' views on best way to preserve their culture.
- Enable the community to stay together

Can you think of any other ideas?

GEDSI: Gender Equality, Disability Inclusion, Social Inclusion

The acronym GEDSI stands for “Gender Equality, Disability Inclusion, Social Inclusion”. Do you know what this means in practice with regards to planned relocation?



Gender

The challenges of relocation are often gendered. Women in the Tukuraki village are often responsible for selling agricultural products in markets. However, relocation negatively impacted their accessibility to these markets, making it increasingly difficult for women to carry out their work.

Social inclusion

Uneven power dynamics between national governments and local communities can inhibit social inclusion. Local hierarchical structures may also pose barriers to fully inclusive participation structures.

In the case of relocation of the Vunidogoloa village, Fiji, decision-making power reside in the hands of a selected few such as chief and male elders, excluding women and other marginalized members of the community.



Disability

The ability to relocate often depends on resources and physical mobility. Persons with disabilities who move can face challenges related to the need for e.g. assistive devices and accessible transportation, accommodation and services. The potential loss of personal support networks may significantly impact daily living and participation.

Keeping this in mind, diverse people at the community-level must have the possibility to engage in discussions and policies about relocation planning in order to make informed decisions now and in the future and to ensure just planned relocation processes.

GEDSI: Gender Equality, Disability Inclusion, Social Inclusion

The acronym GEDSI stands for “Gender Equality, Disability Inclusion, Social Inclusion”. Do you know what this means in practice with regards to planned relocation?

Indigenous rights



The International Labour Organization (ILO) [Convention 169](#) provides specific protection for indigenous peoples in the context of planned relocation. It states that ...

"Relocation shall take place only with their free and informed consent."

It also states that ...

"Whenever possible, these peoples shall have the right to return to their traditional lands, as soon as the grounds for relocation cease to exist."

When return is not possible, it states that the people shall be provided with lands of quality and legal status equal to that of the lands previously occupied. If monetary compensation is preferred, they shall be compensated under appropriate guarantees.

Indigenous rights and FPIC: Free, Prior, and Informed Consent

In addition, to protect indigenous people in projects such as planned relocation, States should follow FPIC – a specific right that pertains to indigenous peoples and is recognised in the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples (UNDRIP).

- **Free:** There is no coercion, intimidation, or manipulation.
- **Prior:** Consent is sought sufficiently in advance of any authorisation or commencement of activities and respect is shown to time requirements of indigenous consultations processes.
- **Informed:** Information is provided that covers a range of aspects, including scope of project; the purpose; its duration; economic, social, cultural, environmental impacts and risks, and more.



Image credit: adapted from UNFCCC (2017)

Policy frameworks to guide relocation

SPECIAL FOCUS ON THE PACIFIC IN THIS MODULE

Planned relocation is not a new phenomenon. It has been considered for years in the Pacific before official processes began.

In the Pacific, planned relocation as a consequence of disasters has happened for decades.

The Pacific islands, and in particular Fiji, have extensive experience with planned relocation related to climate threats which can offer lessons for other countries in the region and beyond.

Example: Vanuatu

The National Policy on Climate Change and Disaster-Induced Displacement (2018) also addresses planned relocation.

Key policy frameworks in Fiji

- Planned Relocation Guidelines – A Framework to Undertake Climate Change Related Relocation
- Climate Relocation and Displaced Peoples Trust Fund for Communities and Infrastructure

Some countries have normative instruments and other arrangements that address planned relocation.

The aim is to minimise harms to affected people and promote human rights and dignity.

THE NATIONAL POLICY ON CLIMATE CHANGE AND DISASTER-INDUCED DISPLACEMENT (VANUATU)

- A common framework to address displacement in Vanuatu, including relocation ([Government of Vanuatu, 2018](#))
- Emphasises the importance of inclusive planning processes and protection of particularly vulnerable and minority groups.
- Sets out strategic areas of priority. In terms of relocation, these are:



Institutions and governance

Identify an "institutional home" for matters relating to relocation, displacement, and internal migration rather than having responsibilities scattered across different government agencies



Safeguards and protections

Develop guidelines that must be followed by all stakeholders (referred to as safeguards) to minimise the potentially harmful impacts of relocation



Capacity-resources and training

Develop training to build the technical skills needed for successful relocation planning



Land, house, planning

Develop new, innovative community-led land arrangements



Health, nutrition and psycho-social wellbeing

Ensure relocated people have access to health and medical care, psycho-social or spiritual assistance



Education

Ensure education in the new location is established prior to relocation



Infrastructure and connectivity

Include infrastructure planning, particularly overlooked transportation infrastructure, into relocation planning



Agriculture, food security and livelihoods

Strengthen support to restore livelihoods and incorporate training in agriculture and food security into relocation planning



Traditional knowledge, culture, and documentation

Record personal and communal connections to land, assets, and traditional knowledge. Share traditional knowledge and stories of relocation to demonstrate innovation and resilience in the face of adversity



Access to justice and public participation

Strengthen access to justice and public participation mechanisms. For example, establish complaints mechanisms for people affected by relocation

FIJI: PLANNED RELOCATION GUIDELINES

- ▶ Relocation is option of last resort.
- ▶ Only to be considered when all adaptation options have been exhausted.
- ▶ Requires an inclusive and gender responsive consultative and participatory process.
- ▶ Need to ensure community engagement and ownership in the relocation process.
- ▶ How guidelines will be turned into action remains to be seen.
- ▶ To turn good intentions into successful relocations, well-developed Standard Operating Procedures (SOPs) are needed.
- ▶ No relocation is ever 100% successful, however key lessons learnt inform SOPs and can make future relocation more successful.

Click on the link below to read the guidelines (optional):

Planned Relocation Guidelines: A framework to undertake climate change related relocation

<https://fijiclimatchangeportal.gov.fj/ppss/planned-relocation-guidelines-a-framework-to-under-take-climate-change-related-relocation/>

POLICY ENVIRONMENT AND STAKEHOLDER ENGAGEMENT

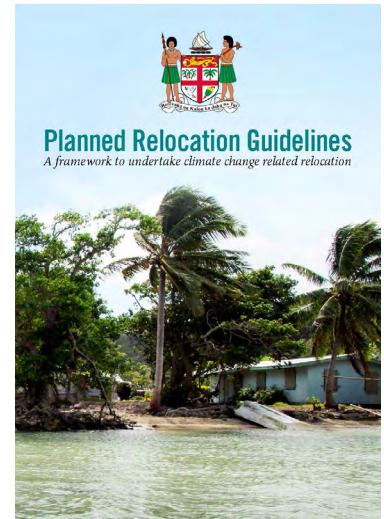
Effective policy formulation and implementation need a **strong actor network** and **stakeholder engagement**. This includes informing stakeholders about the risks, impacts and opportunities of the relocation and doing so in relevant language, in a way that is culturally appropriate and is accessible for various groups.

Some groups may have specific information needs, based on aspects such as disability, literacy or gender.

Many different stakeholders tend to be involved in planned relocation.



Can you think of a few key actors involved in planned relocation and other responses to the challenges of climate-induced human mobility in Fiji?



STAKEHOLDERS INVOLVED IN HMCCC IN FIJI



Multilateral organisations

- United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction (UNDRR)
- International Disaster and Monitoring Centre (IDMC)
- Platform for Disaster Displacement (PDD)
- International Organization for Migration (IOM)
- NZ Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade
- Delegation of the European Union for the Pacific (EU)



NGOs and civil society (local, regional, and international)

- Fiji Council of Social Services
- The Fiji Red Cross
- Fiji Women's Rights Movement
- Adventist Development and Relief Agency (ADRA)
- The Rainbow Pride Foundation
- Save the Children
- Habitat for Humanity Fiji
- Pacific Islands Climate Action Network
- Climate Tok



Regional organisations

- Pacific Resilience Partnership Technical Working Group on Human Mobility
- Pacific Islands Forum Secretariat
- The Pacific Community (SPC)
- The University of the South Pacific
- Pacific Islands Development Forum
- Pacific Disability Forum
- Pacific Conferences of Churches

Please note that this is a non-exhaustive overview.



National government

- Ministry of Economy
- Ministry of Rural and Maritime Development and Disaster Management
- Ministry of iTaukei Affairs
- Ministry of Lands and Mineral Resources
- Ministry of Housing and Community Development
- Ministry of Infrastructure and Meteorological Services
- Ministry of Women, Children, and Poverty Alleviation
- Ministry of Fisheries / Forests / Agriculture
- Ministry of Waterways and Environment
- Fiji National University



Utility bodies & private sector

- Energy Fiji Limited
- Water Authority of Fiji
- Fiji Roads Authority
- Fiji Institute of Engineers



Local community

- Soqosoqo Vakamarama iTaukei (SSVM) – representing iTaukei women
- Narikoso Village
- Vundigoloa Village
- Tukuraki Village
- Cogea Village

LESSONS LEARNT

Vunidogoloa, a coastal village in Fiji, was relocated due to frequent flooding and houses sinking.



Image credit: GIZ / Aaron March, OpenStreetMap contributors, Copernicus Sentinel data 2022

What were positive outcomes of the relocation?

Can you recall some of the aspects of this planned relocation, mentioned earlier in the module, that were not so successful?

Have a look at the image material and continue reading for possible answers.

What were positive outcomes of the relocation?

- Closer to road so better access to schools and town
- Each household now has its own house.

(Optional) Watch this video by GIZ for more information about Vunidogoloa:

Vunidogoloa Moves Higher – Climate Change Relocation| GIZ | YouTube

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2mizBTG13-M>

Can you recall some of the aspects of this planned relocation, mentioned earlier in the module, that were not so successful?

- Poorer diet
- Loss of place attachment reducing wellbeing
- Women experiencing increased domestic violence following the loss of communal ways of living

PARTICIPATION



Planned relocation in the context of climate change is relatively new.
Can we learn from other types of planned relocation in the past?

There is a long history of planned relocations in the context of development projects and infrastructure (e.g. dams). These are usually referred to as development-forced displacement and resettlement (DFDR).



How do you think these relocations have worked out for the affected populations in the past?

The record of DFDR is not a positive one. These have often had devastating impacts on the relocated communities.



What were the likely causes for these devastating effects?

- This was primarily caused by a **lack of participation** of the communities in the decision-making process.
- Planned relocation was a **top-down process** and people were hardly consulted.



This should be a lesson when it comes to planned relocation in the context of climate change, too.

Much has been learnt from these experiences and in the past two decades, relocations have become more participatory.

Still however, planned relocations can include uneven power dynamics between state actors and local communities identified as “trapped” and in need of relocation. It remains crucial that the concept of trapped populations is not misused by those in power to legitimise interventions and planned relocation.



But what does it actually mean for a planned relocation to be more participatory?

Examples:

- People can express what they want to conserve after their move
- In assessing the risks of remaining in an area, local and indigenous knowledge as well as young people’s perspectives on risk are included

Elements and stages of a relocation process

KEY ELEMENTS OF PLANNED RELOCATION

UNHCR, Georgetown University, and IOM have developed a [Toolbox for Planned Relocations](#). It identifies **five key elements** that are relevant to all stages of relocation. These build on lessons learnt from past experiences in the Pacific and other parts of the world.

Legal framework

A clear coherent, and comprehensive legal framework incorporating human rights principles. This should be established and complied with throughout the planned relocation process. Ideally the legal framework is established before there is an urgent need to undertake planned relocation.

Needs and impacts

The risks inherent in the relocation process and how risks are likely to affect different groups differently (e.g. women, children, elderly) should be acknowledged in the relocation process. Engaging with and understanding the concerns of all those affected by planned relocation is critical.

Information, consultation and participation

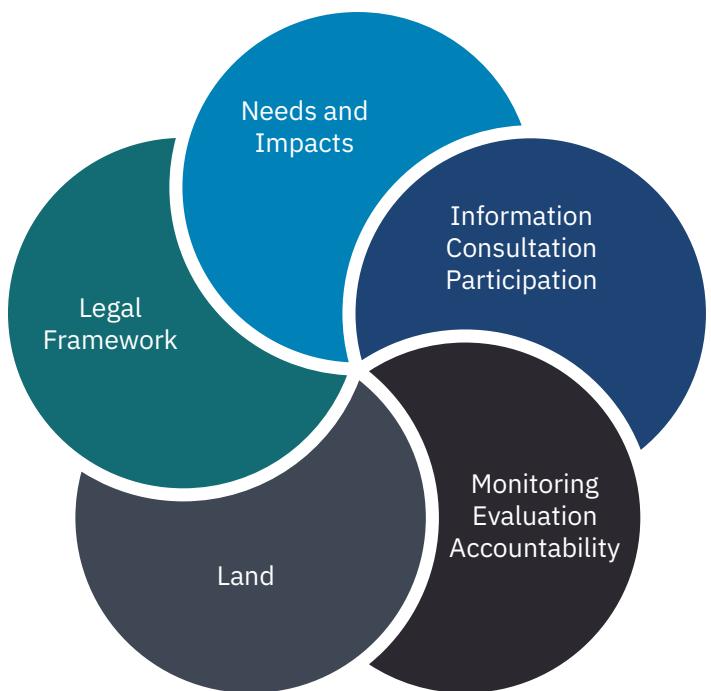
The meaningful engagement of affected populations throughout the process – from the initial decision to pursue planned relocations through monitoring and evaluation – is essential to the success of the endeavour.

Land

Land-related complexities arise throughout planned relocation. Finding and acquiring land for relocated persons is usually a complicated undertaking.

Monitoring, evaluation and accountability

When undertaking planned relocation, it is essential to establish multi-dimensional baselines (environmental, economic, social assessments) and mechanisms for monitoring, evaluation and accountability from the beginning. This can allow stakeholders to evaluate progress or make changes during the process whilst also identifying effective practices and lessons for future use.



KEY STAGES OF PLANNED RELOCATION

The five elements should be integrated into the **three stages of planned relocation:**

1. Making the decision that a planned relocation is needed

Making the decision that planned relocation is necessary is a complex undertaking. The legal framework should specify who has the authority and responsibility to make the decision that planned relocation is the best—or only—alternative to protect populations at risk of disasters and environmental change.

2. Preparing and developing a plan for planned relocation

A comprehensive, detailed, context-specific, flexible, and timely planned relocation plan is necessary to ensure that the many steps in carrying out planned relocation are understood and anticipated, crucial resources are assembled, preparatory actions are undertaken, and unanticipated events and circumstances are accommodated and addressed with minimum disruption and delay.

3. Implementation

a) Pending physical relocation

Planned Relocation is a complex process that invariably requires significant preparation before the actual movement may responsibly take place. Certain measures may be necessary to protect the rights and dignity of affected populations, and it may be necessary to prepare relocated persons and other affected persons for successful relocation.

b) During and following physical relocation

The uprooting of families and communities can be highly disruptive. Anticipating and avoiding the risk of impoverishment and marginalisation needs to be the central objective of planned relocation. Planned relocation will affect individuals and households differently depending on their access to physical and social resources, as well as their health and education. Resettlement planning must be sensitive to such vulnerabilities.

c) Longer-term following physical relocation

Once the physical relocation has occurred, there is a need for continual monitoring and governmental attention to relocated persons and other affected persons. Research indicates that restoration of livelihoods is key to the sustainability of planned relocations. When people are unable to support themselves in their new locations, they may seek to return to their original communities in spite of the risk or to move elsewhere.

STAGE 1: DECIDING TO RELOCATE A GROUP OR COMMUNITY

- Risk assessments are key to making the decision to relocate
- There is a need to know if land is available for relocation before deciding on planned relocation
- The engagement of affected populations is needed in making the decision to relocate
- Provide a legal basis for undertaking planned relocation and identify who has authority to make the decision
- Assessments of vulnerability of and risk to affected populations is an essential component to making the decision to relocate

STAGE 2: PRE-MOVE PLANNING

- There is a need to determine baselines and to set up monitoring, evaluation and accountability mechanisms as part of the plan
- There is a need to acquire or ‘prepare’ the land for settlement, to understand the land tenure system, to decide on use of vacated land, etc.
- The engagement of affected populations is needed in the planning process
- Provide safeguards against arbitrary displacement and relocation to high-risk areas, identify who is in charge, their responsibilities, and the rights of affected populations
- Detailed analysis of the socioeconomic and cultural characteristics, the needs of and expected impacts on people and communities is needed to plan appropriately

STAGE 3: IMPLEMENTATION OF THE PLAN: PENDING, DURING, AND AFTER RELOCATION

- Identify how to comply with the prohibition against non-discrimination and other rights of affected populations
- The Relocation Plan should be tailored to the socioeconomic and cultural characteristics of affected populations and measures to mitigate or compensate any adverse impact must be included to ensure success
- Experiences of implementation feed into the monitoring, evaluation and accountability processes, including modifying those mechanisms as necessary
- Continuous assessment of suitability of land is needed during implementation and resolving disputes over land
- Continued involvement by affected populations is crucial during implementation of the plan

Can you match the actions above to the five cross-cutting elements (Legal framework; Needs and impacts; Information, consultation and participation; Land; and Monitoring, evaluation and accountability)?

Find the solution on the next page.

