

IOM OUTLOOK ON MIGRATION, ENVIRONMENT, AND CLIMATE CHANGE



International Organization for Migration (IOM)

The opinions expressed in the report are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of the International Organization for Migration (IOM). The designations employed and the presentation of material throughout the report do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of IOM concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area, or of its authorities, or concerning its frontiers or boundaries.

IOM is committed to the principle that humane and orderly migration benefits migrants and society. As an intergovernmental organization, IOM acts with its partners in the international community to: assist in meeting the operational challenges of migration; advance understanding of migration issues; encourage social and economic development through migration; and uphold the human dignity and well-being of migrants.

Publisher: International Organization for Migration
17 route des Morillons
P.O. Box 17
1211 Geneva 19
Switzerland
Tel.: +41 22 717 91 11
Fax: +41 22 798 61 50
E-mail: hq@iom.int
Website: www.iom.int

© 2014 International Organization for Migration (IOM)

Cover photo: Mongolia, 2011. An abandoned *gher* submerged by snow. This *gher* rises close to the Tsamba family's one and it has been left by a herding family after a snowstorm in the proximity of Ulziit village. In 2010, during one of the harsher *dzuds* (summer droughts followed by extremely harsh winters), more than 8 million sheep, cows, horses and camels died in Mongolia so around 20,000 herdsmen had no choice but to migrate towards Ulaanbaatar.
© Alessandro Grassani

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system, or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording, or otherwise without the prior written permission of the publisher.

IOM OUTLOOK ON MIGRATION, ENVIRONMENT, AND CLIMATE CHANGE



International Organization for Migration (IOM)

CONTENTS

Acknowledgements	v
List of acronyms	vii
Foreword	ix
IOM advocacy points	xi
Introduction.....	1
Brief 1: IOM's Approach to Migration, Environment and Climate Change	5
Brief 2: IOM Institutional Engagement on Migration, Environment and Climate Change	11
Brief 3: Terminology on Migration, Environment and Climate Change	21
Brief 4: Legal Frameworks and Challenges.....	27
Brief 5: State of Knowledge on Migration, Environment and Climate Change	37
Brief 6: Policy Coherence	47
Brief 7: Environmental Migration and Migration Policy	55
Brief 8: Environmental Migration and Climate Change Adaptation Policy	65
Brief 9: Environmental Migration and Development Policy.....	73
Brief 10: Environmental Migration and Disaster Risk Reduction Policy	79
Brief 11: Environmental Migration and Humanitarian Policy.....	87
Brief 12: Environmental Migration and Security Policy.....	95
Brief 13: A Gender Approach to Environmental Migration	103
Brief 14: IOM Operational Responses to Environmental Migration and Displacement	111

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

IOM Outlook on Migration, Environment and Climate Change is an institutional publication led by the Migration, Environment and Climate Change (MECC) team of the International Organization for Migration (IOM), drawing on the work undertaken throughout the organization.

This publication was prepared by Alex Flavell, Consultant, and edited by Mariam Traore Chazalnoël, Associate Expert, MECC.

This publication was initiated and supervised by Dina Ionesco, Focal Point, MECC.

We would like to thank Daria Mokhnacheva, Project Officer, MECC, author of the Loss and Damage section and of Brief 4 and acknowledge her overall contributions to the publication.

Thanks also to Clara Crimella, author of Brief 13; Lorenzo Guadagno for conceptual work and reviews of Brief 10; and Alice Sironi for conceptual work and reviews of Brief 4.

Brief 14 is directly based on the IOM Disaster Risk Reduction and Resilience Compendium (2013) prepared by Lorenzo Guadagno and Patrice Quesada under the supervision of Louis Hoffmann.

We are grateful to colleagues who have provided support and inputs to the publication: Jo de Backer, Barbara Bendandi, Lee Kanthoul, Mark Koski, Sieun Lee, Susanne Melde, Nenette Motus, Yana Nazarova, Kelly O'Connor, Serena Odianose, Alexandra Tapsoba, Amanda Van Dort, Elizabeth Warn and Choa Youn.

This publication benefited from the work undertaken by IOM staff throughout the years on conceptualizing the migration, environment and climate change nexus, in particular: Christine Aghazarm, Gervais Appave, Philippe Boncour, Shahidul Haque, Michele Klein Solomon, Frank Laczko, Alina Narusova, Karoline Popp, Patrice Quesada and Daniel Salmon.

We are also thankful to IOM's Publication Unit for their copyediting, proofreading and layout work.

This work was made possible by the support of Jill Helke, Director of the International Cooperation and Partnerships Department of IOM.

Special thanks to Alessandro Grassani, photographer and author of the pictures featured in this publication. These photos are part of his project entitled "Environmental Migrants: The Last Illusion".

LIST OF ACRONYMS

ACBC	African Capacity Building Centre
ACP Observatory	African, Caribbean and Pacific Observatory on Migration
ADB	Asian Development Bank
APMEN	Asia-Pacific Migration and Environment Network
AU	African Union
CAP	Consolidated Appeals Process
CCCM	Camp Coordination and Camp Management
CCEMA	Climate Change, Environment and Migration Alliance
CDR	Call Detail Record
CVF	Climate Vulnerable Forum
DRR	Disaster Risk Reduction
DTM	Displacement Tracking Matrix
EC	European Commission
EU	European Union
GAMM	Global Approach to Migration and Mobility
GFMD	Global Forum on Migration and Development
GMG	Global Migration Group
HFA	Hyogo Framework for Action
IASC	Inter-Agency Standing Committee
IDM	International Dialogue on Migration
IDMC	Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre
IOM	International Organization for Migration
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
MECC	Migration, Environment and Climate Change
MECLEP	Migration, Environment and Climate Change: Evidence for Policy
MCOF	Migration Crisis Operational Framework
NAPA	National Adaptation Programme of Action
NRC	Norwegian Refugee Council
NWP	Nairobi Work Programme
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
RPG	Refugee Policy Group
SCPF	Standing Committee on Programmes and Finance
SIDS	Small Island Developing States

TCLM	Temporary and Circular Labour Migration
TPS	Temporary Protection Status
UK Foresight	United Kingdom Government Office for Science (Foresight)
UN	United Nations
UNCCD	United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification
UNECE	United Nations Economic Commission for Europe
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
UNISDR	United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction
UNHCR	(Office of the) United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WHO	World Health Organization
WMO	World Meteorological Organization
WCDRR	World Conference on Disaster Risk Reduction

FOREWORD

In the past two decades, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) has developed a comprehensive policy, research and operational programme on migration, environment and climate change. The Organization's interest in migration, environment and climate change stems from its dedication—outlined in the IOM Strategy—to explore emerging themes related to migration governance. Paying attention to these “new” issues is part of IOM's commitment to supporting Member States find innovative solutions by turning challenges into opportunities. It is widely recognized that human mobility, in both its forced and voluntary forms, is increasingly impacted by environmental and climatic factors and that migration in turn also impacts the environment. The *Fifth Assessment Report* of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) highlights the importance and complexity of human mobility in the context of climate change.

This publication is a resource for specialists and generalists alike: it brings together the resources on migration, environment and climate change that IOM has developed over the years. The result is a rich overview of the Organization's understanding of migration, environment and climate change, emphasized by examples of activities and key messages.

One of the key messages of this publication is that planned, safe, dignified and orderly migration is a viable adaptation strategy to cope with the adverse effects of environmental and climate change, foster development, increase resilience to disasters and reduce environmental pressure. In a world where more people than ever are on the move, there is an urgent need to include migration and migrants into efforts to develop a green and sustainable development agenda.

Second, the publication emphasizes IOM's commitment to continue to work on human mobility, climate and environment, with a priority to improve the evidence base, build capacities and enhance policy coherence. These efforts will support States in tailoring policies that respond to migrants' needs. In this regard, IOM will continue to support our Member States, policymakers and beneficiaries with practical approaches that have measurable impacts.

IOM's field presence – more than 480 locations in some 150 countries – means direct contact with our beneficiaries. This experience has convinced us that migration can be an opportunity to adapt to new environmental realities. To this end, IOM will continue to promote a balanced and gender-sensitive message on human mobility – its risks and prospects for individuals and communities. The overall objective is to support governments and authorities with multilateral responses and enhance their capacities to deal with complex migration management issues in the context of climate change impacts on States and communities.

Third, I am particularly committed to have environmental and climate challenges and opportunities better integrated throughout our activities, as well as to bring human mobility in the other significant policy processes. It is often difficult to isolate environmental and climatic factors; hence, our difficulty to tackle “environmental” migration in isolation from other forms of migration. Yet, this is precisely why migration clearly fits in all the debates on development, disaster risk reduction, climate adaptation and humanitarian affairs.

I am heartened by the fact that migration, population displacement and planned relocation now feature in the climate text of the 2010 Cancun Adaptation Framework, but we need to go further. IOM's strong message is that climate issues must be part of migration policy debates and human mobility considerations must be part of climate negotiations. Part of conveying this message requires making the migration, environment and climate nexus more visible – precisely what this publication does.

Finally, I am grateful to all IOM offices and departments that contributed to this publication, and particularly the Migration, Environment and Climate Change team in the International Cooperation and Partnerships Department of IOM for producing this publication.