STAGE 1: DECIDING TO RELOCATE A GROUP OR COMMUNITY

- Risk assessments are key to making the decision to relocate → Monitoring, evaluation, accountability
- There is a need to know if land is available for relocation before deciding on planned relocation → Land
- The engagement of affected populations is needed in making the decision to relocate → Information, consultation, participation
- Provide a legal basis for undertaking planned relocation and identify who has authority to make the decision → Legal framework
- Assessments of vulnerability of and risk to affected populations is an essential component to making the decision to relocate → Needs and impacts

STAGE 2: PRE-MOVE PLANNING

- There is a need to determine baselines and to set up monitoring, evaluation and accountability mechanisms as part of the plan → Monitoring, evaluation, accountability
- There is a need to acquire or ‘prepare’ the land for settlement, to understand the land tenure system, to decide on use of vacated land, etc. → Land
- The engagement of affected populations is needed in the planning process → Information, consultation, participation
- Provide safeguards against arbitrary displacement and relocation to high-risk areas, identify who is in charge, their responsibilities, and the rights of affected populations → Legal framework
- Detailed analysis of the socioeconomic and cultural characteristics, the needs of and expected impacts on people and communities is needed to plan appropriately → Needs and impacts

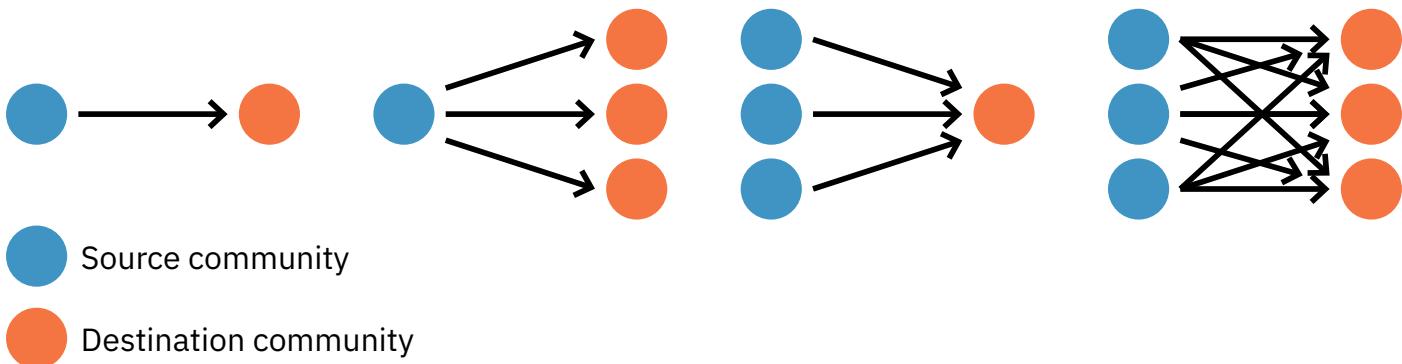
STAGE 3: IMPLEMENTATION OF THE PLAN: PENDING, DURING, AND AFTER RELOCATION

- Identify how to comply with the prohibition against non-discrimination and other rights of affected populations → Legal framework
- The Relocation Plan should be tailored to the socioeconomic and cultural characteristics of affected populations and measures to mitigate or compensate any adverse impact must be included to ensure success → Needs and impacts
- Experiences of implementation feed into the monitoring, evaluation and accountability processes, including modifying those mechanisms as necessary → Monitoring, evaluation, accountability
- Continuous assessment of suitability of land is needed during implementation and resolving disputes over land → Land
- Continued involvement by affected populations is crucial during implementation of the plan → Information, consultation, participation

For a full overview of the relationship between the five cross-cutting elements and three key stages of the planned relocation process, see the table on page 9 of the [Toolbox: Planning Relocations to Protect People from Disasters and Environmental Change](#).

RELOCATION PROCESS

Often, one whole community is moved together to one destination – but sometimes they are also distributed to several different destinations. The destinations may also receive households from different source communities.



This can make the stages of relocation a bit more complicated.



Can you think of ways in which the splitting and combining of communities might impact the relocation process?

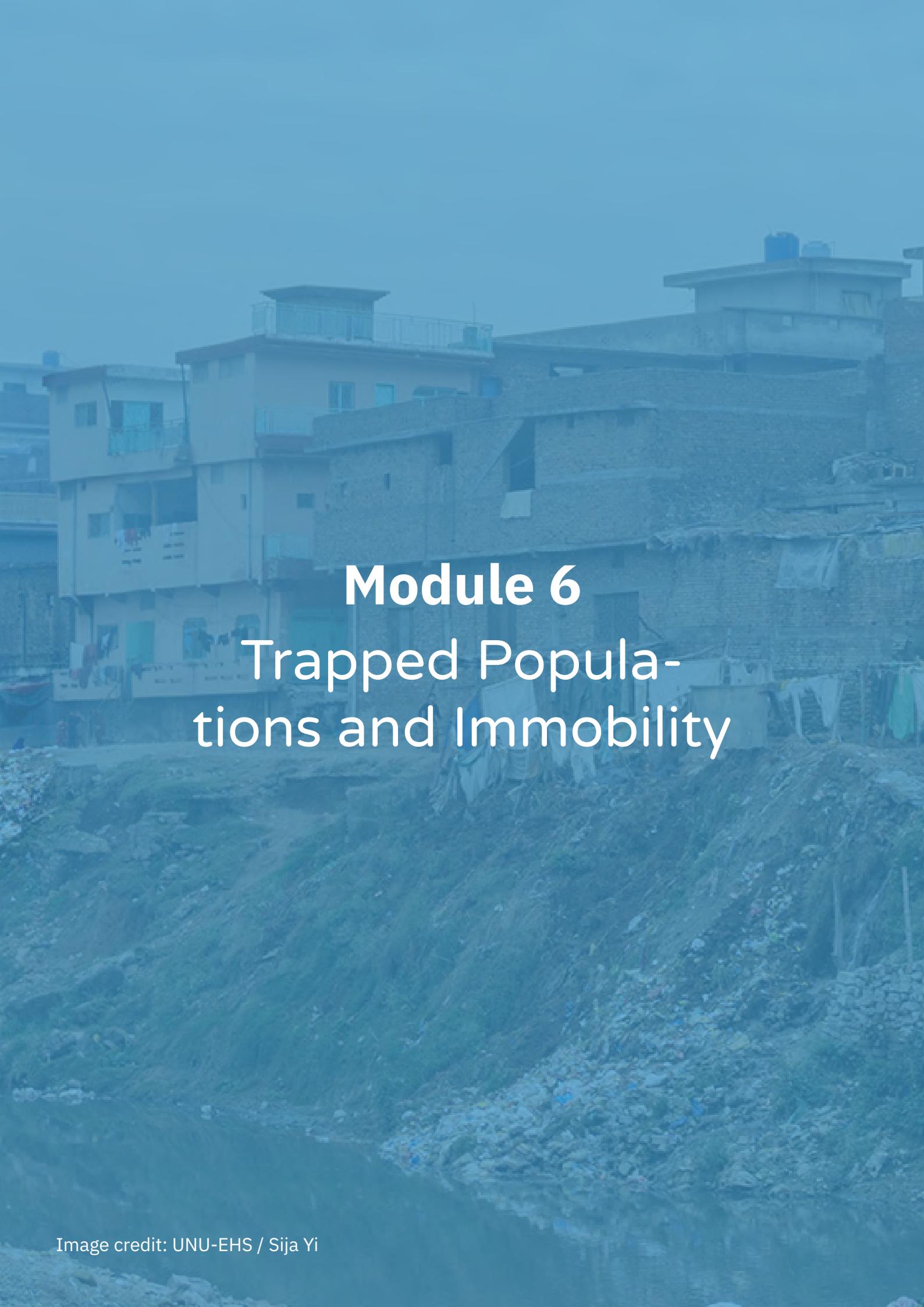
WRAP-UP

The [IPCC AR6 Glossary](#) includes a definition of planned relocation:

"A form of human mobility response in the face of sea level rise and related impacts. Planned relocation is typically initiated, supervised and implemented from national to local level and involves small communities and individual assets but may also involve large populations. Also termed resettlement, managed retreat or managed realignment."

In our view, the definition puts too much emphasis on sea level rise. As we have seen in the case study example from Fiji, other climate-related hazards can also make planned relocation necessary.

Would you agree?

A photograph showing a dense cluster of multi-story buildings built on a steep, rocky hillside. The buildings are closely packed, and the terrain appears rugged and uneven. The image serves as a visual metaphor for 'trapped populations' and 'immobility'.

Module 6

Trapped Popula- tions and Immobility

Introduction

PROBLEM STATEMENT: WHY ARE TRAPPED POPULATIONS A CONCERN?

When individuals or communities are faced with the impacts of climate change, **migration can be an efficient adaptation strategy**. It can limit exposure to hazards and reduce vulnerability and poverty through alternative or additional livelihoods in less risky and more viable areas.



Image credit:
<https://unsplash.com/@5pacey>



Image credit: UNHCR / Taw Naw Htoo

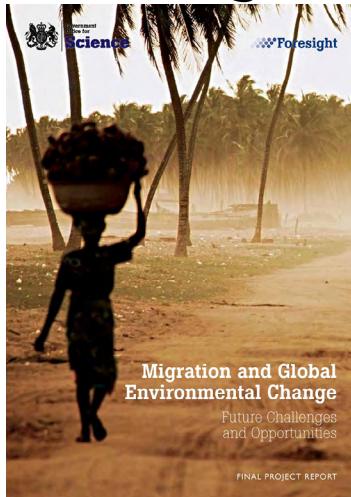
However, many people, particularly those already vulnerable from structural socio-economic or political factors have **lower capacity to migrate**. This can be due to insufficient money or physical conditions such as ill health or infirmities. Societal factors such as a lack of networks, conflict and political isolation can also place limitations on mobility. Without focused policies and interventions, the vulnerability of these “trapped” communities may worsen. In such cases, a vicious circle of the adverse impacts of environmental change can further undermine their livelihoods and so their ability to move or adapt ([Foresight: Migration and Global Environmental Change, 2011](#)).

LEARNING OUTCOMES

By the end of this module, you will be able to:

1. Define trapped populations and understand why it is just as much a **concern** as climate migration and displacement.
2. Differentiate between **involuntary** immobility (being trapped) and **voluntary** immobility.
3. Link involuntary immobility to the **aspirations and capabilities** framework.
4. List different **factors** why people are (im-)mobile in situations of climate risks.
5. Identify how **gender and vulnerability** affect the (im-)mobility of people.
6. Describe potential **response mechanisms** to address the problems that trapped populations face.

Defining “Trapped Populations”



The concept of trapped populations gained prominence with a [2011 Foresight Report by the UK Government Office for Science](#).

Definition

According to the report **trapped populations are those unable to move away from situations of environmental risk, usually because they lack the means to migrate** (adapted from Foresight: Migration and Global Environmental Change, 2011).

An alternative term for trapped populations is **involuntary immobility**.

The report acknowledges that human mobility in the context of climate change can be a **valuable adaptation strategy** and recognizes that those who do not move may thus be **amongst the most vulnerable** to climate change.

Trapped populations tend to have very low levels of economic, social, and political resources ([Foresight: Migration and Global Environmental Change, 2011](#)).

Optional resource:

Caught in a trap. Why climate change might actually lead to some people not moving at all (A. Randall, 2022)

<https://www.linkedin.com/pulse/caught-trap-why-climate-change-might-actually-lead-some-al-ex-randall/>

Watch this excerpt of a video by [Migration Matters](#) – featuring **Dr. Caroline Zickgraf** (Social Scientist, Hugo Observatory, University of Liège) and **Dr. François Gemenne** (Political scientist, Hugo Observatory, University of Liège) – about climate change and mobility and reflect on the question below before continuing with the second part.

What would you do if your home got flooded?| Migration Matters| YouTube

<https://youtu.be/rc5zXJ6jAG8?t=61>

1:01-1:44

Imagine a cyclone is approaching a low-lying coastal city in the US. 24 hours before the disaster starts, people are told to evacuate the city. Most people are able to do so, but 15% is not. Take a moment to think about what factors may influence who can move and who cannot.

What would you do if your home got flooded?| Migration Matters| YouTube

<https://youtu.be/rc5zXJ6jAG8?t=228s>

3:48-4:53

To find more videos like this, have a look at the full **The Big Climate Movement** series from Migration Matters:

<http://migrationmatters.me/big-climate-movement/>

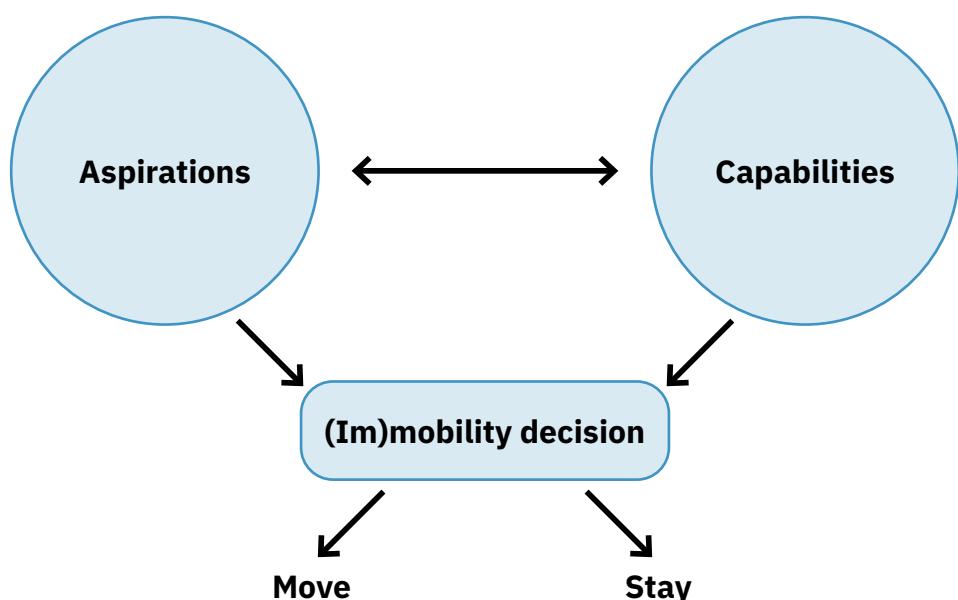
Distinguishing voluntary and involuntary immobility

VOLUNTARY vs. INVOLUNTARY IMMOBILITY

Mobility outcomes are conditioned by aspirations and capabilities; people move when they both perceive it is in their interests (aspirations) and it is possible to do so (capability). As a result, we can say that there are two reasons why people stay in their places of residence.



The decision (not) to move is influenced by a person's **aspirations** and **capabilities**.



Do you know what kinds of capabilities and aspirations there are? Find out on the next page.

Capabilities

Migration capabilities refer to people's power to realize their migration aspirations. Migration capabilities are constrained by regulations (such as borders) and people's access to social, cultural and human resources (or "capitals").

- Human
- Political
- Social Financial
- Physical
- Natural

Aspirations

Migration aspirations refer to individuals' views of migration as a desirable or necessary option. They result from people's general life aspirations and the perceived "geographical opportunity structures" ([de Haas, 2021](#)), or in other words the perceived advantages and disadvantages of living in one place or the other.

- Political
- Environmental
- Cultural
- Economic
- Demographic
- Social

A THIRD CATEGORY: ACQUIESCENT IMMOBILITY

Acquiescent¹ immobility is quite a new concept and it refers to people who do not wish to move, but if they had wanted to move, they would have lacked the ability to do so ([Schewel, 2015](#)).



Image credit: <https://www.flickr.com/photos/tk-link/>

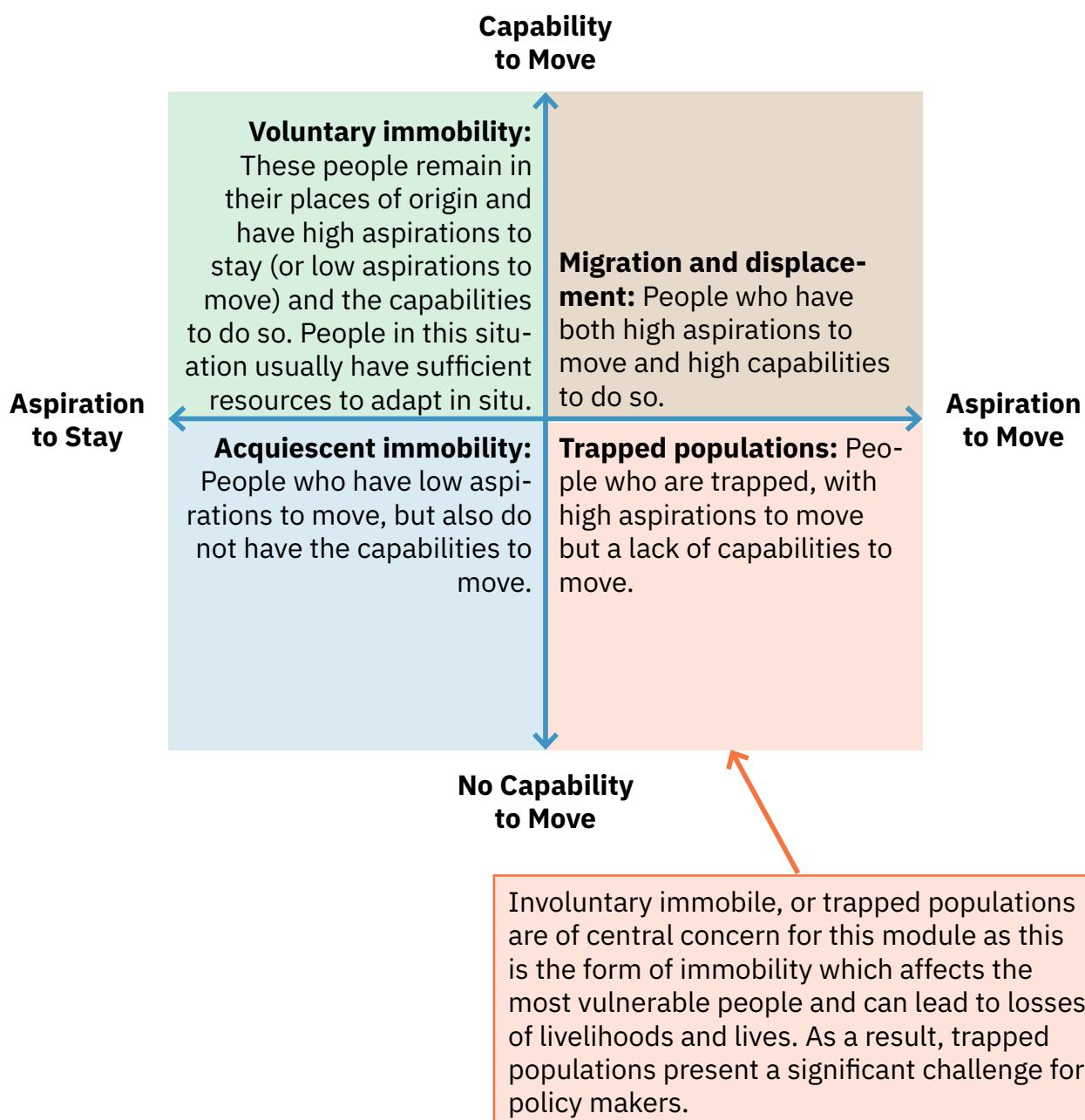
Example

Pedro and Maria live with their children on the shores of Lake Titikaka in Bolivia. They aren't rich but they have a reliable source of food and income from fishing. Their families live nearby and their children go to school in the nearby village. Pedro and Maria both have very little education themselves. They are **quite happy where they are and have no real desire or need to move**. However, even if they had wanted to move, for example to the capital (La Paz), it would have been difficult to do so because **they lack the financial means and social network**.

¹ Acquiescent – /akwi'ɛs(ə)nt/ – It means “ready to accept something without protest, or to do what someone else want”

ASPIRATIONS AND CAPABILITIES

As people's decision to move depends on their aspirations and capabilities to do so, there are three situations in which people remain immobile.



IS IMMOBILITY EVER TRULY VOLUNTARY?

It is important to note that the line between involuntary and voluntary immobility is fluid and may change within specific circumstances.

For example, while many people choose to stay due to place attachment and cultural motivations, the lack of social support networks and affective ties outside of their home community could be an important trapping factor ([Zickgraf, 2019](#)).