William Lacy Swing
Director General



IOM ADVOCACY POINTS

IOM STRATEGIC AIMS

Governments and authorities are empowered and policymakers' and practitioners' capacities are enhanced to address complex migration, environment and climate change matters

Responses to support migrants and vulnerable communities are enabled and improved

Human mobility matters are integrated in key policy areas dealing with climate, environment and land

OUR KEY MESSAGES

The International Organization for Migration (IOM) has four key messages for effective action on the topic of human mobility in the context of environmental and climatic changes:

1. Environmental and climate-induced migration is a multicausal and multidimensional phenomenon.

- Environmental and climatic factors are both drivers and pull factors, and they are mediated by economic, social, political and demographic aspects. All these different dimensions together define a community and an individual's resilience and vulnerability.
- The migration, environment and climate change nexus poses a "double sensitivity challenge". Climate negotiations are politically delicate, even more so when questions of environmental migration are being examined. Migration is also a highly complex topic and sensitivities regarding inter-State collaboration on migration are persistent.

2. Talking of migration in the context of climate change means giving a human face to the climate change debate.

- More emphasis needs to be placed on the migrants themselves, their families and the communities, understanding their strategies and what mobility options are available to them.
- Policymakers also need to be empowered at the national, local, or regional and international levels to be able to address the complex nexus of migration, environment and climate.

3. Human mobility can be read as a barometer of both resilience and vulnerability.

- Mobility strategies of migrants are not inherently "positive" or "negative".
- Mobility can save lives, enhance resilience and reduce risk – and it can also make people vulnerable and expose them to new risks.

- Not being able to move out of affected areas can also be a greater sign of vulnerability, as trapped populations often have fewer options to cope with environmental threats.

4. Migration is an adaptation option that can be supported by policy action.

- History provides us with many examples of individuals and communities using migration to adapt to changing environmental conditions. In some contexts, migration can constitute an

important and positive adaptation strategy” that can be supported by policy action.

- It is key to develop the evidence base on how migration contributes to adaptation in the current context and how it could contribute to addressing future environmental change.
- Ensuring that the contributions of migrants and diasporas – such as remittances, knowledge and investments – can serve adaptation purposes is critical.

IOM OBJECTIVES

The Organization pursues three broad objectives in managing environmental migration, intervening at each stage of the migration cycle:



IOM is participating at the highest level in several global policy processes, advocating in favour of the following seven points for action, or the 7As:

1. **Adaptation**: Giving prominence to the potentiality of migration as a positive adaptation strategy, taking into consideration disaster risk reduction, climate change adaptation, sustainable development and resilience implications;
2. **Abilities**: Calling attention to the capacities needed at the policy and community levels to respond to issues associated with human mobility in the context of climate change and environmental degradation;
3. **Alliances**: Encouraging partnerships and collaboration among sending and receiving countries as well as across policy areas to ensure that a wide range of policy options is developed;
4. **Action**: Highlighting actions already being taken and existing good practices to encourage new ones;
5. **Assessments**: Assessing and evaluating existing data for evidence-based policymaking;
6. **Assets**: Accessing funds to develop activities on migration and adaptation and harnessing the potential of migration-related sources of financing, for example, remittances;
7. **Advocacy**: Giving a voice to environmental migrants.

IOM RECOMMENDATIONS

1

Integrate environmental and climatic factors in all migration management policies and programmes.

2

Mainstream human mobility into related policy areas (development, disaster risk reduction, humanitarian, adaptation, security, etc.).

3

Environmental and climate-induced migration need attention as a stand-alone area of work.



Nairobi, Kenya, 2014. A view of Kibera where many environmental migrants go to live, fleeing their lands because of climate change and drought. © Alessandro Grassani

INTRODUCTION

It is now recognized that the question of human mobility in relation to climate change and environmental degradation has been gaining increasing prominence in the public and policy debates. The past few years have witnessed the emergence of a plethora of academic literature, policy discussions and forums as well as operational responses to a phenomenon that cuts across many different thematic and policy areas.

The International Organization for Migration (IOM), as the leading intergovernmental migration agency, has been at the forefront of operational, research, policy and advocacy efforts, seeking to bring environmental migration to the heart of international, regional and national concerns, in collaboration with its Member States, observers and partners.

In this perspective, *IOM Outlook on Migration, Environment and Climate Change* aims to bring together in one easy-to-access reference document the knowledge accrued by the Organization and to present IOM's role, understanding and approach to environmental migration.

It is intended to be a reference publication, building on IOM's expertise on the topic at policy, research, international migration law, advocacy and operational levels.

IOM Outlook on Migration, Environment and Climate Change:

- Takes stock of IOM's action and institutional approach on the topic;
- Gives visibility to the work of the organization on the topic and serves as a knowledge-sharing tool for this work; and
- Provides insights into the state of the knowledge, legal debates, and links between environmental migration and other policy areas such as adaptation, development, humanitarian response, human rights, disaster risk reduction and security.

IOM Outlook on Migration, Environment and Climate Change targets a broad external audience, including but not limited to policymakers, practitioners, researchers, international agencies, private sector, donors, students and think tanks.

HOW TO USE IOM OUTLOOK ON MIGRATION, ENVIRONMENT AND CLIMATE CHANGE

- This publication is divided into 14 Briefs, each treating one key environmental migration issue.
- Each thematic section can be a stand-alone document, highlighting main messages, concrete examples and providing key resources on each theme.
- It can be downloaded by section or as a single publication.
- This reference publication will be regularly updated in its online version.



Dhaka, Bangladesh, 2011. View of Korail from the lake of Gulshan. © Alessandro Grassani

BRIEF 1: IOM'S APPROACH TO MIGRATION, ENVIRONMENT AND CLIMATE CHANGE

OUR KEY MESSAGES

- The movement of people is and will continue to be affected by natural disasters and environmental degradation. Climate change is expected to have major impacts on human mobility.
- Environmental migration may take many complex forms: forced and voluntary, temporary and permanent, internal and international.
- The concept of “vulnerability” needs to be put at the centre of current and future responses to environmental migration. The most vulnerable may be those who are unable to or do not move (trapped populations).
- Environmental migration should not be understood as a wholly negative or positive outcome – migration can amplify existing vulnerabilities and can also allow people to build resilience.

KEY IOM RESOURCES

- ➔ IOM Infosheet: [IOM Perspectives on Migration, Environment and Climate Change](#) (2014)
- ➔ *Migration, Environment and Climate Change: Evidence for Policy – Glossary* (2014)
- ➔ *Compendium of IOM Activities in Disaster Risk Reduction and Resilience* (2013)
- ➔ *Migration, Environment and Climate Change: Assessing the Evidence* (2009)
- ➔ Frequently Asked Questions on Environmental Migration (2011)
- ➔ Discussion Note: [Migration and the Environment MC/INF/288](#) (2007)

Framing the issue: What are the linkages between human mobility, environment and climate?

Environmental change and natural disasters have always been major drivers of migration. However, climate change predictions for the twenty-first century indicate that even more people are expected to be on the move as weather-related disasters such as extreme precipitations and temperatures become more frequent and intense (IPCC, 2014), and changes to climate conditions impact livelihoods.

This is even more likely if prompt action is not taken to reduce emissions through mitigation measures and make the necessary preparations through adaptation measures.

Climate change is expected to increase the frequency and intensity of sudden-onset disasters such as storms and floods, and also to worsen the impacts of slow-onset disasters such as droughts. It will also exacerbate gradual processes of environmental degradation, for example, desertification, ocean acidification and erosion. Some phenomena like sea-level rise and glacial melt linked to rising temperatures will combine both slow- and sudden-onset effects. Finally, non-weather events and processes – for instance, earthquakes, tsunamis and pollution – can also lead to environmental migration.

Gradual environmental degradation is expected to cause most environmental migration in the long term, but all of these phenomena may result in large-scale population movements.

These issues are already posing major challenges at all levels and will require concerted responses.

Making predictions about environmental migration is a complex undertaking, involving numerous variables. It is often extremely difficult to isolate climate change and environmental factors as the sole drivers behind the decision to move.

Rather than attempting to classify migrants in one category or another, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) puts the notion of vulnerability at the centre of its conceptual and operational efforts.

Vulnerability is a key concept, which takes account of exposure to environmental factors and capacity to adapt. At the macro level, vulnerability will also depend on global trends such as demographic pressure, development models, and the actions taken by governments and the global community to mitigate and prepare for climate change itself. At the individual level, various additional factors will intervene – in the case of slow processes of environmental degradation, for example, much will depend on the resources available for migration and perceptions of livelihood opportunities elsewhere.

However, this inherent uncertainty does not negate the need for action now.

A note on the terminology used within the document

IOM considers migration in its different forms – forced, voluntary, circular, temporary, seasonal, permanent and return movements. We also acknowledge the increased use of “human mobility” within the international debate.

Since environmental migration is an emerging field of study, specific terminology is still being refined. Currently, no commonly agreed definition of environmental migration exists (refer to Brief 3 for a discussion on terminology on migration, environment and climate change, and to Brief 4 for an in-depth discussion on legal terminology aspects).

IOM has developed its own working definition destined to evolve in line with new knowledge and policy orientation. In order to guide the debate, IOM produced *Migration, Environment and Climate Change: Evidence for Policy – Glossary*, which covers

terms that can be employed when considering human mobility in the context of environmental stressors.

THEMATIC BOX: Defining environmental migrants

IOM’s broad working definition seeks to capture the complexity of the issues at stake:

Environmental migrants are persons or groups of persons who, for compelling reasons of sudden or progressive changes in the environment that adversely affect their lives or living conditions, are obliged to leave their homes or choose to do so, either temporarily or permanently, and who move either within their country or abroad.

(Discussion Note: Migration and the Environment MC/INF/288, prepared for the Ninety-fourth Session of the IOM Council, 27–30 November 2007, Geneva)

What is environmental migration and who is an environmental migrant?

Environmental migration can take many forms: sometimes forced, sometimes voluntary, often somewhere often in a grey zone somewhere in between.

It can be permanent or temporary, local or international, although it is predicted that most environmentally induced migration is likely to take place internally. Developing countries will be the most affected, as they often combine high exposure to climate change effects with a low adaptive capacity.

Too often seen only through the negative lens of forced migration, such as in cases of displacement due to disasters, environmental migration can also constitute a positive response to environmental stressors, for example, as a form of adaptation strategy in the face of climate change.

IOM promotes the balanced message that, inherently, migration is not “good” or “bad”. Rather, the impacts of migration – when individuals and communities do not have any emergency plans or are not prepared – can, in some cases, increase the

vulnerability of the individuals and communities. In other situations when migration allows for income diversification, for instance, it can constitute an adaptation strategy and contribute to building resilience.

Who are the most vulnerable?

It is important to keep in mind that the cost of migration can be high. Often, the most vulnerable are those who do not possess the economic and social capital to move (trapped populations).

Any policy and operational response should take into account the needs of these trapped populations who are unable to move out of harm's way and/or to seek new opportunities.

Sources

Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC)
2014 *Fifth Assessment Report (AR5)*. IPCC,
Geneva.





Dacope district, Bangladesh, 2011. Due to the cyclone Aila, which hit Bangladesh in May 2009, thousands of people were still displaced in the Dacope district in 2011, which was once a farmland and was dried up due to the infiltration of seawater brought by the cyclone Aila and by shrimp farming. The lack of drinking water is the major problem of people living in the area. © Alessandro Grassani

BRIEF 2: IOM INSTITUTIONAL ENGAGEMENT ON MIGRATION, ENVIRONMENT AND CLIMATE CHANGE

OUR KEY MESSAGES

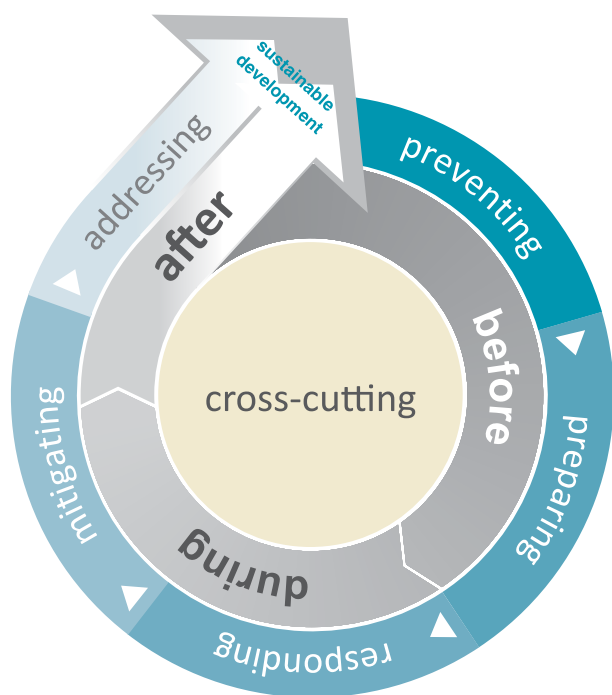
- The work of the International Organization for Migration (IOM) is guided by three objectives:
 - » To minimize forced and unmanaged migration as much as possible;
 - » Where forced migration does occur, to ensure assistance and protection for those affected and to seek durable solutions;
 - » To facilitate the role of migration as an adaptation strategy to climate change.
- IOM's institutional engagement on the topic has strengthened over the past two decades, with its Member States increasingly supporting action in this domain.
- IOM relies on its extensive field presence and its wide networks of partners to support policy efforts.

KEY IOM RESOURCES

- ➔ IOM's Role and Activities relating to Migration, the Environment and Climate Change S14/8 (2014)
- ➔ *Compendium of IOM Activities in Disaster Risk Reduction and Resilience* (2013)
- ➔ International Dialogue on Migration No. 18: *Climate Change, Environmental Degradation and Migration* (2012)
- ➔ IOM Infosheet: *Disaster Risk Reduction and Climate Change Adaptation in IOM's Response to Environmental Migration* (2011)
- ➔ *Disaster Risk Reduction, Climate Change Adaptation and Environmental Migration: A Policy Perspective* (2010)
- ➔ *Climate Change, Environmental Degradation and Migration: Addressing Vulnerabilities and Harnessing Opportunities* (2009)
- ➔ *Compendium of IOM's Activities in Migration, Climate Change and the Environment* (2009)
- ➔ International Dialogue on Migration No. 10 – *Expert Seminar: Migration and the Environment* (2008)
- ➔ Draft Report on the *Ninety-fourth Session of the IOM Council MC/2239/Rev1* (2008)
- ➔ Discussion Note: *Migration and the Environment MC/INF/288* (2007)
- ➔ The Berne Initiative: *International Agenda for Migration Management* (2005)
- ➔ *Environmentally-induced Population Displacements and Environmental Impacts Resulting from Mass Migration* (1996)

What are IOM's objectives in addressing environmental migration?

In line with IOM's comprehensive approach to human mobility, the Organization pursues three broad objectives in managing environmental migration, intervening at each stage of the migration cycle: a) to minimize forced and unmanaged migration as much as possible; b) where forced migration does occur, to ensure assistance and protection for those affected and to seek durable solutions; and c) to facilitate the role of migration as an adaptation strategy to climate change.



IOM and environmental migration: A long-standing institutional engagement

IOM's interest in this issue is not new. The Organization's policy and research activities on migration and the environment date back to the early 1990s. IOM and the Refugee Policy Group (RPG) held a conference on migration and the environment in 1992 in Switzerland. IOM's first publication on this topic, *Migration and the Environment*, is from the same year and was followed by three publications on the same theme in 1996, 1997 and 1998. This theme has been discussed in various meetings of its governing

bodies over the past years, notably during the Ninety-fourth Session of the IOM Council. IOM's activities in this field have been discussed in IOM's governing bodies meetings in 2007 ([Ninety-fourth Session of the IOM Council](#)), 2008 (Third Session of the Standing Committee on Programmes and Finance (SCPF)), 2011 ([IDM workshop](#)) and 2014 ([Fourteenth SCPF Session and 105th Session of the IOM Council](#)).

IOM is one of the founding members of the [Climate Change, Environment and Migration Alliance \(CCEMA\)](#), a multi-stakeholder global partnership launched in 2009 that brings together key stakeholders across policy areas, with a view to mainstreaming migration considerations into the environment, development, and climate change agendas and vice versa.

A landmark was reached in 2011, when, under its International Dialogue on Migration (IDM) Programme, IOM engaged with its Member States directly on the theme of environmental migration. [Policy recommendations in the form of a Chair's statement](#) were issued. In 2014, as a sign of the growing relevance of this issue within the Organization, IOM Member States decided to further discuss the topic of environmental migration during the [Fourteenth SCPF Session](#) and the [105th Session of the IOM Council](#) through a high-level panel.

IOM has contributed to the efforts on migration, environment and climate of the Global Migration Group (GMG), composed of 16 international agencies. The GMG released in 2011 a [joint statement on the impact of climate change on migration](#) and produced in 2014 a publication on [migration and youth](#), with two chapters dedicated to climate issues. IOM has been prominent in efforts to coordinate research and data collection on this theme, such as through its co-chair role in the [Global Migration Group's Working Group on Data and Research](#), or as the implementing organization for the [African, Caribbean and Pacific Observatory on Migration \(ACP Observatory\)](#). However, improving understanding of how climate change will impact migration remains a key challenge, as well as the need for more comprehensive and comparable datasets.

IOM contributes to relevant global negotiations and political processes, advocating in favour of recognition of the linkages between environment

and mobility. IOM submits technical inputs to the [United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change \(UNFCCC\)](#) Secretariat, as an intergovernmental organization, as an Observer to the UNFCCC, as part of the [Inter-Agency Standing Committee \(IASC\)](#),¹ as one of the agencies working on [Social Dimensions of Climate Change](#) and as a member of the Advisory Group on Climate Change and Human Mobility, gathering a number of organizations with shared interest in human mobility and climate. IOM has been an Observer to the [Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change \(IPCC\)](#) since 2014.

IOM is committed to the disaster risk reduction agenda to prevent displacement, reduce risks during displacement, build resilience and support migration as an adaptation strategy. The organization works closely with the [United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction \(UNISDR\)](#) and other partners in the High-level Committee on Programmes (HLCP) for disaster risk reduction and resilience activities and within the inter-agency Working Group on Disaster Risk Reduction.

Activities are in line with the United Nations Plan of Action on Disaster Risk Reduction for Resilience, which was adopted in 2013 by the United Nations System Chief Executives Board for Coordination. IOM has contributed to the Global Platform for Disaster Risk Reduction and is making technical, research and policy contributions to the process for establishing, in 2015, the successor to the Hyogo Framework for Action.

IOM contributed to events such as the Global Leadership Meeting on Population Dynamics (2013) and the Asia-Pacific Preparatory Meeting for the General Assembly High-level Dialogue on International Migration and Development (2013), which coincide with institutional efforts to bring human mobility onto the post-2015 United Nations development agenda.

IOM contributed to the Climate Summit 2014 through the HLCP Working Group on Climate Change and provided inputs to the third International Conference on Small Island Developing States (SIDS).

Why is IOM interested in environmental migration?

The Organization strives to identify emerging migration issues and bring them visibility for effective action. Environmental migration issues grew more prominent within IOM as increasing attention was paid to the climate debate,² and, in parallel, a greater awareness of migration issues was developed at the global political level.

IOM's Constitution and strategic areas of focus call for the Organization to "promote, facilitate, and support regional and global debate and dialogue on migration" with a view to proposing relevant migration management solutions to its Member States. With this in mind, IOM has greatly expanded the scope of its activities related to environmental migration in the past years, recognizing the necessity to step up efforts in this still emerging policy area.