Reasons why people may be forced to stay in risky areas

FACTORS THAT LEAD TO INVOLUNTARY IMMOBILITY



Remember Salima's family from the introduction video. Which factors prevented her from moving in the face of riverbank erosion?

Economic	Health	Social	Political	Geographic
Insufficient means	Illness Disabilities	No support network Caring for ill or disabled relative Responsibility for elderly relative at home	Conflicts Lack of visa for international travel	Isolation Remoteness Nowhere to go / no suitable destinations

While the focus is usually on economic, social, political, health or geographic factors, it is important to note that cultural and psychological dimensions may also affect people's ability and desire to move ([Zickgraf, 2019](#); [Ayeb-Karlsson et al., 2018](#)).



Image credit: UNU-EHS / Ruby Fang-Ju Lin



What do you think might be potential 'trapping factors' that prevent people from moving in the face of environmental hazards?

Cultural

Cultural factors which can contribute to immobility include:

- Place attachment (e.g. Fenua¹)
- Gender norms (e.g. Purdah²)
- A lack of trust in authorities (rooted in racial tensions)
- Religious faith (flood myths)
- Culturally ingrained livelihoods

1 Example: In the Pacific atoll nation of Tuvalu the concept of fenua connotes the strong bond between island people and their ancestors' land. Fenua is a source of cultural, psychological and spiritual well-being that attaches people to the place where they live ([Mc Namara et al., 2021](#)). Fenua is a positive concept, but in the context of dangerous climate change, such place attachment can become a trapping factor that prevents people from moving out of harm's way.

2 Gender roles in Bangladesh are strongly influenced by the cultural practice of purdah, which can be understood as 'the broader set of norms and structures that set standards of female morality'. Purdah proscribes that men should provide for the family by generating income outside of the home, while women are obliged to take care of domestic tasks. This reduces women's mobility options ([Evertsen and van der Geest, 2020](#)).

Psychological

Psychological factors can also contribute to immobility. This is because risk perception varies from person to person. People are not robots. They "read" the environment differently and they respond to risk information differently. Psychological factors include:

- Fear
- Risk taking
- Reluctance to accept expert knowledge
- Sunk cost fallacy (unwillingness to give up after investment)¹

1 The sunk cost fallacy refers to situations where people base their decisions – such as to move or not to move in a context of climate threats – based on investments or efforts they made in the past and that they are not willing to give up. Example: Five years ago, a farm household invested in irrigation to be more prepared against erratic rainfall. However, drought conditions in the subsequent five years have actually been too bad and their harvest failed three out of five years. There is no sign that this will improve, but the household is reluctant to move. They still have hope that the investment in irrigation will pay off and they prefer not to conclude that they made the wrong decision to invest in irrigation. It's called sunk cost fallacy as the decision to stay or move is not based on the current situation but on costs incurred in the past.

WHY PEOPLE MAY PREFER TO STAY IN RISKY AREAS (VOLUNTARY IMMObILITY)

People may choose to live in risky areas for several reasons – such as **livelihood opportunities** – and often create **strong bonds** with their land and home. Policy makers, economists and modelers tend to assume that people will act in their own best interests. However, these best interests are often **narrowly defined and do not consider the personal and local context**. Therefore, understanding the reasons why people do not want to move is essential. We cannot assume that there are objective reasons to move/not move everybody agrees to.



Image credit: UNU-EHS / Janine Kandel

How vulnerability relates to trapped populations

Have a look at this infographic by IOM.

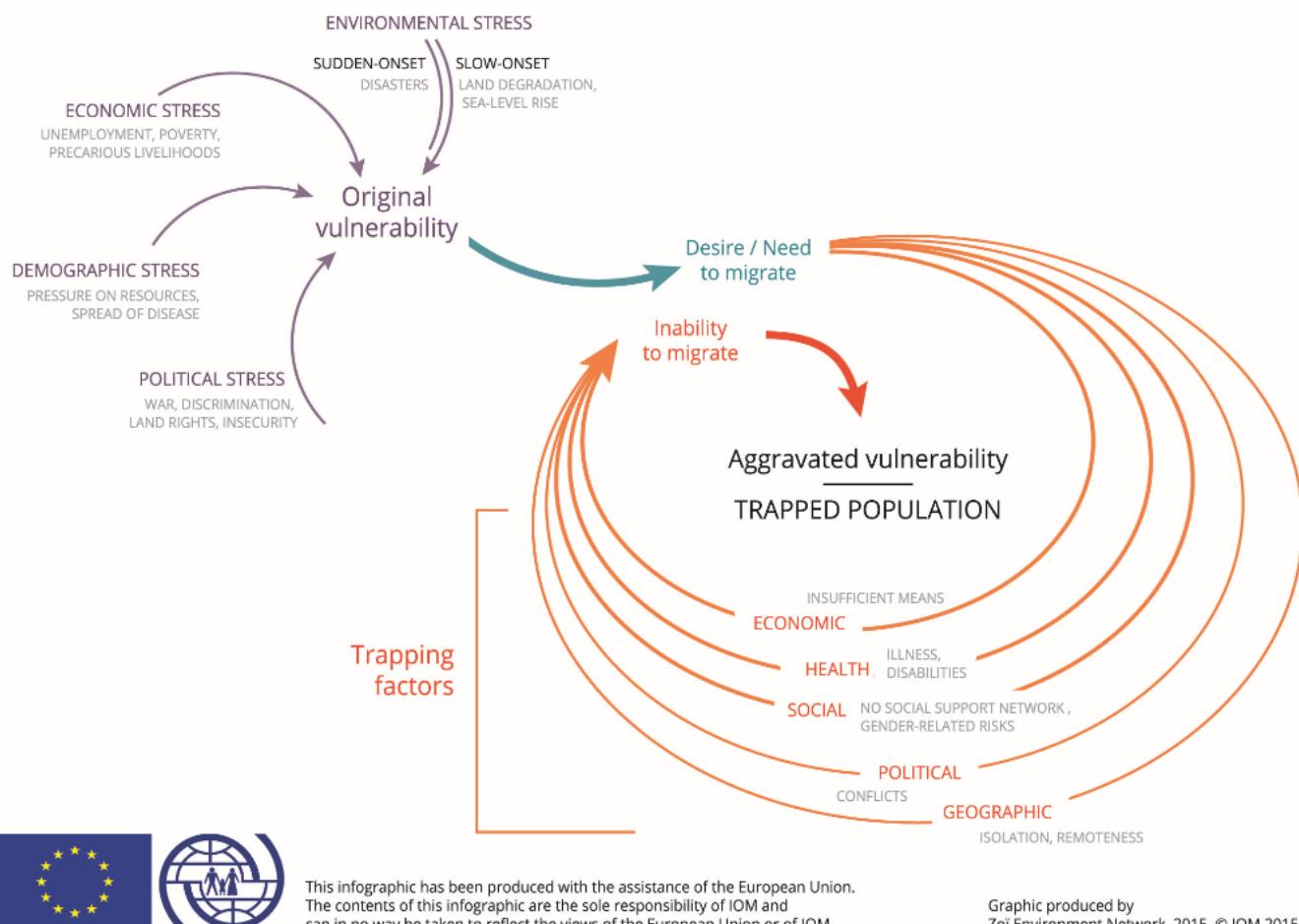


Image credit: IOM



Do you understand what the infographic is trying to say?

When vulnerable people live in places that experience increasing environmental stress from sudden-onset events and slow-onset processes, they will find an increased need to migrate. However, if they are unable to migrate, they become trapped and their vulnerability will be aggravated.

Trapped Populations and Immobility



Image credit: GIZ

Climate change can influence aspirations to leave when livelihoods are impacted. At the same it can reduce capabilities to both move and stay. For this reason, trapped people may be considered to be in a double bind: The groups who are most vulnerable to the impacts of climate change can be the very people least able to respond.

In the absence of interventions to enable adaptation and/or adaptive forms of mobility the conditions of the involuntary immobile may worsen and they become more vulnerable as their livelihoods are eroded by the impacts of climate change ([Mallick and Schanze, 2020](#)).

Example of how trapped people's livelihoods can be eroded by the impacts of climate change



Image credit: <https://www.flickr.com/photos/linhvienthai/>, <https://www.flickr.com/photos/ricephotos/>

During an extreme weather event, individuals and households may lose their means of transport (capabilities to move) and become trapped.

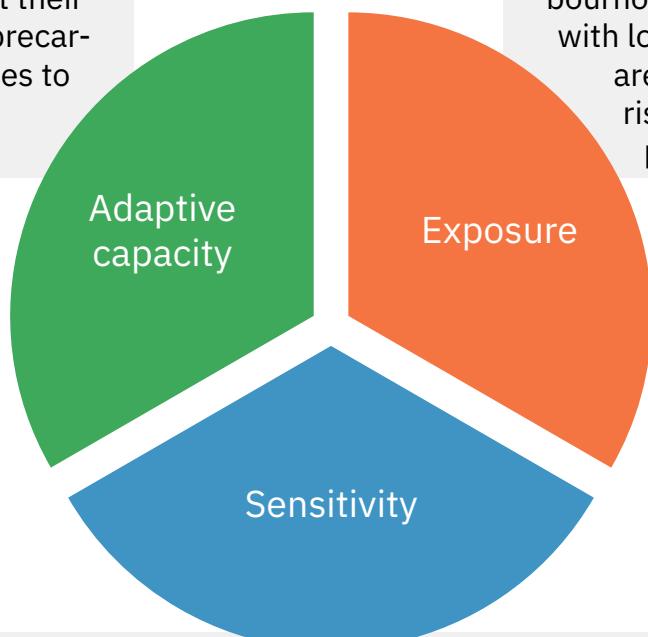
Individuals and households may suffer from infertility of their land, resulting in food insecurity (capabilities to stay)

([Mallick and Schanze, 2020](#))



How do the three dimensions of vulnerability relate to trapped populations?

Adaptive capacity: Adaptation often requires resources that the most vulnerable groups lack. Trapped populations lack the capacity to move, but their situations are even more precarious as they lack resources to adapt locally and reduce their vulnerability.



Exposure: Vulnerable populations often live in risk-prone areas. In low-lying coastal cities, for example, the most flood-prone neighbourhoods tend to house people with low incomes. When people are trapped in such areas of risk, they are extremely exposed to climate hazards.

Sensitivity: The livelihoods of low-income populations often rely on natural resources that are sensitive to climate shocks. When harvests fail, for example, a farm household's capacity to move further reduces.

GENDER

Immobility is deeply gendered. Gender norms often restrict women's mobility options, for example, the expectation that women care for children or the elderly. Earlier in this module, we gave the example of purdah in some Muslim and Hindu societies, which proscribes that men should provide for the family by generating income outside of the home, while women are obliged to take care of domestic tasks. Additionally, women may have restricted access to land, housing, loans and other resources, which may further reduce mobility options and to women being 'trapped' in their place of origin.



Image credit: GIZ / Britta Radike



For a case study showing how gender norms constrain mobility for women, see the next module on *Gender Dynamics*.

Case study

THE GIBIKA PROJECT

A research project by UNU-EHS looked at how people in 7 study sites across Bangladesh tried to adapt their livelihoods to changes in the climate and environment ([read more](#)).

- ▶ Migration played a central role in people's adaptation strategies.
- ▶ However, the study also discovered that many of the people interviewed experienced constraints to their mobility.



Image credit: Gibika 2014 (Sonja Ayeb-Karlsson)



In the video on the next slide, an interviewee from a coastal village (Mazer Char) tells his story.

Watch this photofilm of the Gibika project in Bangladesh and reflect on the questions:

The Gibika photo-film series: Nurmia - 'If we had left earlier...' – United Nations University - EHS – YouTube

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dIekNZmWJT4>



Which 'trapping factors' are at play in this man's recount?



How voluntary do you think the family's decisions were in this example?

Potential answer

This video shows the way that the voluntariness of immobility exists on a spectrum. The family did not evacuate as they wanted to protect their property and source of livelihood. So, while at first glance it looks like a choice to stay, in fact the vulnerability of the family meant that their choice was constrained. As such, their dependence on a marginal form of livelihood was a barrier to moving and they were trapped.

Migration policy and management options

POLICY RESPONSES

Policy interventions are key to facilitate mobility and enable trapped populations to move, if they need to.

If we conceptualise **mobility** as conditioned by **aspirations and capabilities**, we can also take the same approach to think about how to address **involuntary immobility**.

What do you think are ways that policy-makers can address involuntary immobility?

Aspirations



To reduce the need for people to move, it is necessary to make it more attractive and safe to stay. This requires sustainable forms of development and adaptation. If risks and vulnerability can be reduced, then decisions to move are more voluntary and beneficial.

Image credit: <https://pxhere.com/en/photographer/3045817>

Examples of how policy can address people's aspirations to move

- Climate smart agriculture
- Social protection
- Improved housing
- Physical protection measures (such as seawalls)

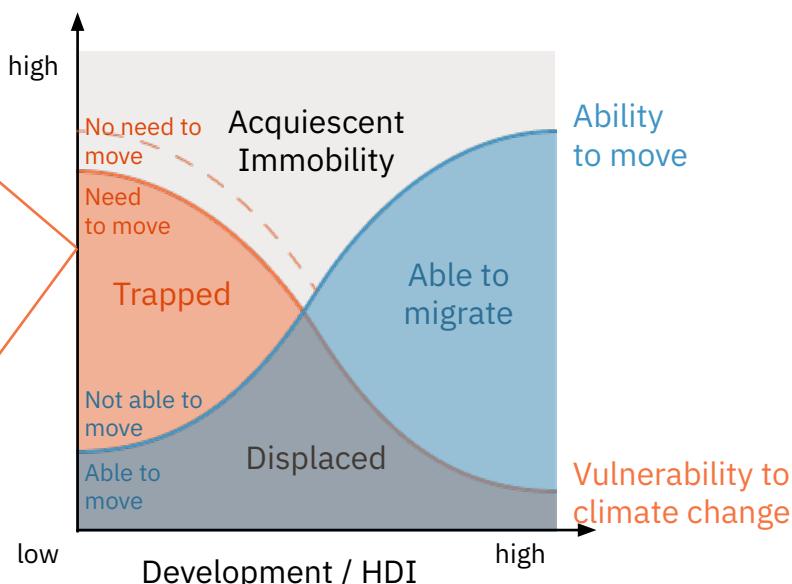
Note: It is also important to understand people's hopes, dreams and needs that contribute to voluntary immobility. To support trapped populations, it is necessary to plan accordingly.

How can policy affect people's aspirations to move?

Returning to the graph showing the four (im)mobility outcomes, think of the **population that is currently trapped**.

What will happen when policy reduces people's need (aspiration) to move?

The size of the trapped population gets smaller, as less people need to move.



Capability

The second way to address the problem of trapped populations is to increase their ability to move and to remove the barriers they experience when aspiring to move out of areas of high environmental risk. The specific interventions that can help people to move out of harm's way are very context-specific.



Image credit: GIZ / LU ZHENG XU

Examples of how policy can address people's capability to move

- In land-scarce areas: Making suitable destination areas available
- In small island states: Bilateral agreements for visa-free entry
- In places with strong gender norms: Conscientization programs
- In extremely poor places: Financial support to move out
- General: removing legal barriers, including in relation to land tenure, settlement rights and borders.

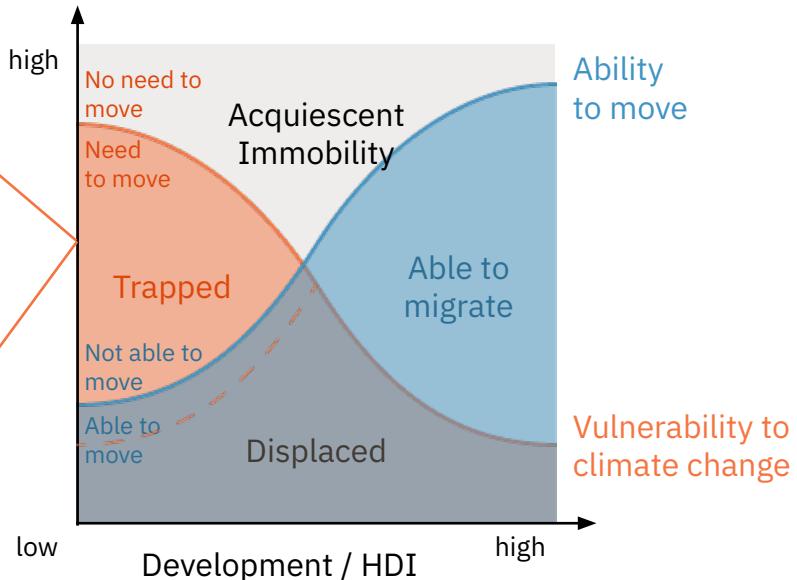
Note: It is also important to understand people's hopes, dreams and needs that contribute to voluntary immobility. To support trapped populations, it is necessary to plan accordingly.

How can policy affect people's capability to move?

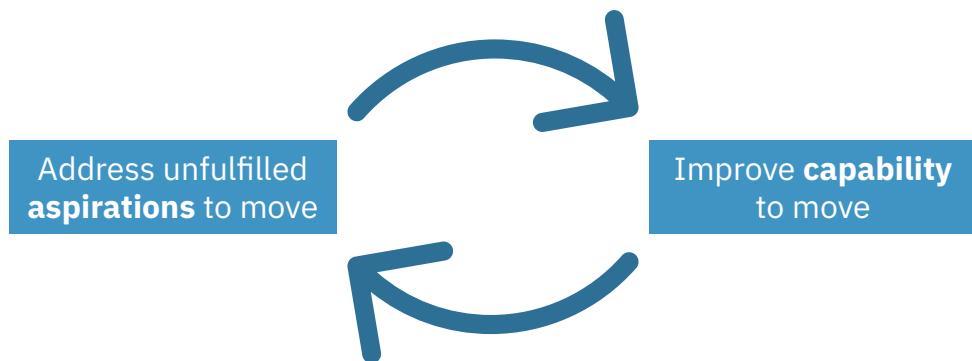
Returning to the graph showing the four (im)mobility outcomes, think of the **population that is currently trapped**.

What will happen when policy increases people's ability to move?

The size of the trapped population gets smaller, as more people are able to move.



The **two approaches are synergistic**; By developing in situ, for example, more people will be able to migrate, which in turn may increase their aspirations. While it reduces the **need** to migrate, it may increase the **desire** to migrate.



Regional approaches offer the potential to generate political commitment at the national level and align both national and regional priorities, thereby securing adequate resources to ensure that HMCCC can be managed adequately.

A close-up photograph of a young African boy with short hair, wearing a light blue and white horizontally striped t-shirt. He is looking upwards and slightly to his right with a focused expression. In the background, several other children are visible, some blurred, suggesting a classroom or community setting.