The IOM specificity: Linking operational and policy efforts

Thanks to its large field presence and its extensive project base, IOM has decades of experience working with populations affected by natural disasters and a changing environment. The response to the devastation caused by hurricane Mitch in Honduras in 1998 represented a milestone for the Organization with the delivery of the first large-scale operational response to environmentally induced displacement. More recent examples of major IOM interventions include the Haiti earthquake in 2010 and the typhoon Haiyan intervention in the Philippines in 2013. In addition to humanitarian emergency responses, IOM conducts activities related to issues of long-term environmental degradation, focusing on adaptation or mitigation measures. Finally, IOM collects data in the field, which contributes to building a solid evidence base for policymaking (for more information about IOM operational response, see Brief 14).

1 The IASC is the primary mechanism for inter-agency coordination of humanitarian assistance. More information can be found at: <http://www.humanitarianinfo.org/iasc/>. The IASC submissions to the UNFCCC secretariat can be found at: <http://www.iom.int/cms/climateandmigration>.

2 The IPCC's [First Assessment Report \(AR1\)](#) was completed in 1990 and was crucial in bringing visibility to the climate debate. In its recently issued [Fifth Assessment Report \(AR5\)](#), the IPCC refers on several occasions to human mobility and climate change.

The Organization has recognized the necessity of supporting field-based responses through internal policy efforts. In November 2012, the IOM Council adopted the [Migration Crisis Operational Framework \(MCOF\)](#), which provides the Organization with a systematic response framework for addressing, inter alia, the migration implications of natural disasters. Furthermore, IOM's Regional Offices have led the development of regional strategies, which address environmental migration as one of the thematic areas.

Enhancing partnerships for concrete action

Due to the cross-cutting nature of the migration, environment and climate change nexus, IOM engages actively in a range of partnerships to address the diverse challenges. Within the framework of the [IASC](#) – which coordinates humanitarian relief globally – IOM has a lead role in assisting those displaced by natural disasters through the [Camp Coordination and Camp Management \(CCCM\) Cluster](#), providing life-saving assistance to millions of displaced in camp settings.

IOM is engaged in the Advisory Group on Climate Change and Human Mobility, which brings together technical expertise from key UN agencies and international non-governmental organizations. The Group is especially active in the context of the international negotiations under the [UNFCCC](#), as it provides technical inputs to its various bodies and to negotiators.

Specific memorandums of understanding have been signed with key partners such as the [United Nations Environment Programme \(UNEP\)](#). IOM has also recently signed agreements with institutions such as the [Climate Vulnerable Forum \(CVF\)](#), the [World Meteorological Organization \(WMO\)](#) and the [United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification \(UNCCD\)](#).

IOM is also working actively with regional organizations. One of these is the [Asian Development Bank \(ADB\)](#), with which it organized two [Policy Dialogues](#) in 2011 and undertook common advocacy at the Asia-Pacific Climate Change Adaptation Forums in 2012 and 2013. IOM and the ADB also collaborated in publishing [Addressing Climate Change and Migration in Asia and the Pacific](#) in 2012.

IOM's cooperation with the European Commission is being strengthened through technical input to recommendations on enhancing the implementation of the Commission Staff Working Document on Climate Change, Environmental Degradation, and Migration, the European Union Strategy on Adaptation to Climate Change (2013), the European Commission Communication on Maximising the Development Impact of Migration (May 2013) and the Action Plan for Resilience in Crisis Prone Countries 2013–2020. Cooperation efforts on this topic are in line with the EU–IOM Strategic Cooperation Framework.

IOM inputted to the UK Government Office for Science (Foresight) report on migration and global environmental change and organized together two capacity-building workshops to raise awareness among policymakers and to promote a multidisciplinary and multi-stakeholder approach to migration, environment and climate.

IOM has engaged with the State-led [Nansen Initiative](#), launched in 2012, which seeks to build consensus – in a bottom-up approach – among interested States about how best to address the protection needs of those displaced across borders in the context of sudden- and slow-onset disasters.³

THEMATIC BOX: The Nansen Initiative

The [Nansen Initiative on Disaster-Induced Cross-Border Displacement](#) was officially launched in 2012 in Geneva.

The Nansen Initiative Steering Group is co-chaired by the Government of Norway and the Government of Switzerland. Members include Australia, Bangladesh, Costa Rica, Germany, Kenya, Norway, Mexico, the Philippines and the Swiss Confederation. The Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and IOM are standing invitees to the Steering Group.

This State-led, bottom-up consultative process aims to build a consensus on key principles and elements relevant to the protection of persons displaced in the context of natural disasters across borders, notably through consultations at the regional and global levels.

³ See www.nanseninitiative.org. IOM is a standing invitee to the Steering Group and a member of the Consultative Committee.

The outcome of the Initiative, scheduled to end in 2015, should be “an agenda for the protection of people displaced across international borders in the context of natural disasters,” rather than a convention or soft law instrument.

As a standing invitee to the Initiative’s Steering Group, and a member of the Consultative Committee, IOM is contributing to the Nansen process at different levels and aims to continue expanding existing synergies.

More information on the work of the Initiative is available from www.nanseninitiative.org/.

Coordinated and coherent approaches are key elements to address the challenges posed. Different policymaking communities (humanitarian, development, environment and migration, to name but a few) should work together to ensure comprehensive planning and action. States need to also work together with international actors and local communities to ensure coordinated responses that respect the rights of those affected by environmental stressors, a need that becomes ever more pressing in the context of climate change.

THEMATIC BOX: The Climate Vulnerable Forum

The **CVF** is a semi-formal and non-exclusive partnership of governments of developing countries highly vulnerable to global climate change which since 2009 collaborate on addressing a variety of shared concerns. The CVF’s 2013–2015 Action Plan identified “migration and displacement” as one of six priority multilateral sectors for advancing legal and policy frameworks and tools to more effectively and equitably address climate change.

The **2011 Dhaka Ministerial Declaration** of the CVF called for an international dialogue for an appropriate framework to enhance understanding, cooperation and coordination with respect to climate change-induced migration and displacement, strengthening and complementing existing policies.

In 2012, the CVF Trust Fund (CVTF) was also established to further the implementation of priority activities together with participating intergovernmental organizations. IOM signed a memorandum of understanding with the CVTF in 2014.

IOM is committed to the three Outcomes that have been identified as priorities for the CVTF 2014–2016 Provisional Work Plan: Climate Negotiations Galvanized (Outcome 1); Precision and Knowledge Leveraged (Outcome 2); and Enhanced Means of Implementation and Partnerships (Outcome 3).

More information on CVF is available from <http://www.thecvf.org/web/climate-vulnerable-forum/>.

IOM IN ACTION: Reinforcing capacities of policymakers at the regional and national levels

IOM has launched a series of training events worldwide which are designed to: a) build capacity of policymakers and practitioners in order to factor migration into environmental, development and climate change adaptation strategies and policies, and vice versa, to include environmental concerns in migration management policies; and b) facilitate exchange of views among policymakers and practitioners.

The pilot regional training was held in the Asia-Pacific region (Seoul, Republic of Korea, March 2013); the second one took place in the sub-Saharan Africa region (Moshi, United Republic of Tanzania, March 2014). Both events gathered policymakers from ministries as diverse as migration, disaster management, climate change, environment and foreign affairs.

A national-level workshop was organized at the request of the Colombian Government in November 2013, and a regional training for South America was hosted by the Chilean Government in Santiago in October 2014.

Environmental migration issues are also addressed in training sessions of IOM on international migration law and on migration and development.

The training events aim to equip participants with a sound understanding of the dynamics of environmental migration and to provide space for dialogue across policy areas.

Building on this successful experience, IOM is developing a standardized training manual that can be used at the national or regional level. The training manual is being developed within the framework of Migration, Environment and Climate Change: Evidence for Policy (MECLEP), a project funded by the European Union. Additional training sessions at the national level are scheduled in 2015 in Dominican Republic, Haiti, Kenya, Mauritius, Papua New Guinea and Viet Nam.



IOM Institutional Developments

- 1992** First IOM "migration and the environment" publication
- 1998** First IOM response to large-scale disaster displacement (hurricane Mitch)
- 2006** IOM leads the Camp Management and Camp Coordination (CCCM) cluster in cases of natural disasters
- 2007** First Expert Seminar on Migration and the Environment (IOM and United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA))
Ninety-fourth IOM Council paper on migration and the environment
- 2008** IOM SCPP paper on migration and the environment
Creation of the Climate Change, Environment and Migration Alliance (CEEMA) (IOM, UNEP, United Nations University (UNU), Munich Re Foundation (MRF))
- 2009** First IOM compendium on environmental migration: over 500 projects conducted between 2000 and 2009
- 2011** International Dialogue on Migration (IDM), gathering 80 States
- 2012** Migration Crisis Operational Framework (MCOF)
- 2013** IOM offices survey on environmental migration: 53 offices
Second IOM compendium: over 250 projects between 2009 and 2013
All regional strategies feature migration, environment and climate change
- 2014** Migration, Environment and Climate: Evidence for Policy (MECLEP)
Migrants in Countries in Crisis Initiative (MICIC)
Joint submission inter-agency national adaptation plans (NAPs)
Joint inter-agency side events in all key processes and contributions via HLCP
SCPP: membership selects MECC for discussion
High-level Panel at the 105th Session of the IOM Council

International Developments

- 1990** First IPCC report
- 2006** Establishment of the cluster system and of the CCCM Cluster
- 2007** 4th IPCC Assessment Report
EACH-FOR Project, European Commission
- 2008** UNFCCC COP14 Poznań, first inter-agency side event on mobility
Intergovernmental Authority on Development for Eastern Africa (IGAD) refers to migration and environment
- 2009** UNFCCC COP15: Copenhagen Accord
United Nations Human Rights Council Resolution: human rights and climate change
- 2010** UNFCCC COP16 Cancun Paragraph 14F on migration
- 2011** UNFCCC COP17 Durban: Advances on Green Climate Fund and National Adaptation Plans (NAPs)
Global Migration Group (GMG) Statement on Migration and Climate
European Commission Consultation: climate change and migration
Dhaka Ministerial Declaration mentions "climate and migration"
Colombo Process mentions "migration, climate and the environment"
- 2012** UNFCCC COP18 Doha, Migration in Loss and Damage, paragraph 7 (a) (vi)
Launch of the Nansen Initiative
- 2013** CVF
EC Adaptation Strategy and working paper on climate change, environmental degradation and migration
UN High-level Dialogue on International Migration and Development
Resolution 46th, UN Commission on Population and Development (OP28) mentions "climate and migration"
UNFCCC COP19 Warsaw
- 2014** Fifth IPCC Report
UN SG Climate Summit
Small Islands Developing States conference
UNFCCC COP20 Lima

Sources

Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC)
1990 *First Assessment Report* (FAR). IPCC, Geneva.

2014 *Fifth Assessment Report* (AR5). IPCC, Geneva.

International Organization for Migration (IOM)

2011 The migration–climate change nexus. Conference of the Parties COP 17 and Conference of the Parties serving as the meeting of the Parties to the Kyoto Protocol (CMP).

2013 IOM Training on Migration and Environment. Available from <http://apmen.iom.int/en/research-database/item/118-iom-info-sheet-on-migration,-environment-and-climate-change-mecc>.

2014a Capacity-building activities on migration, environment and climate change. Training series on migration, environment and climate change, Geneva.

2014b Enhancing capacities of policymakers and practitioners on migration, environment and climate change in sub-Saharan Africa. Summary report of the Regional Training Workshop, United Republic of Tanzania.

2014c IOM mission and project database. Available from http://www.iom.int.vn/joomla/index.php?option=com_content&task=view&id=340&Itemid=294.

2014d Migration law. Available from <http://www.iom.int/cms/en/sites/iom/home/what-we-do/migration-law.html>.

2014e Migration and development. Available from <http://www.iom.int/cms/en/sites/iom/home/what-we-do/migration--development-1.html>.

2014f The Atlas of Environmental Migration. Available from <http://www.iom.int/newsletters/issue46/images/atlas-environmental-migration.pdf>.



Mongolia, 2011. In the Arkhangai province Batgargal Tsamba hauls a sheep lost because of the dzud (a summer drought followed by an extremely harsh winter) to a small burial ground close to his family's *yurt* (*gher*). ©Alessandro Grassani

BRIEF 3: TERMINOLOGY ON MIGRATION, ENVIRONMENT AND CLIMATE CHANGE

OUR KEY MESSAGES

- Environmental migration terminology is still being refined. However, a consensus not to employ terms related to the refugee regime – such as climate refugee or environmental refugee – is emerging among key stakeholders, including the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR).
- IOM has developed a non-normative definition of environmental migrants for working and advocacy purposes.
- Clarifying appropriate terminology is also complicated by the difficulty of precisely determining the extent to which environmental and climatic factors are drivers of migration. In reality, environmental migration is likely to be neither entirely forced nor entirely voluntary, but in a grey zone.

KEY IOM RESOURCES

- ➔ *Migration, Environment and Climate Change: Evidence for Policy – Glossary* (2014)
- ➔ *International Migration Law No. 25: Glossary on Migration* (2011)
- ➔ *Discussion Note: Migration and the Environment MC/INF/288*, prepared for the Ninety-fourth Session of the IOM Council, 27–30 November 2007, Geneva)

Why is terminology so often debated in the context of environmental migration?

There is no legally agreed upon definition of *environmental migrants and migration*. Yet, there is a tendency to assume that migration can easily be linked causally to environmental “drivers” and that such movements are predominantly of a “forced” nature. As such, the *terms climate change and environmental refugee* have been frequently used in the media and in some publications. However, closer analysis reveals that neither of these assumptions holds true and there is growing consensus that such terminology should not be used (this issue is discussed further below and in Brief 4).

Is it possible to establish clear causality between climate and environmental change and the movement of people?

Is it appropriate to use *climate change* as part of the label when designating people on the move in this context?

In the case of climate disasters such as floods and droughts, while the environmental factor is clear and the movement is clearly forced, climate change cannot be designated specifically as the cause of the disaster. Most climate scientists agree that climate change will increase the frequency and intensity of natural disasters, but how can we know if a disaster would not have happened anyway, independently of climate change?

In the case of slow-onset processes of environmental degradation linked to climate change, it is the impacts of climate change (e.g. on soil fertility and quality, on water availability

and quality) in combination with structural social and economic factors (e.g. access to resources, information, opportunities and alternatives, levels of development, governance) that will tip the balance for or against migrating.

Indeed, faced with worsening climatic conditions, many people in rural areas will choose to migrate pre-emptively rather than wait until their livelihoods can no longer provide enough to survive on, especially if they see better opportunities elsewhere. In this case, it can be difficult to distinguish climate change-induced migration from economic migration.

Perhaps the clearest case is that of sea-level rise, which can more clearly be attributed to climate change. If homes and/or fields are flooded, there can be little doubt as to the reason for moving. However, in reality, people will likely move well before their homes or fields are flooded, as their livelihoods gradually become unsustainable. Again, in such cases, it can be difficult to distinguish such movements from economically driven migration.

Though we know the importance of climate change impacts on livelihoods and hence on human mobility, it can be extremely difficult to designate the cause of movement as specifically due to climate change.

Can climate change and environmental concerns force someone to move?

The terminological implications of this question are significant. If a movement cannot be shown to be forced, the term displacement is unsuitable. The term *refugee* would be even less appropriate (see discussion on climate change refugee for details on this).

As described previously, many environmentally driven movements will be pre-emptive, but it can be difficult to class pre-emptive movements as forced. Could it have been possible to stay and adapt in situ? Countries such as the Netherlands have shown that it is possible to implement long-term measures to control coastal inundation albeit with far greater resources than are currently available to developing countries facing this threat.

In reality, migration in this context is likely to be neither entirely forced nor entirely voluntary, but in a grey zone in between.

So how can we designate people moving for environmental reasons?

In view of these and other dimensions, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) has put forward the term *environmental migrants*. The term *migrant* can refer to both voluntary and involuntary movements (hence, the commonly used term *forced migration*). IOM proposes a deliberately broad definition of *environmental migrants*:

. . . persons or groups of persons who, for compelling reasons of sudden or progressive changes in the environment that adversely affect their lives or living conditions, are obliged to leave their homes or choose to do so, either temporarily or permanently, and who move either within their country or abroad. (Discussion Note: Migration and the Environment MC/INF/288, prepared for the Ninety-fourth Session of the IOM Council, 27–30 November 2007, Geneva)

IOM's working definition is not intended to serve a legal and/or normative purpose or have implications for the granting of rights. Rather, it represents an attempt to capture the complexity of the issue at hand. The definition has been cited frequently in academic and other literature on the subject. However, there is no internationally accepted legal definition of the term *environmental migrant*. When emphasis is on the forced nature of movement, the term *environmentally displaced person* is often used.

What about the term climate change refugee?

There is consensus among concerned agencies, including IOM and UNHCR, to avoid terms such as climate change refugee and environmental refugee as they could potentially undermine the international legal regime for the protection of refugees (refer to Brief 4 for additional information).

The 1951 refugee definition¹ does not apply to environmental migrants for the following reasons:

- The term *refugee* has a very specific meaning under international law and is based on a “well-founded fear of being persecuted”. It would be difficult to obtain international agreement that climate change impacts constitute “persecution”. Traditionally, the persecutor has been understood to be a “State agent”. This has been extended to non-State entities but always requires an identifiable entity.
- Climate and environmental impacts are indiscriminate and do not differentiate on account of any of the five “Convention grounds” (race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion).

THEMATIC BOX: Migration, environment and climate terminology

* Based on the 2014 *Migration, Environment and Climate Change: Evidence for Policy (MECLEP) Glossary*.

Adaptation (linked to migration)

In human systems, the process of adjustment to actual or expected climate and its effects, which seeks to moderate harm or exploit beneficial opportunities.¹ Migration and mobility are adaptation strategies in all regions of the world that experience climate variability.²

Climate change

A change of climate which is attributed directly or indirectly to human activity that alters the composition of the global atmosphere and which is in addition to other natural climate variability that has been observed over comparable time periods.³

Disaster risk reduction (DRR)

The concept and practice of reducing disaster risks through systematic efforts to analyse and manage the causal factors of disasters, including through reduced exposure to hazards, lessened vulnerability of people and property, wise

management of land and the environment, and improved preparedness for adverse events.⁴

Displacement

A forced removal of a person from his or her home or country, often due to armed conflict or natural disasters.⁵

Environmental migrants

... persons or groups of persons who, for compelling reasons of sudden or progressive changes in the environment that adversely affect their lives or living conditions, are obliged to leave their homes or choose to do so, either temporarily or permanently, and who move either within their country or abroad.⁶

Internally-displaced persons (IDPs)

Persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized State border.⁷

Evacuation

Evacuation is the rapid movement of people away from the immediate threat or impact of a disaster to a safer place of shelter. It is commonly characterized by a short time frame, from hours to weeks, within which emergency procedures need to be enacted in order to save lives and minimize exposure to harm.⁸

Migration

The movement of a person or a group of persons, either across an international border, or within a State. It is a population movement, encompassing any kind of movement of people, whatever its length, composition and causes; it includes migration of refugees, displaced persons, economic migrants, and persons moving for other purposes, including family reunification.⁹

Migration crisis

Term that describes the complex and often large-scale migration flows and mobility patterns caused by a crisis which typically involve significant vulnerabilities for individuals and affected communities and generate acute and longer-term migration management challenges. A migration crisis may be sudden or slow in onset, can have natural or man-made causes, and can take place internally or across borders.¹⁰

1 A *refugee* is a person who, “owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality, and is unable to or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country or return there because there is a fear of persecution. . . .”