Module 7

Gender and HMCCC

Image credit: GIZ / Sven Schuppener

Introduction

SUMMARY

This module puts a spotlight on the interrelation between gender and HMCCC. Impacts of climate change and disasters affect women and men in all their diversity differently. Their responses – including mobility – also differ.

You will learn to define and differentiate the key terms, such as gender, sex and

intersectionality. You will understand how gender influences human mobility patterns. The module highlights gender-based challenges and gender-based opportunities for people on the move as well as for home communities. Finally, learners are given guidance on how to apply a gender lens in their own field of work.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

By the end of this modules you will be able to:

- Know and apply the correct definitions of different related terms, such as gender and sex
- Understand how gender influences **human mobility**
- Understand how **human mobility** influences **gender** patterns and roles
- Understand gender not only as a **challenge**, but also as an **opportunity**
- Argue why all genders should have the same **rights**, resources, and access to decision making processes
- Use the **gender integration scale** to apply a gender lens in your work

Definitions and terms – What is gender?

GENDER AND SEX ARE NOT THE SAME

Do you know the difference between sex and gender?

Sex: Refers to the different biological and physiological characteristics of females, males and intersex¹ persons ([WHO, 2022](#)).

Gender: Socially constructed characteristics and attributes based on people's sex. It includes norms, behaviours, and roles associated with the sexes.

¹ Although sex is usually divided into male or female, about 1.7 % of the population are born as intersex, meaning that their biological sex characteristics are neither typically male or female ([OHCHR, 2022](#)).

GENDER ROLES AND NORMS



Image credit: <https://unsplash.com/@sandym10>

Gender Roles in society refer to expectations on how we're supposed to act, speak, dress, groom, and conduct ourselves based upon our assigned sex. [...] Every society, ethnic group, and culture has gender role expectations, but they can be very different from group to group. They can also change over time ([GIZ, 2019](#)).

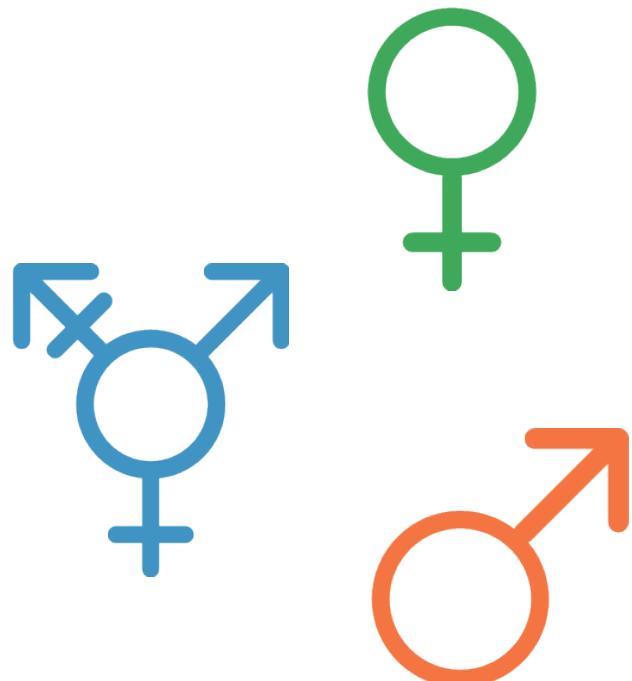
Gender Norms are “a set of social norms relating to gender differences. They are informal, deeply entrenched and widely held beliefs about gender roles, power relations, standards or expectations that govern human behaviours and practices in a particular social context and at a particular time.” ([UNICEF, 2020](#))

GENDER IDENTITY

The gender with which an individual identifies. Gender diversity is based on feelings of belonging to a particular gender and gender identity. For example, one can identify as a woman, a man, non-binary¹, transgender².

There are also other local and indigenous self-identities, such as:

1. baklâ in the Philippines:
A person who was assigned male at birth and who has adopted a feminine gender expression
2. fa'afafine in Samoa:
A fluid, non-binary gender role
3. vaka sa lewa lewa in Fiji:
A person who was assigned male at birth and who present themselves or identify as a woman ([Out-right International, 2022](#))



SEXUAL ORIENTATION

Sexual Orientation: An individual's sexual orientation is the gender to which a person feels drawn emotionally, physically and/or sexually ([GIZ, 2019](#)).

Sexual orientation influences the roles and behaviours of individuals. Different societies treat lesbian, gay, and bisexual people with differing degrees of expectations and discrimination. ([UNDP, 2016](#))

¹ An umbrella term to describe a person whose gender identity is outside of the woman/man binary.

² An umbrella term to describe a person whose gender identity does not conform to that associated with the sex of which they were assigned at birth ([APA, 2014](#)).

LGBTQI+

LGBTQI+ is an umbrella term to include a range of diverse sexualities, genders and sex characteristics¹.

Do you know what each letter stands for?

- **L**esbian
- **G**ay
- **B**isexual
- **T**ransgender
- **Q**ueer
- **I**ntersex
- **+** Pansexual, Asexual, Androgynous, etc.



Image credit: <https://unsplash.com/@sophieemeny>

L

Lesbians and Gays

whose sexual orientation is typically understood as towards people of the same gender.

Q

Queer

whose sexual orientation is not heterosexual and / or whose gender identity is non-binary or differs from their sex assigned at birth.

G

Bisexual

with the ability to be sexually attracted to and/or love someone irrespective of the person's gender.

I

Intersex

or inter people have sex characteristics that are more diverse than the binary concept of male/female as defined by the medical system suggests. There is a wide range of different intersex conditions, some becoming apparent at birth, others later in life. With an estimated share of up to 1.7% of the population, the size of the intersex community might compare to the quantity of red-haired people in the world.

T

Transgender

or short trans people, for whom the gender they live and identify with does not correlate with the sex they were assigned at birth. Being transgender is about gender identity (i.e. how people feel and identify) and expression (i.e. how people express themselves through appearance). The terms used can differ, depending on the gender a person identifies with. Some transgender persons identify as transmen or transwomen, others do not. There are diverse regional names and concepts for trans identities.

+**+**

The “+” in the LGBTQI+ acronym is used to symbolize and explain a number of different gender identities and sexual orientations that are not already present in the lettered acronym.

¹ These terms are not recognised and accepted across the world. However, as part of the “Leave no one behind” principle established in Agenda 2030, the German Federal government LGBTI Inclusion Strategy for Foreign Policy and Development Cooperation is making its engagement towards ensuring the rights of LGBTI people and is, with the support of Germany’s missions abroad, aiming to shape this engagement in a strategic manner worldwide ([LGBTI Inclusion Strategy, 2021](#)).

THE GENDERBREAD PERSON

The Genderbread Person is a tool for illustrating gender and related concepts.

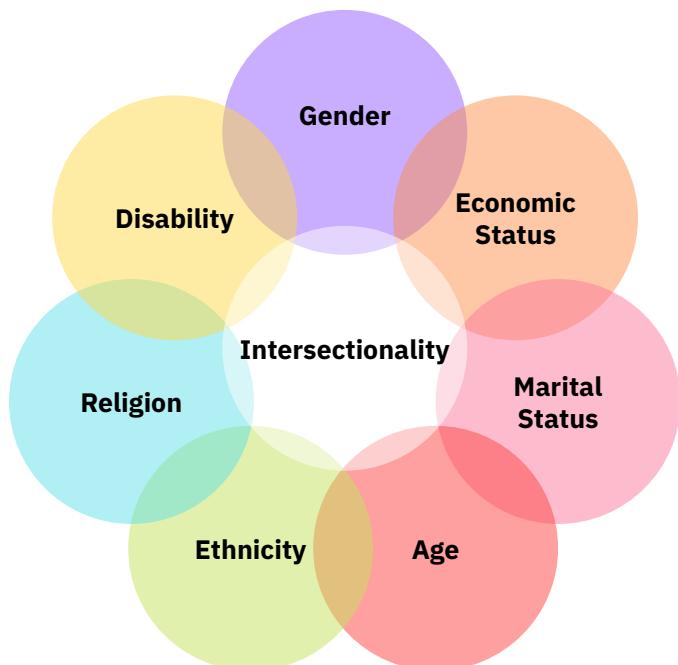
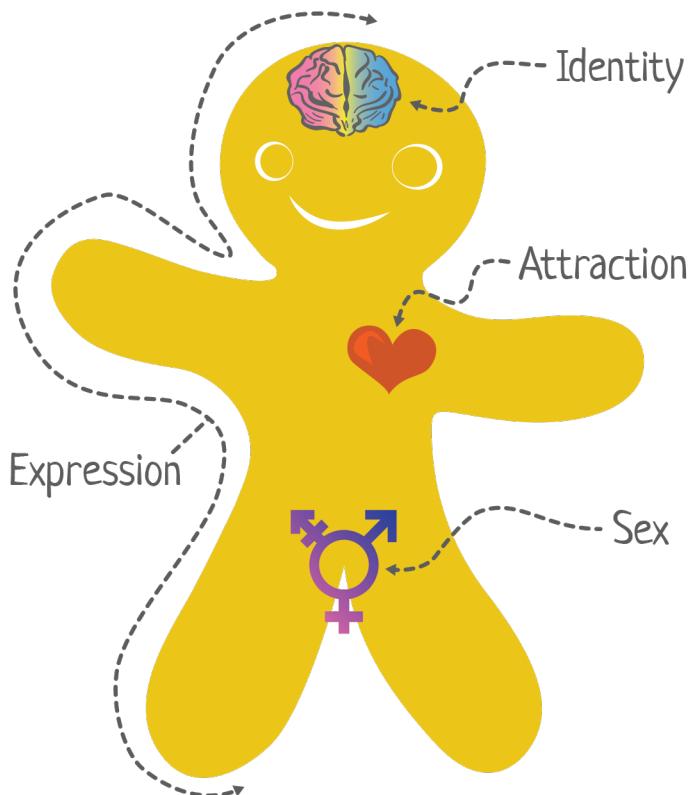
The following example provides a simplified introduction to understand the complexity of gender and related concepts.

- Expression: Masculine
- Identity: Transgender
- Attraction: Gay
- Sex: Female

Visit the following link for more information (optional):

The Genderbread Person

<https://www.itspronouncedmetrosexual.com/2018/10/the-genderbread-person-v4/>



INTERSECTIONALITY

Discrimination against for example lesbian, gay and bisexual people are often exacerbated by other factors. This is referred to as intersectionality ([UNDP, 2016](#)). In other words, intersectionality is the complex, cumulative way in which the effects of multiple forms of discrimination combine, overlap, or intersect ([Merriam-Webster](#)).

Gender and sexual orientation are just two of many aspects that bring challenges and opportunities in the context of HMCCC. Can you think of some other overlapping and intersecting aspects?

How GENDER INFLUENCES HMCCC

Climate-induced mobility is inherently gendered.

This works in two ways:

Impacts of climate change affect people differently depending on their gender.

Mobility in itself – whether caused by climate stressors or not – is a gendered process.

We will look at how gender **influences climate impacts** in the next chapter (2), and how it **affects mobility** in the following chapter (3).

“Gender influences who moves or stays, how decisions are made, an individual’s circumstances in transit, and the outcome of movements.”
[\(Sierra Club, 2018\)](#)

Gender Difference in Climate Impacts

In short, climate change amplifies existing inequalities. Pre-existing structures and social conditions make some members of the community less affected by climate change impacts while others pay a higher price. Gender is one of the key differences that determine how people are affected by such disasters ([Oxfam, 2005](#)).

Economically, politically, culturally and socially marginalized groups such as women, LGBTQI+, elders, and children often experience obstacles to accessing information, participating in decision-making process, and preparing for the impacts of climate change and disasters.

This can make them more likely to experience the impacts of climate change more acutely than others.

([Oxfam GB, 2009](#))

Examples:



During drought in rural areas, women and girls experience increased workload to collect water for family members. This makes girls more likely to miss school with long-term consequences on future opportunities for economic independence. Drought also leads to an increase in domestic violence and child marriage ([GGCA, 2016](#)).

When the tropical cyclone Evan hit Fiji, there were reports of fa'afafine experiencing discrimination in public evacuation shelters and facing barriers in accessing sanitation points labelled for 'men' and 'women' ([Gaillard et al., 2017](#)). Experiencing discrimination in public shelters might make non-binary people less likely to seek protection.



ASSUMPTIONS ON GENDER AND VULNERABILITY

When trying to look through a gender lens, we often assume that women are more vulnerable than men. But is this always the case?



Take a moment to think about whether women are always more vulnerable than men before continuing.

Gender differences in climate impacts are very context-specific and do not necessarily make women more vulnerable. Gender norms can make men more vulnerable to climate threats through for example social and cultural expectations on their roles.



For example, when hurricanes Erika and Maria hit St. Lucia, men's lives were at greater risk. Can you think of an explanation?

One of the reasons for this can be found in looking at Caribbean masculinities and men's gender roles which include risk taking behaviours and practices.

For example, men led rescue efforts in muddy flood waters with lack of proper clothing and gear because they believed they could not get sick. They also took on perceived male roles of protecting property, infrastructural repairs and other physical activities outdoors exposing them to risk.

UNDERSTANDING HMCCC THROUGH A GENDER LENS

Understanding the socially differentiated nature of climate change impacts is important to understand HMCCC. Climate change induced human mobility is largely determined by people's exposure to environmental and climatic risks and their capacity to anticipate, cope with, adapt, and recover from the consequences of natural hazards and environmental degradation ([IOM, 2014](#)).

How gender influences HMCCC

GENDER AND ABILITY TO MOVE

Mobility requires economic and social capacities that are not available to everyone. For example, economic capacities include one's ability to finance their move and social capacities include migrant networks.

Gender can have a major impact on an individuals' economic and social capacity.



For example, in 2004 when the Indian Ocean Tsunami hit Tamil Nadu in India, many aravanis (a local non-binary gender identity) lacked the economic capacity to move into safety. Before the tsunami, aravanis already lived in poverty, facing serious gender discrimination. In addition, in the aftermath of the tsunami, many aravanis were denied aid as they could not be recorded as either 'male' or 'female'.



The island groups Visaya in the Philippines is exposed to slow-onset environmental processes. In this case, access to social networks is described as key in shaping the mobility decision. For example, women's migrant network tended to include other women who had migrated to surrounding cities for domestic work. These women could refer to similar work opportunities for other women wishing to migrate. In other words, migrant networks may be different based on gender and this may have implications for the type of migration employed.

GENDER IN THE MOBILITY PROCESS

Gender norms can shape the dynamics of migration as a household adapts to the impacts of climate change. Gender-based division of labour often determines who will migrate and who will stay home, leading to gender-differentiated outcomes ([Eastin, 2018](#)).

Think back to what you learnt about migration as a strategy to adapt to environmental change.



How do you think gendered division of labour may shape this strategy in a context of traditional gender roles?

In the case of the Karakoram region in Pakistan men migrate to work in urban areas in order to mitigate for declining income from decreased agricultural productivity. Women's roles as caretakers make them stay in the village to take care of the household and agricultural work ([Gioli et al., 2014](#)).

INTERSECTIONALITY EXAMPLES

Although women face gender-based discrimination, it is important to remember that women are not a homogenous group. Multiple aspects influence the mobility process for different genders.

Gender

Women's role as caretakers and men's role as 'bread winners' makes women stay in place to care for the household and farm whilst men migrate to urban areas to find alternative income ([Gioli et al., 2014](#)).

Economic status

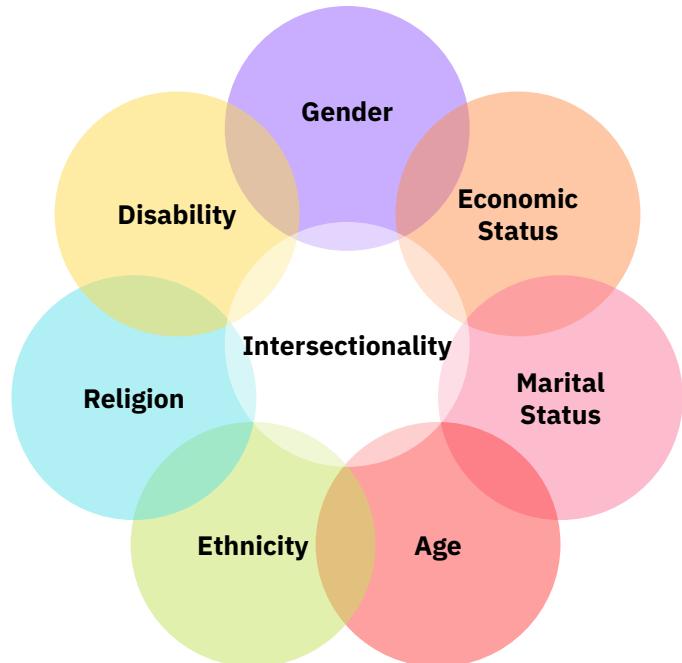
It is usually poorer households that adopt migration as a response to environmental threats to agricultural productivity. However, since migration requires economic capacities, it is usually not the most deprived that migrate ([Foresight: Migration and Global Environmental Change, 2011](#)).

Marital status

Being married can increase a women's access to land and resources. However, married women are often bound to household responsibilities. A study from Bangladesh shows that women migrating independently are often younger and unmarried ([Rao et al., 2020](#)).

Age

Mobility in the context of climate change is often practiced by younger people as elderly might be restricted by health issues or caregiving responsibilities. Age influence the type of migration employed differently across genders ([EPA, 2022](#)). For example, in Ghana, young women have been dominant in short-distance moves whilst young men have been dominant in long-distance



moves. This has been explained by the fact that men's migration has been work-related whilst women's migration has been marriage-related ([GSS, 2014](#)).

Ethnicity

Ethnic discrimination can be an immobilising factor for those ethnic groups affected. However, ethnicity can also be a factor of voluntary immobility in cases where ethnic identity involves cultural attachments to place, which is the case for some indigenous groups. For example, indigenous Pacific island voices have expressed a strong desire to stay in place despite being increasingly exposed to environmental risk ([Farbotko et al., 2020](#)).

Religion

Religion can influence ideas about gender roles and may therefore be more or less restricting for mobility. At the same time, as in the case of female migrants in Nusa Tenggara in Indonesia, religious belief can be a source of strength, supporting migration, even though families are disapproving ([Williams, 2008](#)).

Disability

In Fiji and Vanuatu many women with disability are unemployed and depend on agriculture for food production. Women with disability are therefore harder hit by climate change impacts on agriculture than able-bodied women who can more easily access other work opportunities ([Fong, 2022](#)).

IN SUM...

In sum, both the **pressure to migrate** and the **capacity to migrate** vary by gender (and other intersecting aspects) and so do **risk perception, destination choices** and **employment prospects** ([IOM, 2014](#)).

Gender-based distinctions are **context-specific** and **vary across cultures** (GP HMCCC Gender Strategy, GIZ, 2021).