Forced migration

A migratory movement in which an element of coercion exists, including threats to life and livelihood, whether arising from natural or manmade causes (e.g. movements of refugees and internally displaced persons as well as people displaced by natural or environmental disasters, chemical or nuclear disasters, famine, or development projects).¹¹

Resilience

The ability of a system and its component parts to anticipate, absorb, accommodate, or recover from the effects of a hazardous event in a timely and efficient manner, including through ensuring the preservation, restoration, or improvement of its essential basic structures, identity and functions, while also maintaining the capacity for adaptation, learning and transformation.¹²

Trapped populations

Populations who do not migrate, yet are situated in areas under threat, [...] at risk of becoming 'trapped' [or having to stay behind], where they will be more vulnerable to environmental shocks and impoverishment." This applies in particular to poorer households who may not have the resources to move and whose livelihoods are affected by environmental change.¹³

Vulnerability

The propensity or predisposition to be adversely affected. Vulnerability encompasses a variety of concepts including sensitivity or susceptibility to harm and lack of capacity to cope and adapt.¹⁴

¹ Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), 2014.

² Ibid.

³ United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, 1992.

⁴ United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (UNISDR), 2009.

⁵ IOM, 2011.

⁶ IOM, 2007.

⁷ United Nations, 1998.

⁸ IOM, 2014.

⁹ IOM, 2011.

¹⁰ IOM, 2012.

¹¹ IOM, 2011.

¹² IPCC, 2014.

¹³ United Kingdom, Government Office for Science, 2011:25.

¹⁴ IPCC, 2014.

Sources

Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC)
2014 *Climate Change 2014: Impacts, Adaptation, and Vulnerability*. Assessment Report 5, Working Group II, Glossary.

International Organization for Migration (IOM)
2007 IOM Council Working Paper. IOM, Geneva.
2011 *Glossary on Migration*. Second edition, International Migration Law No. 25, IOM, Geneva.
2012 IOM Migration Crisis Operational Framework Resolution No. 1243 (ci). IOM, Geneva.
2014 *The Mend Guide: Comprehensive Guide for Planning Mass Evacuations in Natural Disasters*. IOM, Geneva.

United Kingdom, Government Office for Science
2011 *Foresight: Migration and Global Environmental Change: Future Challenges and Opportunities*. Final Project Report, Government Office for Science, London.

United Nations
1951 *Convention and Protocol Relating to the Status of Refugees*. United Nations, Geneva.
1992 United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, Article 1.

United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (UNISDR)
1998 *Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement*. E/CN.4/1998/53/Add.2. Available from www.ohchr.org/EN/Issues/IDPersons/Pages/Standards.aspx.
2009 *Terminology on Disaster Risk Reduction*. UNISDR, Geneva. Available from <http://www.unisdr.org/we/inform/terminology>.



Dhaka, Bangladesh, 2011. View of Korail from the lake of Gulshan. © Alessandro Grassani

BRIEF 4: LEGAL FRAMEWORKS AND CHALLENGES

OUR KEY MESSAGES

- Considering the difficulty of establishing clear categories and the complexity of the phenomenon, the search for legal solutions should be based on the identification of relevant individuals' rights and corresponding States' obligations.
- While the 1951 Refugee Convention is not applicable to environmentally driven movements, several existing legal principles and branches of law can be applied to environmental migration, including provisions under human rights law, as well as principles of international humanitarian law and of environmental law.
- Given the sensitivity behind both migration and environmental management, consensus among States over a single binding instrument may be hard to reach. In this context, a soft-law approach may be initially more viable, taking the example of the UN Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement.

KEY IOM RESOURCES

- ➔ [Human Rights, Climate Change, Environmental Degradation and Migration: A New Paradigm \(2014\)](#)
- ➔ [International Migration Law No. 25: Glossary on Migration \(2011\)](#)

What are the main challenges around legal terminology, categorization and definitions?

The issue of a legal framework to address environmental migration is a widely debated topic. There is no internationally accepted legal definition or specific status for people on the move due to environmental factors, and no legal instrument dedicated specifically to this issue. As a result, ensuring the protection of affected individuals seems challenging in the absence of one instrument that identifies the applicable rights and corresponding States' obligations tailored to the specificity of environmental migration. This has led to strong calls for international efforts to create a specific legal status for environmental migrants.

Why is it difficult to draft an international legal instrument specifically applicable to environmental migrants?

The complexity of the phenomenon and diversity of individual situations makes legal codification, which must be guided by clear-cut categories, particularly difficult. Categorizing environmental migrants for the purpose of identifying the applicable legal instrument or specific provisions is arduous. Indeed, the causes behind the decision to move are seldom clear-cut: people migrating in the context of slow-onset processes of environmental degradation usually move for a variety of reasons, where environmental stress is just one of the factors. Even in the case of rapid-onset disasters associated with natural hazards, which seem to act as immediate triggers of displacement, the underlying causes of risk, vulnerability and displacement are in fact far more complex than may appear.

Contextual factors such as poverty, conflict, demographics or governance often influence a decision to move. In the same way, individual or household characteristics and (perceptions of) opportunities elsewhere also play a role in such scenarios. A clear categorization by cause would therefore be difficult to make in most of the cases.

A clear typology of the movement is also difficult to make: the distinction between forced and voluntary movement is often blurred, and the duration of the movement is rarely fixed. Categorization by distance or destination is less complex, insofar as it is objectively possible to determine whether the displacement is internal or if an international boundary has been crossed.

While the causes and type of movements are difficult to define through fixed categories, the type of environmental phenomenon and the impact on affected migrants is key in determining the type of response needed, and the States' obligations involved: the situation of displaced individuals and response needed in the context of a sudden-onset disaster are likely to differ, at least in part, from those applicable in the context of slow-onset disasters or slow processes of environmental degradation and/or threat.

These categorization issues constitute a great challenge in terms of defining a specific legal status for environmental migrants at the international level.

Can the refugee status be applied to environmental migration at large?

People moving in the context of environmental change are not recognized as "refugees" under the 1951 Geneva Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees, since natural disasters or environmental degradation do not constitute a form of persecution as per the Convention criteria (fear of persecution for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion).¹ The terms *environmental refugee* and *climate change refugee* are therefore misleading and inappropriate, and there is a consensus among concerned agencies, including the International

Organization for Migration (IOM) and the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), to avoid their use, as they could potentially undermine the international legal regime for the protection of refugees. It is worth noting, however, that the 1951 Convention may apply in some specific cases where environmental and political factors are combined and the 1951 Convention criteria are met. In such cases, the affected persons could benefit from protection under the 1951 Convention, albeit not specifically because of environmental factors.

What legal tools exist for internally displaced persons?

In the case of internal displacement, the definition set forth in the 1998 UN Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement includes "persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of [...] natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized State border."²

This definition however does not apply to those who have crossed international borders, or those moving due to slow processes of environmental degradation, or, generally, to those who choose voluntarily to move. While the UN Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement are non-binding, States can decide to integrate the guiding principles in their national legislation and even to grant a specific legal status to internally displaced persons.

How can a protection agenda building on existing instruments be framed?

Considering the difficulty of establishing clear categories of environmental migrants based on the type of factors involved, the search for legal solutions should primarily be focused on identifying relevant rights and on corresponding States' obligations tailored to the specific environmental situation and to the consequences suffered by the affected persons, instead of focusing on the

1 United Nations, 1951.

2 United Nations, 1998.

causes or types of movement that too often are not sufficiently clear-cut. Setting the protection of relevant rights of the affected individuals as a final aim would help define States' obligations to ensure an appropriate level of protection of such rights in each specific situation.

The type of environmental event or process can serve as a basis to determine the best response to a given situation: for example, disasters will require a response that is different from long-term planned movements in response to the progressive degradation of the environment. In this respect, the obligations of States towards persons moving as a consequence of sudden-onset events and the persons' corresponding rights can be divided into three phases: before, during and after (refer to Table 4.1). The same division does not apply to slow-onset phenomena, but the types of rights that come into play are similar.

The absence of a specific instrument to protect the rights of environmental migrants and the dispersion of applicable norms in different international law instruments lead many experts to contend that there are gaps in the normative framework to protect environmental migrants.

Indeed, if we consider the concept of protection from the humanitarian perspective, a field in which the concept initially developed,³ situations not covered by either refugee law or international humanitarian law have been for a long time considered as falling into normative gaps.

Yet, with the development of a universally applicable and all-inclusive human rights framework, the concept of protection evolved and acquired a broader meaning, to encompass the protection of the rights granted to every human being at all times without any discrimination. IOM⁴ uses the definition of protection as set forth by the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC): "the concept of protection encompasses all activities aimed at obtaining full respect of the rights of the individual in accordance with the letter and spirit of the relevant bodies of law."⁵ Whereas this is a definition developed in the humanitarian context, it can also be applied in the migration context if we interpret the "relevant bodies of law" as encompassing bodies of law that are also applicable to migration in general.

In that sense, protection as understood in the human rights context allows to cover gaps in the protection as identified under the refugee and humanitarian context, since the human rights framework is concerned with the respect for the rights of all individuals and at all times.

3 Historically, the concept of "protection" developed from specific contexts in which individuals were no longer protected by their States (which under international law assume the primary responsibility to protect persons under their jurisdiction), such as in cases of war or of persons fleeing persecution in their countries. Thus, "protection" was initially conceived in a strict sense as referring to the international protection provided by States, other than the State of nationality, or by international organizations, such as UNHCR, in the case of refugees, and the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC), to civilians in times of war.

4 IOM, 2011.

5 Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA), 2010.

Table 4.1: Relevant measures and rights to be guaranteed at each phase of a rapid-onset disaster

Phase	Before (prevention or mitigation)	During (protection and management)	After (return or resettlement and reintegration)
Measures to be undertaken by States	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Risk assessment • Collection and dissemination of risk information • Systems of early warnings • Evacuation plans • Community education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Obligation of the affected State to seek assistance and not to withhold consent to offers of assistance • Application of protection measures • Evaluation of feasible alternatives to displacement and adoption of measures to minimize displacement and its adverse effects • The authorities should seek free and informed consent of those who are displaced • The law should identify the authority that is primary responsible to manage the displacement and adopt all displacement decisions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The authorities should allow persons displaced or those who moved voluntarily to return voluntarily, integrate in the host community or resettle voluntarily in another part of the country • Facilitate the reintegration of the persons upon return or in the place where they are resettled • Facilitate the recovery of land, houses, property and other possessions left behind
Relevant rights to be guaranteed	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Right to life and physical and mental integrity • Right to information • Right to full participation in decision-making and in the development of plans 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Right to life and physical and mental integrity • Right to health • Right to request and to receive protection and humanitarian assistance • Principle of non-discrimination • Prohibition of arbitrary displacement • Right to respect for family unity • Right to full information on the reasons and procedures for their displacement • Right to safe conditions of displacement/voluntary movement • Right to an adequate standard of living • Right to a safe shelter during displacement • Right to freedom of movement • Right to seek safety in another part of the country • Right to choose one's residence • Right to leave the country • Right to protection of properties or possessions left behind 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Application of the principle of non-refoulement and protection from arbitrary expulsion • Right to voluntary return, in safety and with dignity • Right to be informed of the existing options and to participate in the planning of return • Right to an adequate standard of living, including essential food and potable water, appropriate clothing and essential medical services and sanitation • Right to housing • Right to access to employment or livelihood • Right to recover possessions or properties left behind • Right to access to justice and to compensation • Property rights • Right to education

What are the already existing relevant principles, rights and instruments?

In the absence of an international instrument dealing specifically with environmental migrants, several existing legal principles and branches of law are applicable to environmental migration, including provisions under international human rights law, humanitarian law, environmental law and nationality law.

Human rights law

Human rights remain the primary body of instruments that afford protection relevant to those who have to move due to environmental events or processes. Obligations in this respect are primarily borne by the States on the territory of which the individuals find themselves, but the State of nationality also bears a number of obligations towards its nationals abroad.

The principles of universality and non-discrimination in this framework are particularly important as they guarantee protection of human rights of all people regardless of their legal status. Human rights law covers such fundamental rights as the right to life and physical integrity, and other “core” human rights embodied in instruments such as the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights – right to health, right to an adequate standard of living and family rights.

Of most relevance to migrants, human rights law covers the principle of non-refoulement and right not to be collectively expelled, right to freedom of movement⁶ (which applies also to movements to, within, and from camps or shelters), and right to return to one’s own country or, for internally displaced persons and regular migrants, to one’s initial or chosen place of residence.

Environmental law

Environmental law deals primarily with the protection of the environment; it regulates the use and prevents abusive consumption of resources, identifies States’ responsibilities for environmental

harms and imposes a duty of cooperation among States. The general principles as well as some instruments of environmental law are also relevant in the context of environmental migration, as they impose a number of obligations on States to the benefit of individuals, including migrants, such as the obligation to ensure access to information and public participation in decision-making, as well as an individual’s right to a remedy for the damages suffered.

International humanitarian law

Some of the key principles of international humanitarian law, such as the principles of neutrality, impartiality and humanity, are also applicable in situations of disasters.

International disaster response law

In recent years, international disaster response law has grown as a new body of law on the threshold between environmental law and humanitarian law. Most of the instruments and principles falling under this branch of law are unwritten (customary law) or not binding (soft law). The International Law Commission is presently working on a codification of norms and principles in this new area of law and particularly of rules regarding the protection of persons in the event of a disaster⁷ (draft articles on the protection of persons in the event of disaster).

Nationality law

Nationality law may also apply in some specific cases. The 1961 Convention on the reduction of Statelessness may provide a basis to prevent children born from parents who had to migrate or to live in displacement due to environmental factors from becoming Stateless. With regard to disappearing States, the 1954 Convention relating to the status of Stateless persons could potentially be applied in the future to protect the rights of the nationals of those States in the event of their disappearance.

Regional and national instruments

A number of existing regional and national instruments are also relevant in the context of both

6 International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, 1966.

7 United Nations, 2008, 2011 and 2014.

internal and international migration induced by or related to environmental factors. At the regional level, in Europe, the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE) Convention on Access to Information, Public Participation in Decision-Making and Access to Justice in Environmental Matters (Aarhus Convention) and the European Union Decision 2007/779 for a Civil Protection Mechanism include some provisions of relevance to an effective protection of the affected populations, including migrants. With regard to the former, the relevant provisions are mainly related to access to information and participation in decision-making in relation to environmental matters. The EU instrument is aimed at establishing a mechanism to reinforce the cooperation among the EU States in civil protection assistance interventions in the event of major emergencies caused by environmental or human-made disasters or accidents.

Some international soft law principles such as the UN Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement have been translated into regional or national law – this is the case with the African Convention on the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention), and with some national legislation, such as the Angolan or Kenyan, which have integrated the Guiding Principles into their domestic laws. Some countries (e.g. Denmark, Finland, Sweden and the United States) have introduced temporary or in some cases permanent protection schemes in their domestic legislations that can also be applied to persons forced to leave a country because of environmental factors.

However, it is worth noting that even if numerous binding and non-binding legal instruments are relevant to environmental migrants, applying these instruments to individual cases, in the context of a general lack of knowledge and awareness of the issue among States, represents a very real challenge. As mentioned below, IOM works closely with States to address such challenges.

The way forward: Prioritizing a soft-law approach to ensure adequate protection

The existing international legal framework – if systematically applied by States – would ensure that environmental migrants are not left without

protection. Yet, some migratory situations caused by environmental factors may still require better tailored legal solutions and protection for the affected individuals, particularly in the case of cross-border displacement.

Considering the difficulties in defining clear categories, and the complexity of the phenomenon, a single instrument or framework would be difficult to define. In addition, given the sensitivity behind both migration and environmental management, consensus among States over a single binding instrument may be hard to reach.

In this context, a soft-law approach may be more viable as a first step, taking the example of the UN Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement. A non-binding instrument built upon existing legislation and good practices and addressing key needs and vulnerabilities could offer a short-term solution, which could be translated into a binding text when adoption by States is likely to be reached, either at the international, regional, or national level. An example of such an approach in practice is the Nansen Initiative, which is a State-led consultative process whose objective is to build consensus on the development of a protection agenda for people displaced across international borders in the context of disasters and the effects of climate change.

IOM activities in relation to legal aspects of environmental migration

Field operations

IOM promotes a rights-based approach to migration. The Organization has always played a key operational role in protecting the rights of migrants, and in promoting dignity, well-being and respect for individuals. Protection of the rights of migrants is also a central concern in IOM's operational activities devoted to assisting and addressing the needs of migrants in the context of natural disasters and gradual environmental degradation.

Advocacy

In addition to operational activities, IOM is dedicated to promoting awareness and understanding of international migration law in order to assist States

in managing migration more effectively. Over the years, IOM has developed a strong expertise and capacity in the area of international migration law, providing assistance to States through research, training, consultancy and capacity-building activities. IOM also provides support to the Nansen Initiative as a standing invitee to the Nansen Steering Group along with UNHCR, and a member of the Consultative Committee.

Capacity-building

In the area of environmental migration and law, IOM conducts research and analysis of international, regional and national legislation addressing or potentially applicable to environmentally induced migration and the protection of migrants' rights. In addition, the Organization advises and guides States requesting assistance in strengthening or developing national legislation to address migration and displacement related to environmental factors. IOM has also developed training modules on legal aspects, frameworks and implications of environmental migration as part of its regional and national training on migration, environment and climate change for policymakers.

Sources

Appave, G.

- 2012 Emerging legal issues in international migration. In: *Foundations of International Migration Law*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

International Organization for Migration (IOM)

- 2011 *Glossary on Migration*. International Migration Law No. 25, IOM, Geneva.

Traore Chazalnoël, M. and D. Mokhnacheva

- 2014 Law review: Environmental migration, human rights and legal issue. *Insights on Law and Society*, 14(3).

Klein Solomon, M. and K. Warner

- 2013 Protection of persons displaced as a result of climate change: Existing tools and emerging frameworks. In: *Threatened Island Nations: Legal Implications of Rising Seas and a Changing Climate*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

Norwegian Refugee Council

- 2011 The Nansen Conference: Climate Change and Displacement in the 21st Century. Summary report of the Nansen Conference, 5–7 June 2011, Oslo.

Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA)

- 2010 OCHA on Message: Protection. OCHA, Geneva and New York.