How HMCCC influences gender

TWO WAYS IN WHICH HMCCC INFLUENCE GENDER

Now that we have seen how climate impacts and mobility are influenced by gender, let's look at the reverse: how does HMCCC influence gender roles?

Can you imagine how traditional gender roles and existing inequalities may be affected by human mobility?



Take a moment to think about ways in which human mobility may impact gender before continuing.

Broadly speaking, human mobility influences gender dynamics in two ways:

1. Human mobility influences gender dynamics by **entrenching** traditional gender roles and existing inequalities:

As a last resort, some communities need government support to move through **planned voluntary relocation**. In this case, communities relocate collectively but the different genders might still experience the process differently. Reasons for this might be a change in work opportunities or different abilities to deal with the disruption of community structures. A disregard for this in the planning process can reinforce gender inequality.



Thinking back to Module 5, can you recall how women's livelihoods were impacted when the Tukuraki village in Fiji relocated?

In the example, women experienced negative impacts on their livelihoods. Women in the village are often responsible for selling agricultural products in markets. However, the relocation meant that the cost of travel to the market increased. As a consequence, it became increasingly difficult and costly to carry out their work.

(GP HMCCC Gender Strategy, GIZ, 2021)

2. Human mobility influences gender dynamics by **challenging and changing** traditional gender roles and existing inequalities in both direct and indirect ways:

As husbands in the Karakoram region in Pakistan migrate to diversify livelihoods, women experienced increased work burden and reduced resilience to climate change impacts. However, remittances were invested into enabling girls' education. In this way, the impacts of migration on gender equality might not be direct but have effects across generations.

IN SUM ...

The influence of HMCCC on gender is often **non-linear and complex**.

Human mobility may lead to shifts in gender roles by contributing to **less oppressive gender relations** or by creating new **opportunities for empowerment**. One example of this is, as demonstrated, by increasing girls' access to education.

However, it may also **exacerbate existing inequalities** and **reduce resilience** by exposing people to new risks and intensify issues of poverty, discrimination and inequality.

Gender-based challenges of HMCCC

GENDER-RELATED CHALLENGES

We can identify gender-related challenges by looking at **where in the HMCCC process they occur**

...

Challenges encompass implications related to:

1. The circumstances that lead to a mobility decision
2. The actual process of moving
3. Long-term effects, particularly at the new place of residence.

... and by looking at **which needs and rights they impact**:

4. Safety and security
5. Psychosocial needs
6. Access to relief and social services
7. Rights to own, inherit, or use land

GENDER-RELATED CHALLENGES IN THE HMCCC PROCESS

HNCCC decision-making

Behavioral restrictions can hinder women's ability to move without the consent of a male figure, therefore women's options to adapt to disasters are strongly dependent on socio-cultural gender norms.

Example: During slow-onset environmental processes in island groups of the Philippines, the family and particularly children become an immobilising factor for women. Women did not see it as an option to leave children behind and their gender roles, particularly after marriage, did not always allow them to migrate. Instead, responsibilities related to the home and children were a strong reason for them to stay ([Ayeb-Karlsson, 2020](#)).

Vulnerability in mobility process

LGBTQI+ people often face specific risks during the mobility process. Transit zones, camps, and reception centres can be unsafe spaces for LGBTQI+ people.

Example: A report on refugees in Kenya documents abusive treatment by other asylum seekers at and near reception centres and insensitive treatment at the hands of employees during registration and screening ([Roth et al., 2021](#)).

Long-term effects, particularly at the new place of residence

Although people use mobility as a strategy to avoid exposure to environmental risk they might move into areas with new risks. Health and wellbeing are often compromised in the new place of residence in ways that are highly gendered.

Example: For example, a case study in Accra, Ghana shows that women and girls who migrate to Accra in Ghana end up working and living under poor conditions, being exposed to health and reproductive risks ([Awumbila & Ardayfio-Schandorf, 2008](#)).

Example: A case study in Dhaka, Bangladesh shows that women and girls who move to work in garment factories are often socially punished and stigmatised for going against gender norms. This has severe effects on wellbeing and sometimes long-term implications for mental health ([Ayed-Karlsson, 2020](#)).

NEEDS AND RIGHTS

Now let's look at challenges affecting people's needs and rights:

- Safety and Security
- Psychosocial Needs
- Access to Relief and other social services
- Rights to own, inherit, or use Land

People identifying as non-binary are unable to access shelter or aid as they cannot be officially recorded as either male or female. In addition, LGBTQI people may choose not to use public evacuation shelters due to fear of discrimination ([IDMC, 2022](#)).

When homes were destroyed by a dam in Odisha, India, age requirements for entitlement to land compensation were much higher for women than men, making many women unable to receive compensation.

Both women and men migrating in the context of slow onset environmental processes in island groups of the Philippines describe experiencing loss of place, identity, and social networks, impacting their mental health.

In a case study of women and girls moving to Accra, Ghana to make a living, they become increasingly vulnerable to sexual abuse, sexually transmitted infections, and poverty.

Can you match the example stories to the four categories?

Find the solution on the next page.

People identifying as non-binary are unable to access shelter or aid as they cannot be officially recorded as either male or female. In addition, LGBTQI people may choose not to use public evacuation shelters due to fear of discrimination ([IDMC, 2022](#)).

- ▶ **Access to Relief and other social services:** There are also examples of single women heads of households who may not be able to access relief and other services while displaced.

When homes were destroyed by a dam in Odisha, India, age requirements for entitlement to land compensation were much higher for women than men, making many women unable to receive compensation.

- ▶ **Rights to own, inherit, or use Land:** Gender-based discrepancies in term of access, ownership, inheritance, and use of property influence the ability to return and rebuild after displacement or during the relocation process.

Both women and men migrating in the context of slow onset environmental processes in island groups of the Philippines describe experiencing loss of place, identity, and social networks, impacting their mental health.

- ▶ **Psychosocial Needs:** People on the move are often faced with mental health challenges, including anxiety, depression, and post-traumatic stress disorder.

In a case study of women and girls moving to Accra, Ghana to make a living, they become increasingly vulnerable to sexual abuse, sexually transmitted infections, and poverty.

- ▶ **Safety and Security:** Heightened risk of sexual and gender-based violence, sexual harassment, sex and labour trafficking, and other violations of human rights while on the move.

GENDER-BASED OPPORTUNITIES OF HMCCC OPPORTUNITIES

Focusing on women and girls as the most “disproportionately affected” ([Sierra Club & UN Women, 2018](#)) reveals only one part of the bigger picture. Gender dynamics can also generate opportunities for different genders.

To gain a holistic understanding of the gender and HMCCC nexus, one has to also look at the opportunities that (already) exist and enhance everyone’s agency through programmes and policies.

There are three main ways in which mobility can challenge gender roles and norms.



In their destination areas, mobile people can be exposed to less strict gender roles and norms.



When men are more mobile, women can assume roles that were hitherto reserved for men and take leadership positions.



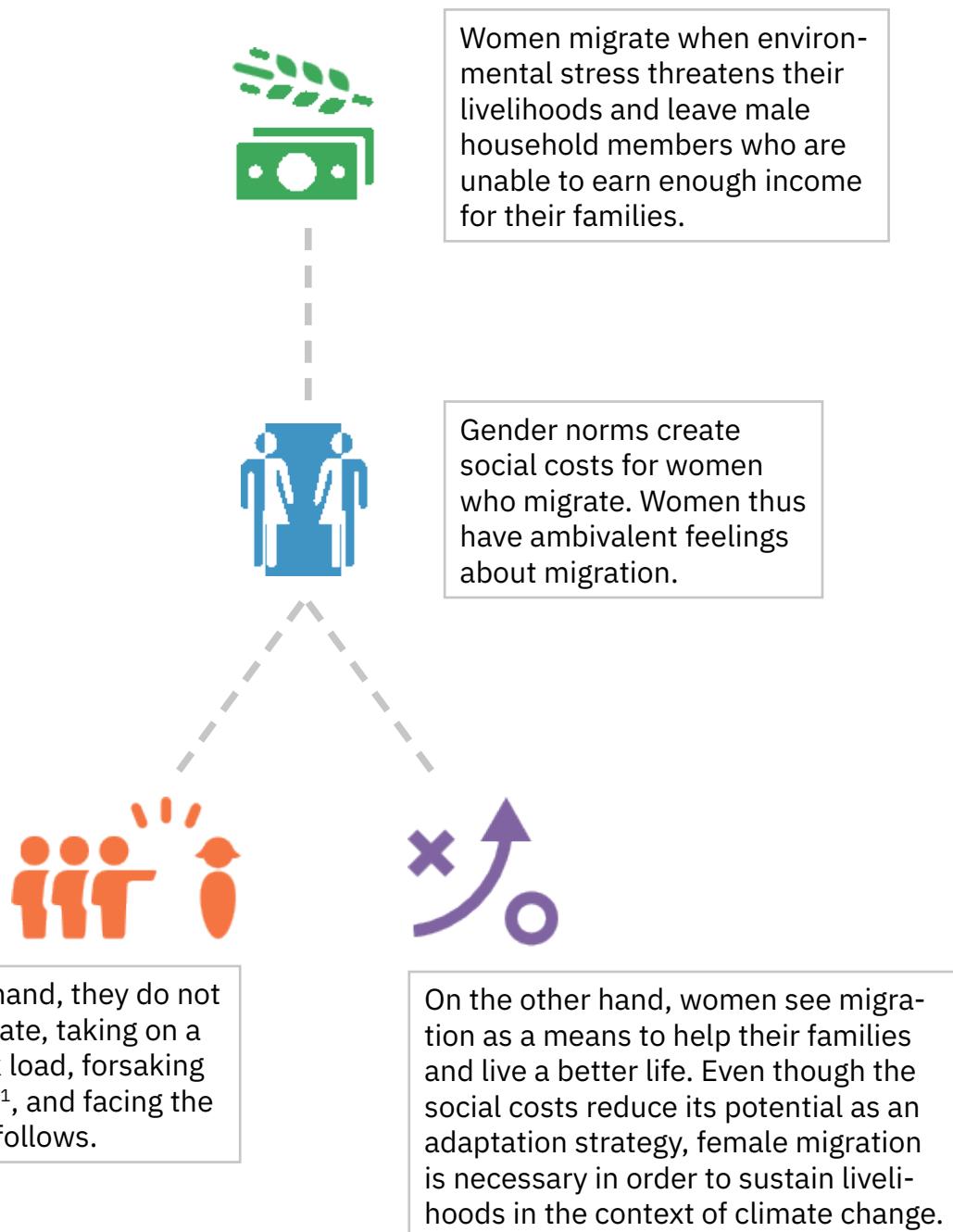
Remittances from migration can support women's and girls' empowerment by creating education opportunities.

Image credit: <https://unsplash.com/@brnkd>, Women Win, <https://pixabay.com/de/users/andros1234-139658/>

However, these potential opportunities come with challenges. Even when traditional roles are challenged as a consequence of mobility, women may still be expected to be the main care-taker of the family and thus carry “double” work burdens.

BANGLADESH CASE STUDY

A recent study ([Evertsen & van der Geest, 2020](#)) looked at how gender norms impact the process of migration and what this means for the use of migration as an adaptation strategy to cope with climatic stressors. The researchers conducted interviews and focus groups in a Dhaka slum as well as three villages in the Bhola district of Southern Bangladesh. The study showed:



INTEGRATING GENDER IN PROJECTS AND RESEARCH

Gender analysis and gender responsive action planning is **critically relevant** to all pathways of mobility and is a **crucial factor** in understanding the causes and consequences of climate change induced human mobility.

It is critical to **address existing gender inequalities** and ensure the rights of **people of all genders** who experience intersecting forms of discrimination.

¹ Purdah norms refer to ‘the broader set of norms and structures that set standards of female morality’ ([Amin, 1997](#), p. 213).

Gender roles in Bangladesh are heavily influenced by the cultural practice of purdah.

Integrating gender in research and action

GENDER MAINSTREAMING

Gender mainstreaming refers to the process whereby needs and interests of all genders are taken into account systematically across all programs, projects and organizational structures.

Example: Recognising that women might need to travel to the market to sell agricultural products, gender mainstreaming of planned relocation could include assessing distance and time from the new site to the market.



Image credit: ILRI / Kebede



Can you think of examples in your organisation where gender aspects are already well considered? Where should gender be taken into account more?

GENDER MAINSTREAMING AND GENDER IDENTITIES

As you learned in the beginning, gender identities are very diverse. However, most of the cases of HMCCC in this module only covered women and men.

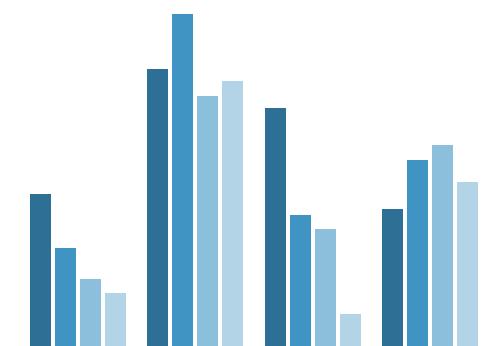


Why do you think this is the case?

To date, gender mainstreaming in HMCCC is hindered by a lack of sex-disaggregated and gender-disaggregated data¹.

To enable gender mainstreaming we need more data that is sex- and gender-disaggregated².

With more of this data, it is possible to better understand the migration experiences of people of diverse genders and to understand the discriminations or opportunities they encounter. This type of data is also essential to be able to inform evidence-based policy to address existing challenges.

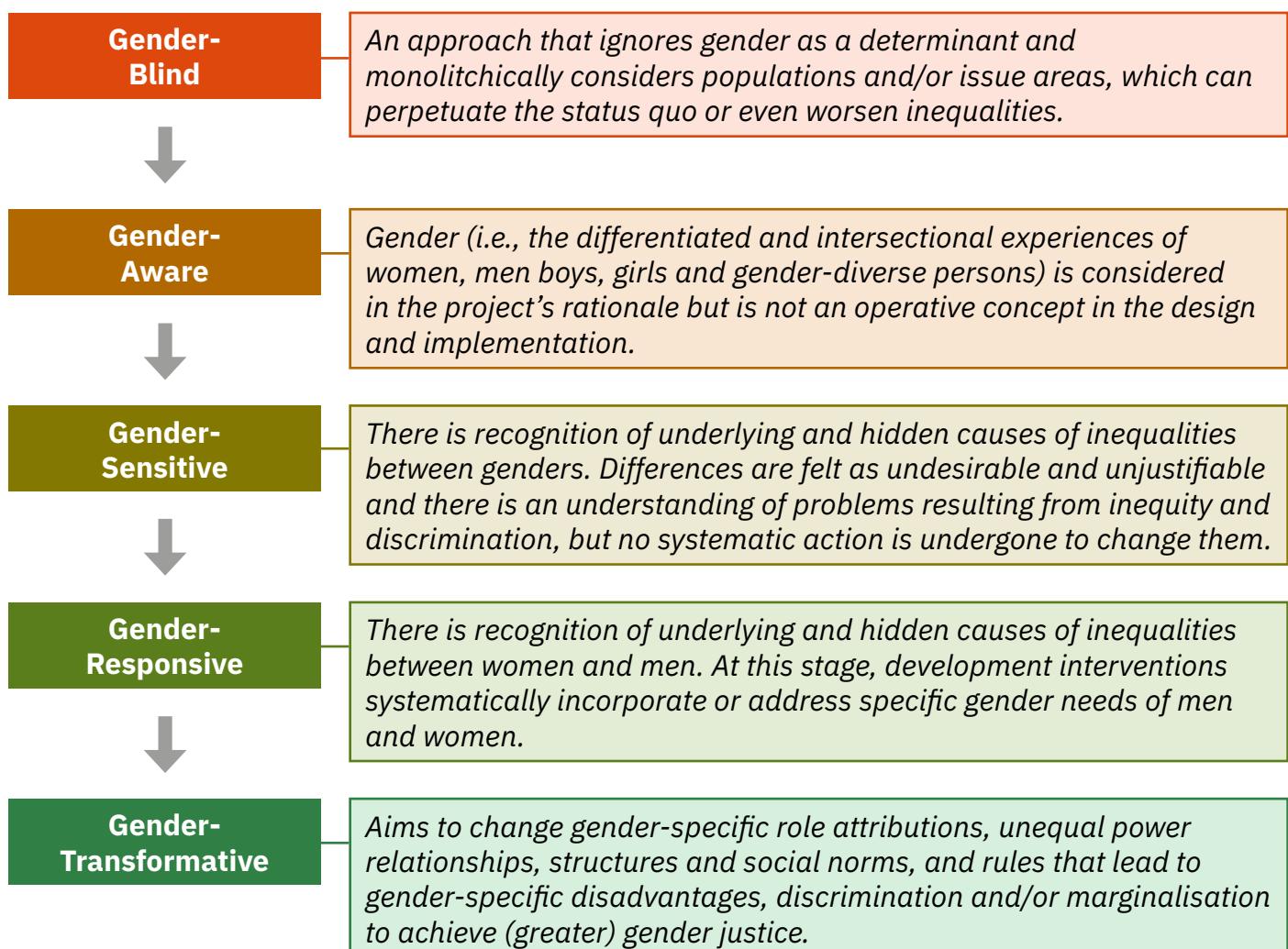


1 sex-disaggregated = differentiation of information by sex categories
gender-disaggregated = information about person's gender identity

2 This is not just a matter of asking for someone's gender identity. To successfully collect gender-disaggregated data, one needs to create an environment where people feel safe to reveal their gender identity.

GENDER INTEGRATION IN RESEARCH AND ACTION

The Gender Integration Scale examines how well the gender perspective is being applied in a programme, project, or organisation ([UNU, 2021](#)):



EXERCISE

Please rate the following project examples according to where you think they are in the gender integration scale:

Recognising the unequal outcomes of planned relocation in Fiji, guidelines are implemented and operationalised ensuring equal participation of all genders in decision-making processes on where and how to relocate. Gender minorities are able to voice their needs to ensure that the outcomes are fair, leading to improved conditions for gender minorities. Further, in promoting the participation of gender minorities, unequal power relationships and social norms are challenged leading to larger and long-term changes of unequal structures.

During a flooding, financial assistance and government compensation was offered to those affected. However, transgender women did not have identity cards that matched their gender identity and identity cards were required to access relief and aid.

During a project to promote climate change adaptation by facilitating rural-urban (male) migration there is a realization that women in the project do not experience increased resilience in the same way that men do. Instead, as their husbands migrate, they experience increased work burdens and are more vulnerable to environmental risks. This is viewed as undesirable and so the project implements an awareness campaign on how household and farm duties can be shared.

Find the answers on the next page.

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- ▶ **Gender-Transformative:** Aims to change gender-specific role attributions, unequal power relationships, structures and social norms, and rules that lead to gender-specific disadvantages, discrimination and/or marginalisation to achieve (greater) gender justice.

During a flooding, financial assistance and government compensation was offered to those affected. However, transgender women did not have identity cards that matched their gender identity and identity cards were required to access relief and aid.

- ▶ **Gender-Blind:** An approach that ignores gender as a determinant and monolithically considers populations and/or issue areas, which can perpetuate the status quo or even worsen inequalities.

During a project to promote climate change adaptation by facilitating rural-urban (male) migration there is a realization that women in the project do not experience increased resilience in the same way that men do. Instead, as their husbands migrate, they experience increased work burdens and are more vulnerable to environmental risks. This is viewed as undesirable and so the project implements an awareness campaign on how household and farm duties can be shared.

- ▶ **Gender-Sensitive:** There is recognition of underlying and hidden causes of inequalities between genders. Differences are felt as undesirable and unjustifiable and there is an understanding of problems resulting from inequity and discrimination, but no systematic action is undergone to change them.

Module 8

Human Mobility in the Context of Climate Change and Frameworks

Image credit: UN Photo / Eskinder Debebe

Introduction

SUMMARY

As this course has shown, human mobility in the context of climate change is seen as an important issue for humanity and policy.

Legal frameworks, policies and strategies to manage climate and disaster-induced displacement are used to protect human rights

and reduce long term risks.

In this context it is widely understood that international and regional frameworks are needed to address human mobility in the context of climate change.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

By the end of this modules you will be able to:

- Explain the importance of the **Global Agenda for Sustainable Development** for HMCCC
- Understand how the **UNFCCC** has sought to address HMCCC
- Summarise the importance of the **Task Force on Displacement**
- Describe how the **refugee status due to the Geneva Convention** relates to HMCCC
- Understand how **delimited approaches** can address HMCCC

The Global Agenda

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development is codified through the Sustainable Development Goals:
<https://sdgs.un.org/2030agenda>

There are several other frameworks which relate to HMCCC, which you can explore by following the links:

- [Paris Agreement](#) and United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC)
- [United Nations Disaster Risk Reduction \(UNDRR\)](#)
- [UN Habitat](#)
- [Global Compact for Migration](#)
- [Global Compact on Refugees](#)



THE SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS

Sustainable Development Goal 10 “**Reduce inequality within and among countries**” considers human mobility. Target 10.7 is focused on migration.



Target 10.7 – Facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies

Let's take a look at the indicators for the success of 10.7!

- **10.7.1** – Recruitment cost borne by employee as a proportion of yearly income earned in country of destination
- **10.7.2** – Number of countries with migration policies that facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people
- **10.7.3** – Number of people who died or disappeared in the process of migration towards an international destination
- **10.7.4** – Proportion of the population who are refugees, by country of origin



To what extent do you think SDG10 addresses HMCCC?

THE GLOBAL COMPACT FOR MIGRATION

The 2018 **Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration**

(GCM)¹ addresses the need to develop “coherent approaches to address the challenges of migration movements in the context of sudden-onset and slow-onset natural disasters”. Rooted in the 2030 Agenda (particularly SDG 10.7) and the New York Declaration for Refugees and Migrants, it is the first inter-governmentally negotiated agreement that covers all dimensions of migration.



**Global Compact
for Migration**

Optional resource: [Human Mobility in the Context of Disasters, Climate Change and Environmental Degradation – Ten Insights from the GCM Baseline Mapping Report \(adaptationcommunity.net\)](#)

“SAFE, ORDERLY AND REGULAR” HMCCC

Within the Global Agenda, the term “Safe, Orderly and Regular migration” is present.

On paper safe², orderly³, and regular⁴ seem uncontroversial ideas which nobody could disagree with.



Why might these terms be considered problematic from the migrants’ perspective?

1 Although the GCM is voluntary and not legally binding, it comprises a total of 23 objectives that recognize changing socio-economic and environmental conditions and the consequences they may have on migration.

2 There is no common definition for the concept of safe migration, but it primarily concerns the well-being of migrants. A migrant can be in an unsafe situation through regular channels; and conversely, a migrant can be in a situation that is both safe and irregular.

3 “*the movement of a person from his or her usual place of residence to a new place of residence, in keeping with the laws and regulations governing exit of the country of origin and travel, transit and entry into the host country*” ([IOM, 2011](#))

4 “*Migration that occurs through recognized, authorized channels*” ([IOM, 2011](#))

It could be argued that these terms are more concerned with states and receiving communities than the migrants themselves. It connotes the desire for structured and manageable forms of HMCCC. Structure can be viewed as the opposite of individual agency and so it could be said that the wording of these agreements might actually contribute to restricting individual freedoms related to mobility and rights.

The UNFCCC

HISTORY OF THE UNFCCC

The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) is the legal regime of international climate policy.

Over the period of the UNFCCC, human mobility has moved from within the adaptation framing to the loss and damage framing, reflecting the fact that outcomes of HMCCC can be complex and nuanced.

COP18

Recommends work to enhance understanding migration, displacement, and human mobility in the work on loss and damage

COP24

Recommendations for integrated approaches to avert, minimise, and address displacement

Bali Action Plan

Consideration of means to address loss and damage

COP21

Paris Agreement creates Task Force on Displacement

COP26

Establishment of the Glasgow Dialogue on Loss and Damage Funding

COP13

2007

COP16

2010

COP18

2012

COP19

2013

COP21

2015

COP22

2016

COP24

2018

COP25

2019

COP26

2021

COP27

2022

COP19

Warsaw International Mechanism and its Executive Committee (Excom) established

COP25

Establishment of the Santiago Network on Loss and Damage

Cancun Adaptation Framework

CAF para 14(f) introduces migration, displacement, and planned relocation for the first time in international climate policy

COP22

Excom includes human mobility in five-year rolling work plan

COP27

Final text cited “displacement”, “relocation”, and “migration” as “gaps” that need to be tackled; Creation of the Loss and Damage Fund

THE IMPORTANCE OF THE PARIS AGREEMENT

At COP19 and COP21, important milestones were achieved.



The COP19 (November 2013) in Poland led to the creation of the **Warsaw International Mechanism (WIM) for Loss and Damage associated with Climate Change Impacts** (Loss and Damage Mechanism). Its main objective is to address and promote the implementation of approaches to address loss and damage associated with impacts of climate change, including extreme events and slow onset processes, in developing countries that are particularly vulnerable to the adverse effects of climate change.

In 2015, at COP21 in Paris, the Task Force on Displacement (TFD) was created to complement the work of the WIM in formulating policy recommendations on the link between adverse effects of climate change and displacement.

Specifically it was mandated to “develop recommendations to avert, minimize and address displacement related to the adverse impacts of climate change”.



Image credit: <https://www.flickr.com/photos/unfccc/>

TASK FORCE ON DISPLACEMENT



The membership of the TFD has evolved to include representatives from a wide range of groups. It includes UNFCCC, other UN bodies, most affected states, and civil society. Agencies and representatives cover adaptation and loss and damage and ensure synergies with humanitarian, development, and human mobility.

It should be noted that the TFD also works on the other areas of HMCCC, to include migration and planned relocation.

The work and membership of the TFD can be explored on the [UNFCCC website](#).

NAPs WITHIN UNFCCC

National Adaptation Plans were introduced in 2010. They consider how to mainstream climate change adaptation into state level planning. As such they are relevant for avoiding displacement and capitalising on migration or planned relocation.

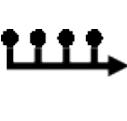
However, recent research by UNU shows that coverage and the way in which HMCCC is addressed varies greatly:

	No mention	Mentioned as background	Mentioned in strategies	Focus of strategies	Total
NAPs	3	7	5	15	30
Policies	7	32	4	7	50
Total	10	39	9	22	80



How would you assess the state of NAPs and policies with regards to HMCCC according to this study?

BEST PRACTICES FOR INCLUDING HMCCC IN NAPs

	Multi-stakeholder cooperation		Vertical coherence
	Define terms and concepts		Detailed strategies and action items
	Dedicated chapter and/or mainstream HMCCC throughout document		Monitoring and evaluation
	Cite sources of information		Include safeguards for planned relocation, especially livelihoods
	Link to wider national policies and agendas		Foster exchange between Climate Change Adaptation and Disaster Risk Reduction communities

LIMITATIONS OF GLOBAL FRAMEWORKS INCLUDING THE UNFCCC



Can you imagine some of the limitations of global frameworks?

- Global frameworks require buy in from all states.
- They are incredibly complicated given that climate change and human mobility are so politically controversial topics – their combination through HMCCC is even more contentious.
- Framings of HMCCC tend to be dominated by securitisation¹, particularly as the forces of populism and nationalism seem to be on the rise.
- This means that agreements will naturally take on the form of the lowest common denominator.
- This means there will be a watering down of agreements which are “soft law”. Due to the above complexities, targets and goals can be ignored if politically expedient.

¹ An understanding of migration which tends to view it negatively as a threat to receiving areas as a risk to resources or sovereignty

HMCCC and refugee status

THE UN CONVENTION ON REFUGEES



The 1951 **United Nations Convention relating to the Status of Refugees** (or **Geneva Refugee Convention**) recognized the right of persons to seek asylum from persecution in other countries.

The Refugee Convention defines a refugee as “*someone who is unable or unwilling to return to their country of origin owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group, or political opinion.*”

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Do you know the difference between an asylum seeker and a refugee¹?

The convention’s core principle is *non-refoulement*, which asserts that a refugee should not be returned to a country where they face serious threats to their life or freedom.

The **United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)** serves as the ‘guardian’ of the 1951 Convention and its 1967 Protocol. According to the legislation, States are expected to cooperate with UNHCR in ensuring that the rights of refugees are respected and protected.



How do you think people who have to leave their homes due to climate impacts are treated under international law?

¹ The terms asylum seeker and refugee are often confused. Both asylum seekers and refugees have crossed an international border due to persecution. An asylum seeker becomes a refugee if the receiving state approves their application and grants them the right to stay in the receiving country.

THE CONVENTION ON REFUGEES AND HMCCC

There is no basis in international law for people who leave their homes in the context of climate change to be admitted to third countries.

Difficulties

The difficulty of the refugee definition for environmental claims was acknowledged by the former High Commissioner for Refugees, Antonio Guterres, who stated that ‘adopting the terminology of “climate refugees” or “environmental refugees” would complicate and confuse UNHCR’s efforts to protect victims of persecution and armed conflict.’

One of the main difficulties is there is not an identifiable “persecutor”¹ in the context of HMCCC.

1 In such legal frameworks, people are not termed refugees unless it is possible to ascertain both harm has been committed against them by a person/state. This is because the original (and current) goal of the convention is to consider conflict and other political/cultural factors.

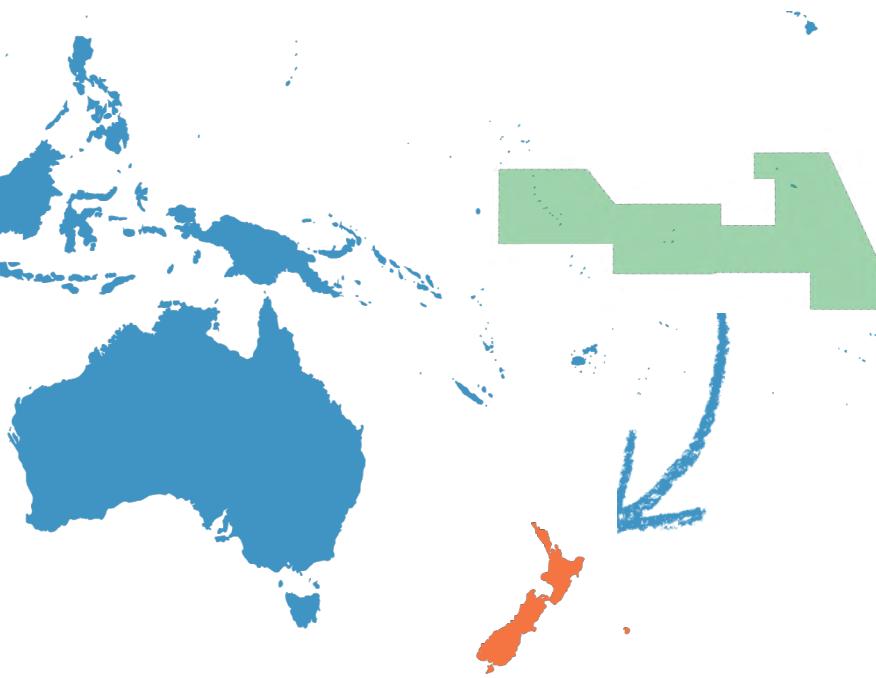
Opportunities

Therefore, the **Geneva Convention on Refugees** does not recognize climate change as a reason for flight, **but emphasizes the non-refoulement principle**, which prevents people fleeing from being returned to states where their lives are threatened. **This can also be the case due to natural disasters and climate change.**

The UN recently appointed a special rapporteur on the promotion and protection of human rights in the context of climate change. In his initial report, Dr Ian Fry explicitly addressed *“the human rights implications of climate change displacement including legal protection of people displaced across international borders.”* ([OHCHR, 2022](#))

IOANE TEITIOTA RULING

The complexity of the current legal status for those affected by HMCCC is shown by the case of Ioane Teitiota.



In its first ruling on an individual seeking asylum from the effects of climate change, the UN Human Rights Committee stated countries may not deport individuals who face climate change-induced conditions that violate the right to life. However, the decision is not legally binding.

Ioane Teitiota claimed that the effects of climate change and rising sea levels forced him to migrate to New Zealand where he applied for asylum, but the Immigration and Protection Court refused in 2013.



He appealed to the Human Rights Committee of the UN alleging New Zealand had violated his right to life by deporting him to Kiribati in September 2015, in violation of Article 6 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR).

Image credit: UN Photo / Pierre Albouy

Read more here: [Teitiota v New Zealand: A Step Forward in the Protection of Climate Refugees under International Human Rights Law? | OHRH](#)

WHO IS PROTECTED UNDER THE GENEVA CONVENTION?

Can you sort these reasons for flight by whether they are protected under the Geneva Convention or not?

- Member of a religion
- Impacted by sea level rise
- Homosexual person
- Member of a minority racial group
- Political activist
- Transgender person
- Person in extreme poverty
- Member of a minority nationality

The Refugee Convention defines a refugee as “*someone who is unable or unwilling to return to their country of origin owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group, or political opinion.*”

Protected: Member of a religion, Political activist, Transgender person, Member of a minority nationality, Member of a minority racial group, Homosexual person

Not protected: Impacted by sea level rise, Person in extreme poverty

Regional and national frameworks

STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF INTERNATIONAL SOFT LAW

Many of the frameworks of relevance to HMCCC can be termed soft law¹, as opposed to hard law².

Strengths of soft law

- Even if terms are non-binding, they may bring pressure on states
- Soft law enables a wide constituency to reach agreement
- It can lead to hard law, or legally binding agreements
- They can promote causes

Weaknesses of soft law

- There are no penalties for transgressions
- They can easily be disregarded, particularly if they are thought to be in conflict with national interests
- They may lead to watered-down agreements
- They may not be promoted as much as hard law or legally binding agreements

SOFT LAW AND HARD LAW FRAMEWORKS

Now sort the frameworks according to whether they are soft law or hard law:

- Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees
- Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction
- Sustainable Development Goals
- Platform on Disaster Displacement
- The Paris Agreement
- Global Compact for Migration
- Global Compact on Refugees

Find the solution on the next page.

1 legally non-binding voluntary agreements

2 legally binding

The **Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees** and the **Paris Agreement** are the only frameworks of hard law in this list. However, neither makes binding provisions for those affected by environmental or climate change.

THE NEED FOR A DIFFERENT APPROACH

We have seen that agreement on international law or the creation of a catch-all framework which addresses HMCCC is difficult. Therefore, it can be helpful to think about tackling this from different angles. One way of doing this is through delimitation:



Thematic focused approach could focus on a form of HMCCC. For example, frameworks can be focused on displacement.



Demographic focused approach could concentrate on a vulnerable group. For example, a framework created for the protection of children.



Regional focused approach could concentrate on HMCCC at the regional level.

The following sections explore such possible solutions.

PLATFORM ON DISASTER DISPLACEMENT

A thematic framework we will consider is the Platform on Disaster Displacement (PDD) which addresses the lack of protection for persons that are displaced across borders because of climate change-related disasters.

The **Nansen Initiative 2012-2015**

was a bottom-up consultative process which led to the establishment and endorsement of the non-binding Protection Agenda. As a follow-up to the Nansen Initiative, the [Platform on Disaster Displacement \(PDD\)](#), implements the recommendations of the Protection Agenda.

The Protection Agenda identifies three priority areas for future action: collecting data and enhancing knowledge; enhancing the use of humanitarian protection measures; and strengthening the management of disaster displacement risks in the country of origin.

The latter could occur through facilitating migration with dignity as a more positive way to cope with disasters and climate impacts and planned relocation as a preventative or responsive measure to disaster displacement risks.

GUIDELINES TO PROTECT CHILDREN

Another way is to focus on specific groups. Recently UNICEF, IOM, University of Georgetown and United Nations University have produced the first [guidelines](#) to protect children affected by HMCCC.

The guidelines provide **9 principles** to address the unique vulnerabilities of children on the move both internally and across borders as a result of climate change.

1. Rights-based approach
2. Best interests of the child
3. Accountability
4. Awareness and participation in decision-making
5. Family unity
6. Protection, safety and security
7. Access to education, health care and social services
8. Non-discrimination
9. Nationality



The guiding principles provide national and local governments, international organizations and civil society groups with a foundation to build policies that protect children's rights.

Here is a short video:

Guiding Principles: Supporting children on the move as our climate changes | UNICEF

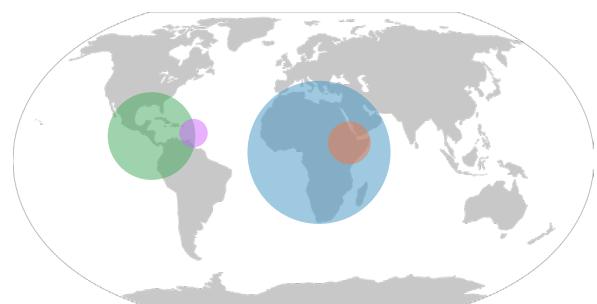
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=fie0QpNWoxk>

THE NEED FOR A REGIONAL APPROACH

As the impacts and challenges of climate change are different from one place to another, the solutions should also be unique and region specific.

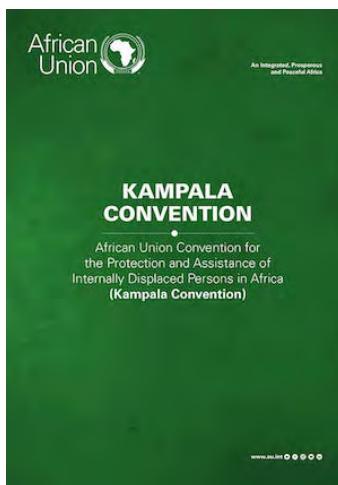
Regional cooperation and arrangements can provide political, economic, and environmental gains which may not exist in local, national and global contexts. The implementation of climate change policies for global agreements is often carried out by regional polities.

State actors can feel more connected and heard at regional level, than at international level, due to the commonalities in cultures, identities, geography and politics. A common regional voice can be more effective than individual positions and can drive commitment and action for resilience.



There are regional agreements which cover [Africa](#), [Latin America](#), as well as the [IGAD](#) and [Eastern Caribbean](#) regions.

EXAMPLES OF REGIONAL APPROACHES



The Kampala Convention

One example of a regional approach to address HMCCC is The Kampala Convention. This is an African Union treaty was the first regional approach to protecting internally displaced persons, including those affected by disasters.

By the end of 2022, it had been ratified by 33 of the 55 member states of the African Union, although implementation has been inconsistent.

The Convention is influenced by the United Nations Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement.

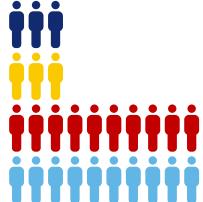
There are however limitations. The International Committee of the Red Cross have highlighted the need to focus on implementation and the lack of a gendered approach.

Pacific Access Category Resident Visa

The Pacific Access Category Resident Visa is one way that Pacific Islanders can settle in New Zealand, however it is extremely limited.

It is an annual ballot which provides residency for:

- 150 Kiribati citizens
- 150 Tuvaluan citizens
- 500 Tongan citizens
- 500 Fijian citizens



= 50 people

It confers the right to live, work and study in New Zealand but applicants must have a job to support a dependent family. It is not specifically designed to consider those affected by HMCCC.

Pacific Australia Labour Mobility (PALM) stream

The Pacific Australia Labour Mobility (PALM) stream means nationals of Pacific SIDS can live and work in Australia for up to 4 years.

Under this new visa, employers will have greater workforce stability and workers will have more time to develop skills and earn money to send home to their families and communities. Employers will also be able to nominate seasonal workers who want to stay longer in Australia for a longer-term visa, and workers can apply to make this change onshore.

Candidates will receive training in English, be assessed as physically fit for the purpose, and receive a comprehensive pre-departure briefing before departure.

This modality can be adapted to an HMCCC context. After Cyclone Pam hit Vanuatu in 2015, Australia increased the quotas to enable remittances to assist recovery efforts. Likewise, after Cyclone Winston impacted Fiji in 2016, more migrants were invited to Australia.



Image credit: Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade

Human Mobility in the Context of Climate Change and Frameworks

The Pacific Regional Framework on Climate Mobility

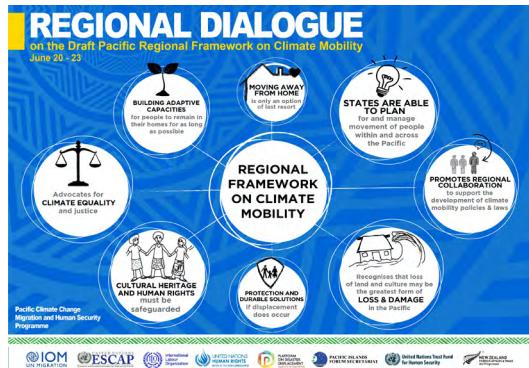


Image credit: Pacific Climate Change Migration and Human Security Project

States in the Pacific have been engaging in a series of policy dialogues.

In a recent meeting, the goal was outlined to “*inform a regional framework that respects national policies, strategies and narratives while promoting recognition and the legal protection of migrants and displaced persons particularly in the context of climate change*”.

Watch the video:

Regional Dialogue on the Draft Regional Framework on Climate Mobility Web Series Episode 2 | IOM Asia-Pacific
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1De6wiimYGg>



Image credit: U.S. Department of State / Ron Przysucha

Compact of Free Association

The Compact of Free Association (COFA) is a diplomatic agreement between the USA and the island states of the Republic of Marshall Islands, the Federal States of Micronesia and the Republic of Palau.

It provides access to economic programmes such as disaster funds and the right to migrate permanently to the USA without any visa or job requirements.

However, there is a trade-off – the cost of access to the USA is a loss of sovereignty – the USA can use territory of the Pacific states for military bases.

COFA was negotiated for historic and military reasons but shows how existing frameworks can find new relevance with the reality of HMCCC.

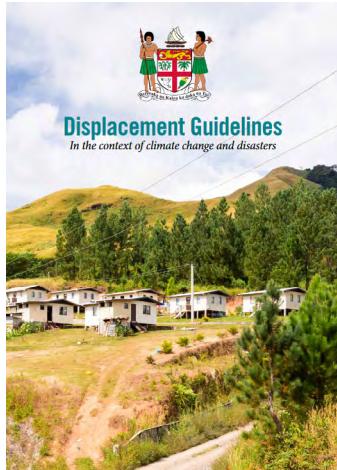
NATIONAL APPROACHES

In the absence of global and regional frameworks, it is necessary to consider national approaches.

In fact, regional approaches can only be effectively implemented through national action plans or policies. Regional agreements can instigate the development of national policies which can be supported from the regional level.

Fiji has been in the vanguard of such national planning.

The Government of Fiji developed policy guidelines for two mobility forms, as slow-onset and extreme weather events are likely causes of displacement and planned relocation:



Displacement Guidelines

The [Displacement Guidelines](#) have the purpose to:

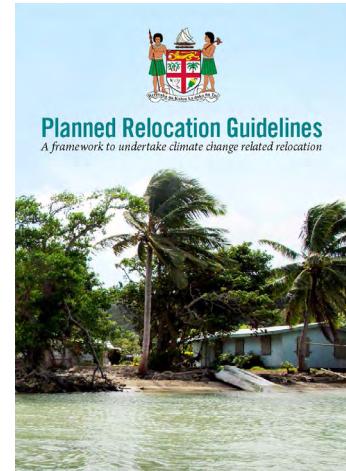
- Close policy gaps when addressing disaster displacement
- Promote resilience
- Ensure that “no one is left behind” and that human rights are preserved
- Ensure participation of all relevant stakeholders in the displacement process. It describes the roles of government and other stakeholders in all stages of disaster displacement.

Planned Relocation Guidelines

Fiji's [Planned Relocation Guidelines](#) describe the principles and stages for relocating affected communities. For example, it states that planned relocation is an adaptation technique which will only be applied when all other adaptation options are exhausted.

While the Planned Relocation Guidelines describe the principles and stages of a relocation process in general, all necessary steps, detailed responsibilities and methods to be applied in a community relocation are elaborated in the Standard Operating Procedure (SOPs).

The planned relocation guidelines as well as the SOPs are described in Fiji's [Climate Change Act](#) of 2021, thus giving it the legal framework that recognises and supports its implementation and sustainability.



Nonetheless, most national frameworks tend to focus on internal migration, with little provision for international migration.

GERMAN DEVELOPMENT COOPERATION

The German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ) supports national and regional policy development on HMCCC through GIZ's „Global Programme on Human Mobility in the Context of Climate Change“ (GP HMCCC).

Objective

Improving the development-oriented management of (internal) migration, disaster displacement, and the voluntary and planned relocation in the context of climate change.

Approaches

The GP HMCCC works on three levels:

1. BMZ advisory & support of international processes
2. Generation and dissemination of knowledge
3. Support of project partner at regional, sub-national and national level

OVERVIEW ON CURRENT PARTNER COUNTRIES/REGIONS AND JOINT PROJECTS



Global Programme “Human Mobility in the Context of Climate Change”

	Caribbean	Pacific	Philippines	East Africa
Implementing Partners:	Organisation of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS)	Pacific Island Forum (PIFS)	Commission on Population and Development (POPCOM)	Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD)
Examples of joint projects with GP HMCCC:	<p>Raising awareness on HMCCC by a virtual exhibition of photography and artwork by Caribbean artists.</p> 	<p>Support of the Fijian policies you just learned about:</p> 	<p>Supporting POPCOM in digitalizing the registry of inhabitants and migrants on “Barangay” level, the lowest level of administration in the Philippines.</p>	<p>Modelling of migration movements due to gradual changes as a result of climate change (ongoing project).</p> 

Conclusion

COP27

The promise and limitations of the UNFCCC were brought into sharp relief at the Conference of the Parties (COP) 27 in Sharm el-Sheikh.

- ▶ It made history with the agreement to create a new fund to support those affected by loss and damage. This is a demand for which small island developing states and vulnerable nations have been campaigning for decades.
The details of the fund including how it will be funded, by whom in addition to for what and whom are to be outlined in subsequent negotiations.
- ▶ On the other hand, the attainment of limiting increased temperatures to 1.5C seems further off than ever, with the “Sharm el-Sheikh implementation plan” reusing text on phasing down, as opposed to phasing out fossil fuels.

The outcome of COP27 suggests that HMCCC will continue to be a global issue in the 21st century, but there may be increased resources to address it in the future.



Image credit: Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade

CONCLUSION

We have seen that certain forms of human (im)mobility can be associated with negative outcomes for affected persons. Therefore it is important to think about how it is possible to bring about protection for those affected by HMCCC. Frameworks can help by:

- Protecting those who move
- Protecting the human rights of those who move
- Facilitating more adaptive forms of mobility, such as migration before displacement occurs
- Reducing the losses and damages associated with HMCCC
- Increasing the adaptative elements of mobility such as facilitating livelihoods

However, political realities make agreements at the global level difficult. They are generally based upon soft law. Frameworks which are focused on specific groups, or with a regional or national focus are a more practical solution.



It should be noted that any framework requires effective implementation and financing to maximise effectiveness.



Module 9

Peace, Conflict & Fragility

Image credit: <https://unsplash.com/@levimeirclancy>

Introduction

SHORT RECAP FROM PREVIOUS CHAPTERS

From Module 1, we learnt the diverse and contextual social dimensions and vulnerability in the context of extreme weather, climate change impacts and human mobility. In some cases, people can get trapped as a result (Module 6).

The IPCC confirms with high confidence¹ that anthropogenic climate forcing has had an impact on internal displacement. This is due to two observations:

1. observed impact of anthropogenic climate forcing on the occurrence of weather extremes (making these more frequent and more impactful), and
2. the strong contribution of weather extremes to observed displacement.

SUMMARY

The module sheds light on the different dimensions of climate change impacts in fragile environments, conflict and human mobility. Conflict-related displacement stories presented in this module underline that the first aim should always be to prevent violent conflict(s) and work towards peaceful mediation of conflicts. Additionally, a set of climate policies will be identified and discussed that can serve as effective security policies in a warming climate.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

By the end of this modules you will be able to:

- Define and differentiate **forms of conflict and security**
- Describe the linkages between **climate change impacts and conflict, conflict and mobility outcomes** in a changing climate
- Apply a **conflict lens** in your work and **conflict-sensitive approaches**

¹ The IPCC expresses uncertainty quantitatively in the categories very low, low, medium, high and very high.

Definition of fragility and conflict

FRAGILITY

Fragility is “the combination of **exposure to risk** and **insufficient coping capacities** of the state, system and/or communities to manage, absorb or mitigate those risks” ([OECD, 2022](#)).

Conflict and fragility adversely affect the lives of vulnerable populations. In fragile contexts, rates of extreme poverty can increase as individuals are displaced, livelihoods are devastated, and opportunities for sustainable growth, development and prosperity are destroyed ([OECD](#)).

PREVALENT CONFLICT TYPES IN THE CONTEXT OF CLIMATE CHANGE

Conflict can take many shapes. Let's have a look at key conflict types in the context of climate change.



Social conflict

Nonviolent struggle between groups, organisations and communities over values, interests, resources, and influence or power ([SROCC IPCC, 2019](#))

Interpersonal violence

Violence between family members and intimate partners, usually, though not exclusively, taking place in the home



Civil war

Violent conflict between a state and one or more organized non-state actors in the state's territory

Additional types of conflict include:

- Intercommunal war: violence between individuals of a community who are unrelated, and who may or may not know each other, generally taking place outside the home driven by tensions over access to water and grazing land for cattle
- Inter state war: war between states, in which states fight other states

ARMED CONFLICT

Armed conflict can incorporate various types of conflict.



A commonly used definition of armed conflict is conflicts involving **greater than 25 battle-related deaths in a year**.



This number represents the [Uppsala Conflict Data Program](#) (UCDP) threshold for inclusion in their database, a core resource in this field of climate and conflict research.



Optional exercise: Click on the [interactive map](#) by UCDP to learn more on different country contexts.

VULNERABLE GROUPS

Impacts of climatic change disproportionately affect vulnerable groups.

Who is likely to get impacted most?

- The IPCC estimates that low-income groups already face major challenges in accessing water.
- The situation is likely to worsen due to growing conflicts over scarce resources, increasing water prices and diminishing infrastructure provisions in ever-expanding informal settlements.



Image credit: Kaustuvraj

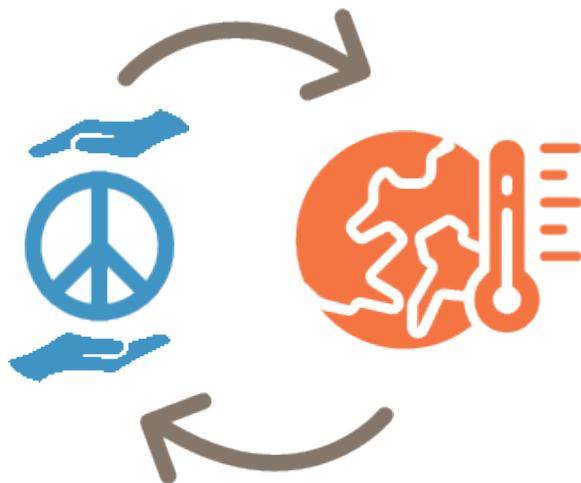


Now that we have covered the basics of conflict, let's have a look at how climate change acts as fragility amplifier.

Climate change as fragility amplifier

PEACE AND SECURITY AND CLIMATE CHANGE

Peace and security and climate change are inextricably linked.



Can you think of reasons why this is the case?

PEACE AND SECURITY

How are peace and security linked?

1. Climate change reverses progress towards sustainable development and peace, posing risks to human security¹ and making peace harder to achieve.

2. Climate change is one of the major challenges to international peace and security.

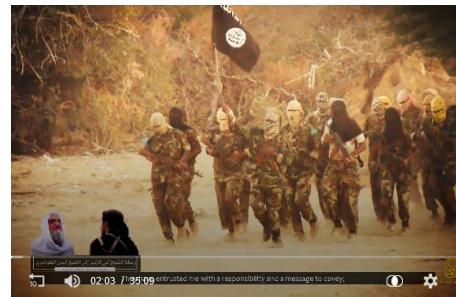


To sum it up: Peace and security are two sides of the same coin.

¹ Human security, in the context of climate change, is “*a condition that exists when the vital core of human lives is protected, and when people have the freedom and capacity to live with dignity*”. ([IPCC, 2014](#))

CLIMATE-RELATED SECURITY RISKS

Climate-related security risks require a climate change and security lens.



Across the Sahel, changing rainfall patterns have increased competition among farmers and herders over fertile soil, contributing to increased conflict between groups.

Across the Horn of Africa, more frequent and intense weather shocks, droughts and floods in particular, also cause large-scale displacement and instability.

Across the world, governments and non-state actors like jihadis and gangs also use climate change strategically. A prominent example is al-Shabaab exploiting people's anger at the state's failure to bolster their political ranks and influence across Somalia.

Image credit: <https://www.flickr.com/photos/46347505@N05/>,
https://www.flickr.com/photos/au_unistphotostream/, Internet Archive

NOW IT'S YOUR TURN TO CRITICALLY REFLECT ON THESE STATEMENTS

Climate change is a crisis multiplier and threat to the stability of states and societies in the decades to come. The capacity of states and societies to manage change, including climate change, is closely linked to conflict and fragility.

Can you think of reasons why this might be the case?

Choose the correct answers from these options.

- The historical influence of climate on conflict is judged to be small compared with dominant conflict drivers.
- Conflicts can arise even without the additional burden from extreme weather and long-term climate change.
- Climate change is a security challenge only and does not affect economies, livelihoods, or development.
- Climate change itself interacts with and affects other pressures. There are contextual factors that may trigger conflicts.
- There is a wide range of positions when it comes to the climate change-conflict nexus.

Find the solution on the next page.

Solution

- The historical influence of climate on conflict is judged to be small compared with dominant conflict drivers.
- Conflicts can arise even without the additional burden from extreme weather and long-term climate change.
- Climate change is a security challenge only and does not affect economies, livelihoods, or development.
- Climate change itself interacts with and affects other pressures. There are contextual factors that may trigger conflicts.
- There is a wide range of positions when it comes to the climate change-conflict nexus.

Links between climate, conflict and mobility

CLIMATE CHANGE IMPACTS AND CONFLICT

What are links between climate-related migration and conflict?

Climate-related internal migration has been associated with the experience of violence by migrants, the prolongation of conflicts in migrant receiving areas and civil unrest in urban areas. However, the nature of these links is diverse and context-specific.

CLIMATE CHANGE AND CONFLICT



So, is climate change considered to be a **major factor** of conflict?

No, there is little evidence of climate change creating or sustaining conflict.

That's why there is ongoing research on the links between climate events, conflict and mobility outcomes.



Climate change acts as a vulnerability amplifier, reinforcing already existing vulnerabilities.

Further reading (optional):

When Rain Turns to Dust: Understanding and Responding to the Combined Impact of Armed Conflicts and the Climate and Environment Crisis on People's Lives (ICRC)

https://www.icrc.org/sites/default/files/topic/file_plus_list/rain_turns_to_dust_climate_change_conflict.pdf

CASE STUDY: CONFLICT-RELATED DISPLACEMENT IN SOMALIA



Somalia has faced many challenges on its development trajectory, among them **environmental degradation, food insecurity, displacement, poverty and violent conflict.**



Somalia has a long history of droughts, but the climate shocks are becoming more frequent and severe as a result of global climate change. People are given less time to recover and to prepare for the next climate or conflict shock.



Armed groups aggravate the situation by making humanitarian work nearly impossible.

A recent study that uses internal displacement data from the UNHCR shows that **conflict** leads to **large-scale displacement** outcomes across Somalia at the onset of the ongoing drought (2016-2018).

At the same time, the study also looks into conflict dynamics of internally displaced populations. It finds that **displacement does not lead to conflict** in the receiving regions in Somalia.



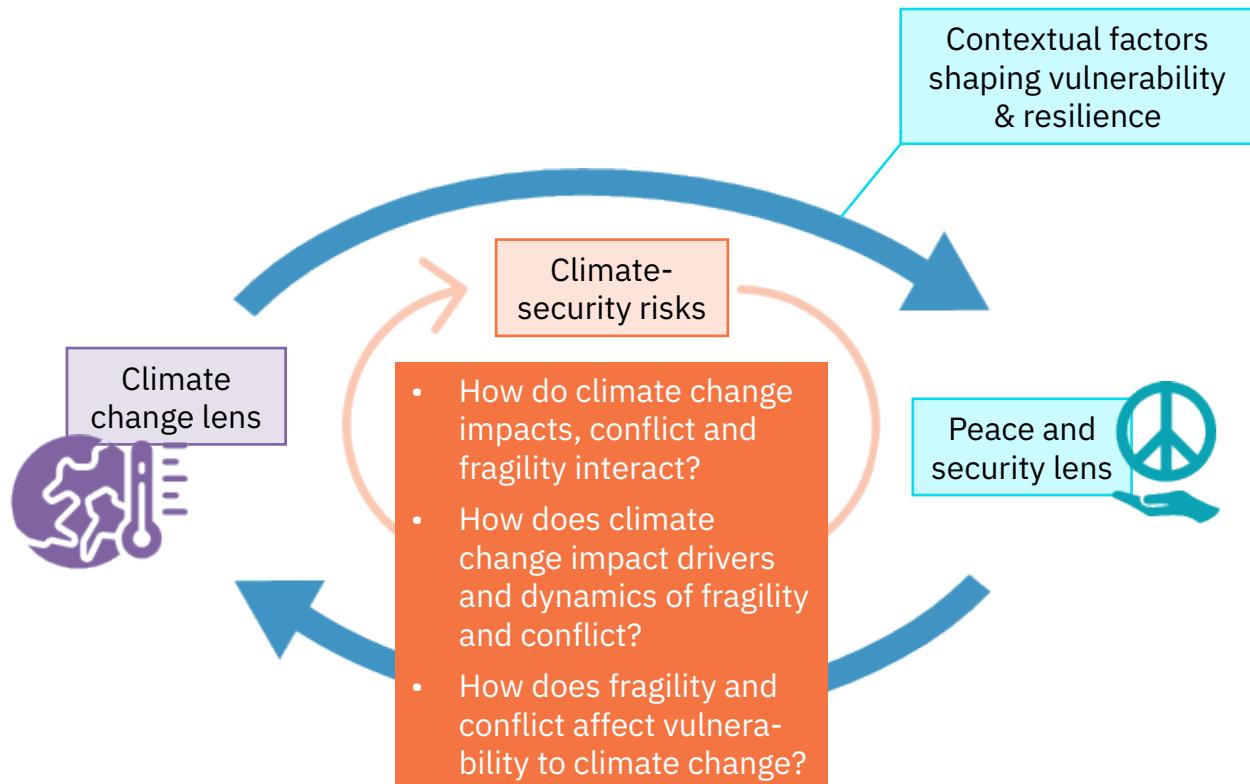
Both conflict and climate change impacts are leading to displacement. Displacement itself does not lead to conflict.

Policy responses and management options

How ARE CLIMATE-SECURITY RISKS LINKED?

Policy- and decision-makers in multiple sectors, especially development, diplomacy and defence, have sought ways to predict and respond to climate and security impacts.

Adequate responses require a **climate-security-risk lens**.



Such a lens helps unpack the complexity of different factors and interactions, leading to a granular understanding of the relationship between environmental change and insecurity in a given context.

For awareness of the risks to be converted into action that improves lives, concrete entry points need to be identified. Anticipatory action, a concept from the humanitarian arena, can help. We will explore this concept in this section.



How can a climate risk lens reduce displacement from extreme weather in fragile environments?

ANTICIPATORY ACTION

Key contributions of **anticipatory action** can reduce the risk of conflict or extreme weather-related displacement.

What is anticipatory action?

“Anticipatory action is defined as acting ahead of predicted hazards to prevent or reduce acute humanitarian impacts before they fully unfold. This requires pre-agreed plans that identify partners and activities, reliable early warning information, and pre-agreed financing, released predictably and rapidly when an agreed trigger-point is reached.”
[\(German Federal Foreign Office, 2022\)](#)

EXAMPLES FOR ANTICIPATORY/EARLY ACTION

In Mongolia, pastoralists face impacts from recurring *dzud* (the Mongolian term for severe winters).

Early humanitarian actions are designed to protect vulnerable livelihoods through reducing livestock mortality and include the distribution of **livestock nutrition kits** and **unconditional cash transfers**.

Cash is provided for vulnerable persons to give them freedom in prioritising items needed in order to survive the hazard. Many recipients choose to use this cash for **hay and fodder** or **medicine**. ([Thalheimer, Jjemba and Simperingham, 2022](#); [IFRC, 2020](#))



Image credit: <https://www.pexels.com/@tashi-namgyal-19161220/>



Image credit: <https://www.flickr.com/people/trocaire/>

In the Philippines, in the context of typhoons, early actions supported have included strengthening and protecting shelters and housing. Specific protocols by humanitarian organisations identify the need to strengthen livelihoods and minimise the loss of income in advance of typhoons.

Identified early actions include the early harvesting of matured crops and the evacuation of livestock and assets. These early actions are designed to minimise the loss of livelihoods and to motivate the community to leave areas at risk of flooding or landslide. Authorities might also consider cash-for-work initiatives to help mobilise people to implement early action plans by providing payment for these activities. ([Thalheimer, Jjemba and Simperingham, 2022](#); [IFRC, 2020](#); [IFRC, 2021](#))

CRITICAL REFLECTION

Countries experiencing conflict and protracted crises are amongst the most vulnerable to climate change with limited capacity to absorb shocks and to develop disaster risk management structures to enable anticipatory action.



Can you think of reasons why acting early can benefit communities vulnerable to conflict and climate change?

Reasons why acting early can benefit communities vulnerable to conflict and climate change

1. Communities can prepare for extreme weather and reduce their displacement risk and the risk of losing livestock and assets.
2. Communities are aware of their exposure to extreme weather events and have time to prepare.
3. It is an opportunity to minimize funding gaps and address funding needs by engaging with exposed populations early.
4. Acting early can complement practical advice to reduce the risk of displacement and entrapment, such as the need to carry legal documents, secure productive assets left behind, and bring essential medication.



Can you think of at least two obstacles to acting early in the context of HMCCC?

Obstacles to acting early in the context of HMCCC

- A. Communities may not feel comfortable discussing cross-border displacement, and in many cases, there would be no official records.
- B. Many initiatives to protect against arbitrary displacement will fall outside its scope, including longer-term resilience building, disaster risk reduction measures and climate change adaptation.

Appendix A

Glossary

Anticipatory action

Anticipatory action is defined as acting ahead of predicted hazards to prevent or reduce acute humanitarian impacts before they fully unfold. This requires pre-agreed plans that identify partners and activities, reliable early warning information, and pre-agreed financing, released predictably and rapidly when an agreed trigger-point is reached.

Bisexual people

Bisexual people have the ability to be sexually attracted to and / or love someone irrespective of the person's gender.

Capacity to cope and adapt

Capacity in the context of climate risk assessments refers to the ability of societies and communities to prepare for and respond to current and future climate impacts. It comprises:

- *Coping capacity*: ‘The ability of people, institutions, organizations, and systems, using available skills, values, beliefs, resources, and opportunities, to address, manage, and overcome adverse conditions in the short to medium term’ (e.g. early warning systems in place).
- *Adaptive capacity*: ‘The ability of systems, institutions, humans and other organisms to adjust to potential damage, to take advantage of opportunities, or to respond to consequences’ (e.g. knowledge to introduce new farming methods).

([GIZ and EURAC, 2017](#))

Civil war

Violent conflict between a state and one or more organized non-state actors in the state’s territory

Climate change

The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) defines Climate Change as “a change in the state of the climate that can be identified (e.g., by using statistical tests) by changes in the mean and/or the variability of its properties and that persists for an extended period, typically decades or longer. Climate change may be due to natural internal processes or external forcings such as modulations of the solar cycles, volcanic eruptions and persistent anthropogenic changes in the composition of the atmosphere or in land use.” ([IPCC, 2018](#))

Climate migration

The movement of a person or groups of persons who, predominantly for reasons of sudden or progressive change in the environment due to climate change, are obliged to leave their habitual place of residence, or choose to do so, either temporarily or permanently, within a State or across an international border. ([IOM, 2019](#))

Displacement

Usually a process in which people are forced to leave their normal place of residence, mostly in response to extreme weather events, such as droughts, floods or cyclones. While mostly internal, it can also be across borders and can be both temporary or permanent.

- The involuntary movement, individually or collectively, of persons from their country or community, notably for reasons of armed conflict, civil unrest, or natural or human-made disasters ([IPCC, 2022](#)).

Environmentally displaced persons

Environmentally displaced persons are those “who are displaced within their country of habitual residence or who have crossed an international border and for whom environmental degradation, deterioration or destruction is a major cause of their displacement, although not necessarily the sole one” ([IOM, 2011](#)).

Exposure

The presence of people, livelihoods, species or ecosystems, environmental functions, services and resources, infrastructure, or economic, social, or cultural assets in places and settings that could be adversely affected. ([IPCC AR6II SPM](#), p. 5)

Fragility

Fragility is “*the combination of exposure to risk and insufficient coping capacities of the state, system and/or communities to manage, absorb or mitigate those risks*”. ([OECD, 2022](#))

Gender equality

The concept that all human beings are free to develop their personal abilities and make choices without the limitations set by stereotypes, rigid gender roles, or prejudices ([CBD, 2010](#)).

Gender identity

The gender with which an individual identifies. Gender diversity is based on feelings of belonging to a particular gender and gender identity, for example as a woman, a man, transgender or intersex or other local and indigenous self-identities, such asbaklâ in the Philippines, fa’afafine in Samoa or vaka sa lewa lewa in Fiji ([GIZ, 2019](#)).

Gender roles

Gender roles in society means how we’re expected to act, speak, dress, groom, and conduct ourselves based upon our assigned sex. [...] Every society, ethnic group, and culture has gender role expectations, but they can be very different from group to group. They can also change over time ([Planned Parenthood](#)).

Gender-responsive

There is recognition of underlying and hidden causes of inequalities between women and men. At this stage, development interventions systematically incorporate or address specific gender needs of men and women (GIZ Guide).

Gender-responsive project management

Gender-responsive project management applies a gender perspective to the analysis, design, methodological approach, the targets, objectives and activities and to the monitoring and reporting of a project or programme as well as the budget and the human resource policy (GIZ Guide).

Gender-sensitive

There is recognition of underlying and hidden causes of inequalities between women and men. Differences are felt as undesirable and unjustifiable and there is an understanding of problems resulting from inequity and discrimination, but no systematic action is undergone to change them (GIZ Guide).

Gender-sensitive approach

A gender-sensitive approach takes account of gender-specific inequalities and gender discrimination and of the diverse interests, needs and potentials of different genders within a specific

context. It recognises and identifies existing gender-specific differences, problems and inequalities and integrates them into strategies and measures. The objective is to ensure that no unintended negative impact results from these strategies and measures and that individuals are able to participate in and benefit from (development cooperation) measures irrespective of their gender (GIZ).

Gender-transformative approaches

Gender-transformative approaches aim to change gender-specific role attributions, unequal power relationships, structures and social norms, and rules that lead to gender-specific disadvantages, discrimination and/or marginalisation to achieve (greater) gender justice. A gender-transformative approach therefore not only focuses on the manifestations and symptoms of gender inequality (such as lack of access) but also tackles its root causes, such as sociocultural norms, discriminatory legal provisions and social systems (GIZ).

Hazard

The potential occurrence of a natural or human-induced physical event or trend that may cause loss of life, injury, or other health impacts, as well as damage and loss to property, infrastructure, livelihoods, service provision, ecosystems, and environmental resources. ([IPCC AR6II SPM](#), p. 5)

Human security

Human security, in the context of climate change, is “a condition that exists when the vital core of human lives is protected, and when people have the freedom and capacity to live with dignity”. ([IPCC, 2014](#))

IFRC

International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies

ILO

International Labour Organization

Impacts

Effects on natural and human systems (e.g. effects on lives, livelihoods, health, ecosystems, economies, societies, cultures, services, and infrastructure) due to the interaction of climate changes or hazardous climate events occurring within a specific time period and the vulnerability of an exposed society or system. Impacts are the manifestation of risk. ([IPCC AR5II SPM](#), p. 5)

Inter state war

War between states, in which states fight other states

Intercommunal war

Violence between individuals of a community who are unrelated, and who may or may not know each other, generally taking place outside the home driven by tensions over access to water and grazing land for cattle.

Interpersonal violence

Violence between family members and intimate partners, usually, though not exclusively, taking place in the home

Intersectionality

The complex, cumulative way in which the effects of multiple forms of discrimination (such as racism, sexism, and classism) combine, overlap, or intersect especially in the experiences of mar-

ginalized individuals or groups ([Merriam-Webster](#)).

Intersex people

Intersex people or inter people have sex characteristics that are more diverse than the binary concept of male / female as defined by the medical system suggests. There is a wide range of different intersex conditions, some becoming apparent at birth, others later in life. With an estimated share of up to 1.7 % of the population, the size of the intersex community might compare to the quantity of red-haired people in the world.

IOM

International Organization for Migration

LEG

Least Developed Countries Expert Group

Lesbians and gays

People whose sexual orientation is typically understood as towards people of the same gender.

LGBTQI+

An umbrella term commonly used, especially in the so-called Global North.

The acronym refers to

- [Lesbians and gays](#)
- [Bisexual people](#)
- [Transgender people](#)
- [Queer people](#)
- [Intersex people](#)
- The “+” in the LGBTQI+ acronym is used to symbolize and explain a number of different gender identities and sexual orientations that are not already present in the lettered acronym.

People in the Global East and South often tend to refer to themselves as sexual minorities.

Migrant

An umbrella term, not defined under international law, reflecting the common lay understanding of a person who moves away from his or her place of usual residence, whether within a country or across an international border, temporarily or permanently, and for a variety of reasons. The term includes a number of well-defined legal categories of people, such as migrant workers; persons whose particular types of movements are legally-defined, such as smuggled migrants; as well as those whose status or means of movement are not specifically defined under international law, such as international students. ([IOM, About Migration](#))

Migration

Mobility when people have a reason and the necessary resources and capabilities to move. It is usually a decision taken by an individual or family.

- ▶ IOM Definition of migration: “*The movement of persons away from their place of usual residence, either across an international border or within a State.*” ([IOM, 2019](#))
- ▶ Climate-induced migration is usually internal, i.e. within a country. Even when people cross borders, most people migrate regionally.

Migration governance

The combined frameworks of legal norms, laws and regulations, policies and traditions as well as organizational structures (subnational, national, regional and international) and the relevant processes that shape and regulate States' approaches with regard to migration in all its forms, addressing rights and responsibilities and promoting international cooperation. ([IOM, 2019](#))

Migration management

The management and implementation of the whole set of activities primarily by States within national systems or through bilateral and multilateral cooperation, concerning all aspects of migration and the mainstreaming of migration considerations into public policies. The term refers to planned approaches to the implementation and operationalization of policy, legislative and administrative frameworks, developed by the institutions in charge of migration. ([IOM, 2019](#))

National adaptation plans

National Adaptation Plans were introduced in 2010. They consider how to mainstream climate change adaptation into state level planning. As such they are relevant for avoiding displacement and capitalising on migration or planned relocation.

Non-binary people

An umbrella term to describe a person whose gender identity is outside of the woman / man binary.

Planned relocation

A planned process in which persons or groups of persons move or are assisted to move away from their homes or places of temporary residence, are settled in a new location, and provided with the conditions for rebuilding their lives ([UNHCR, 2015](#), p. 5)

Queer people

Queer people whose sexual orientation is not heterosexual and/or whose gender identity is non-binary or differs from their sex assigned at birth.

Safe, orderly and regular migration

Movement of persons in keeping both with the laws and regulations governing exit from, entry and return to and stay in States and with States' international law obligations, in a manner in which the human dignity and well-being of migrants are upheld, their rights are respected, protected and fulfilled and the risks associated with the movement of people are acknowledged and mitigated. ([IOM, 2019](#))

Securitisation

An understanding of migration which tends to view it negatively as a threat to receiving areas as a risk to resources or sovereignty

Sensitivity

... is determined by those factors that directly affect the consequences of a hazard. Sensitivity may include physical attributes of a system (e.g. building material of houses, type of soil on agriculture fields), social, economic and cultural attributes (e.g. age structure, income structure). ([GIZ and EURAC, 2017](#))

Sex

Biological and physiological characteristics that define men and women, such as anatomy, physiology, genes, and hormones (Gender CC).

Sexual orientation

An individual's sexual orientation is the gender to which a person feels drawn emotionally, physically and/or sexually (GIZ).

Social conflict

Nonviolent struggle between groups, organisations and communities over values, interests, resources, and influence or power

Soft law

A phenomenon in international relations covering all those social rules generated by State(s) or other subjects of international law which are not legally binding but which are nevertheless of special legal relevance. (IOM, 2019)

Task Force on Displacement

The Task Force on Displacement was established at the COP21 in Paris to develop recommendations for integrated approaches to avert, minimize and address displacement related to the adverse impacts of climate change. (UNFCCC, 2021)

Transgender people

Transgender people or short trans people, for whom the gender they live and identify with does not correlate with the sex they were assigned at birth. Being transgender is about gender identity (i.e. how people feel and identify) and expression (i.e. how people express themselves through appearance). The terms used can differ, depending on the gender a person identifies with. Some transgender persons identify as transmen or transwomen, others do not. There are diverse regional names and concepts for trans identities.

Trapped populations

Trapped populations are those unable to move away from situations of environmental risk, usually because they lack the means to migrate (adapted from [Foresight: Migration and Global Environmental Change, 2011](#)). An alternative term for trapped populations is involuntary immobility.

UNDP

United Nations Development Programme

UNFCCC

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change

UNHCR

The UN Refugee Agency (formerly the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees)

Vulnerability

The propensity or predisposition to be adversely affected. Vulnerability encompasses a variety of concepts and elements, including sensitivity or susceptibility to harm and lack of capacity to cope and adapt. ([IPCC AR6II SPM](#), p. 5)

Warsaw International Mechanism

The Warsaw International Mechanism (WIM) for Loss and Damage associated with Climate Change Impacts (Loss and Damage Mechanism) was Established at the COP19 (November 2013)

in Warsaw, Poland to address loss and damage associated with impacts of climate change, including extreme events and slow onset events, in developing countries that are particularly vulnerable to the adverse effects of climate change. ([UNFCCC, 2022](#))

WIM Excom

Executive Committee of the Warsaw International Mechanism for Loss and Damage

YOUNGO

Children and Youth constituency of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change