United Nations

- 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights.
- 1951 Geneva Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees.
- 1966 International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights.
- 1998 *Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement*.
- 2008 United Nations General Assembly, International Law Commission, 60th Session, Preliminary Report on the Protection of Persons in the Event of Disasters.
- 2011 International Law Commission Report on the Work of its Sixty-third Session, Chapter IX: Protection of Persons in the Event of Disasters.
- 2014 International Law Commission Report on the Work of its Sixty-six Session, Protection of Persons in the Event of Disasters.



Nairobi, Kenya, 2014. A view of Kibera where many environmental migrants go to live, fleeing their lands because of climate change and drought. © Alessandro Grassani

BRIEF 5: STATE OF KNOWLEDGE ON MIGRATION, ENVIRONMENT AND CLIMATE CHANGE

OUR KEY MESSAGES

- Environmental stressors can result in diverse forms of human mobility. The key finding is that mobility responses to environmental drivers are highly context-specific. Movements – particularly in the context of slow processes – are often multi-causal: isolating the environment as primary driver is extremely complex. Individual and household characteristics, and intervening factors such as social networks, have a major influence on migration (or non-migration) outcomes.
- Data and understanding of existing displacement induced by sudden-onset disasters have improved considerably in recent years. Data on movement in the context of drought and environmental degradation remain very limited, which can partly be explained by methodological challenges.
- Making predictions about future numbers is particularly difficult, but it does not negate the need for action. Improved data collection and research methodologies can help towards refining predictions.

KEY IOM RESOURCES

- ➔ Atlas of Environmental Migration (under development) (2015)
- ➔ *Supporting Durable Solutions to Urban, Post-disaster Displacement: Challenges and Opportunities in Haiti* (2014)
- ➔ *Compendium of IOM Activities in Disaster Risk Reduction and Resilience* (2013)
- ➔ *The State of Environmental Migration 2013: A Review of 2012* (2013)
- ➔ Global Migration Issues, Vol. 2: *People on the Move in a Changing Climate: The Regional Impact of Environmental Change on Migration* (2013)
- ➔ *The State of Environmental Migration 2011* (2012)
- ➔ *Environmental Degradation, Migration, Internal Displacement, and Rural Vulnerabilities in Tajikistan* (2012)
- ➔ *The State of Environmental Migration 2010* (2011)
- ➔ *Livelihood Security: Climate Change, Migration and Conflict in the Sahel* (2011)
- ➔ *Background Paper WMR 2010: Climate Change and International Migration* (2010)
- ➔ *Assessing the Evidence: Environment, Climate Change and Migration in Bangladesh* (2010)
- ➔ *Migration, Environment and Climate Change: Assessing the Evidence* (2009)
- ➔ Migration Research Series No. 35: *Migration, Development and Environment* (2008)
- ➔ Migration Research Series No. 33: *Climate Change and Migration: Improving Methodologies to Estimate Flows* (2008)
- ➔ Migration Research Series No. 31: *Migration and Climate Change* (2008)
- ➔ Migration Research Series No. 30: *Migration, Development and Natural Disasters: Insights from the Indian Ocean Tsunami* (2007)

How is climate change expected to affect the movement of people?

Climate change is expected to affect the movement of people in at least four ways:

1. Greater frequency and, potentially, greater intensity of weather-related natural disasters – both sudden- and slow-onset – may lead to higher risk of humanitarian emergencies and increased population movements.
2. The adverse consequences of warming, climate variability and of other effects of climate change on livelihoods, health, food security and water availability are likely to exacerbate pre-existing vulnerabilities. When household income in rural areas decreases, livelihood stress linked to climate change could, in some places, result in lower levels of outmigration. As migration requires resources, those people wanting to move but could not due to lack of resources become trapped populations.
3. Rising sea levels may make coastal areas and low-lying islands uninhabitable.
4. Competition over shrinking natural resources may exacerbate tensions and potentially lead to conflict and, in turn, to displacement.

How many people will be moving as a result of climate change and other environmental factors?

There is great uncertainty about the figures. Forecasts for the number of environmental migrants by 2050 vary by a factor of 40 (between 25 million and 1 billion).

- Actual figures will depend on, inter alia: a) which climate change scenarios will be borne out; b) what adaptation actions are undertaken; and c) the evolution of various socioeconomic, political and demographic factors influencing the decision to migrate, such as economic growth and development, population growth and governance. Hence, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) does not advance an estimated figure.

The Working Group II of the [Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change \(IPCC\)](#) also highlighted in its [2014 Fifth Assessment Report](#) that future vulnerability and exposure of people are dependent on the factors highlighted above.

Thus, knowledge remains very uncertain at this stage as little comprehensive research and data exists.

- Some studies have found that environmental change may actually be more likely to prevent migration rather than increase it.¹
- The IPCC expects more occurrences of displacement due to climate change, with varying degrees. Some may only be displaced in the short term, others unable to move (trapped populations) while at the same time being most vulnerable and exposed. Nonetheless, “migration can also be an effective adaptation strategy.”²

THEMATIC BOX: UK Government’s Foresight study on migration and global environmental change¹

In 2011, the UK Government Office for Science (Foresight Programme) published the findings of one of the largest studies to date focusing on the topic of migration and environmental change.

The project brought together around 350 leading experts and stakeholders from 30 countries, and resulted in the publication of more than [70 papers](#). The study found that environmental change will have an increasing impact on migration over the next 50 years, through its influence on a range of environmental, economic, social, demographic and political drivers which themselves affect migration. However, it will be hard to designate specifically “environmental” migrants.

In line with IOM’s own analysis, the study highlighted that “migration in the face of global environmental change may not be just part of the ‘problem’ but can also be part of the solution. In particular, planned and facilitated approaches to human migration can ease people out of situations

1 United Kingdom, Government Office for Science, 2011.

2 IPCC, 2014.

of vulnerability. Migration can transform people's ability to cope with environmental change."

¹ The presentation of the project and all papers are available from <http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/+/http://www.bis.gov.uk/foresight/our-work/projects/current-projects/global-migration>.

What do we know now?

What is known is that people are already moving. Currently, there are no reliable global estimates for those moving as a result of slow-onset disasters such as droughts, or gradual processes of environmental degradation. Estimated figures are available for those displaced by sudden-onset disasters. The [Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre \(IDMC\)](#) has published the following annual estimates:

- The IDMC estimates a total of 165.9 million people were newly displaced in the five-year period of 2008–2013. In four out of the last five years, over 90 per cent of displacement was related to climate and weather disasters.
- In some parts of the world, sudden-onset natural disasters are already displacing many more people than violent conflict. For example, in 2013, about 7.3 million people were newly displaced by sudden-onset natural disasters such as typhoon Haiyan in the Philippines, while the number of people newly displaced by conflict and violence over the same period in Asia was 327,400.

However, the IDMC recognizes the limitations of the available dataset: the aggregated data does not allow for analysis by destination of displacement, the number of people returned, relocated and/or integrated locally, how long people were displaced for, cases of repeated displacement, disaggregation by gender and age, impacts in rural as opposed to urban areas, or detailed geographical level.³

While reliable estimates are lacking in relation to slow-onset events and processes (drought, sea-level rise and desertification, among others), it is widely believed that this type of phenomenon is likely to induce more migration and displacement than sudden-onset disasters in the longer term.

Who is of greatest concern?

- Populations in least developed countries will be most affected by climate change due to their lower adaptation capacity (low economic and social capital). The same is true for populations of low-lying islands and coastal areas due to their vulnerable geographic location. It is primarily these countries that will also see the most serious migratory and/or displacement consequences of climate change.
- Within societies, economically and socially marginalized groups face the most profound consequences due to their poor access to informational and material resources for adaptation and fewer livelihood alternatives.
- It is important to recall that those who will migrate might not be the poorest, as they do not necessarily have the financial and informational resources to do so. As a result, not being able to move can actually be a sign of greater vulnerability. Policies designed to prevent all migration can sometimes make people more, not less, vulnerable.
- Those moving to water-stressed or low-lying coastal cities in developing countries may paradoxically find themselves exposed to greater climate change-related risks.⁴

³ IDMC, 2014.

⁴ United Kingdom, Government Office for Science, 2011.

Will all environmental migrants come to the industrialized world?

- As explained above, climate change impacts will be felt the most strongly in developing countries, combining exposure and low adaptation capacity.
- There is evidence to suggest that the majority of environmental migration will be internal and in many cases will be from rural to urban destinations. While many poor people will likely use migration as a coping or adaptation strategy, they will be unlikely to have access to long-distance overseas/intercontinental migration due to the prohibitive cost. Displacement post-disaster tends to be local, to the nearest safe destination, although patterns can be more complex.⁵
- There is evidence of cross-border movement within regions linked to environmental phenomena, notably in East Africa (drought-related) and South-East Asia (flood-related). There is general agreement that when environmental migrants cross borders, they use existing migratory routes, often to places where they have family, cultural or historical ties.⁶
- The only recent example of large-scale outmigration beyond the immediate region is that which followed hurricane Mitch (1998), and which saw large numbers (especially Hondurans and Nicaraguans) migrate to the United States, notably to the southern states that had been traditional destinations for Hondurans and Nicaraguans before the disaster.⁷

Is environmental migration predominantly temporary or permanent?

Numerous studies have shown that temporary migration is used as a way of coping with or adapting to environmental stress, often on a recurrent basis (circular migration).⁸ In comparison, there are relatively few examples of permanent movement. However, knowing whether movements are temporary or permanent is sometimes difficult to measure – it can require accurate demographic data spanning several years. For example, statistics on protracted displacement of disaster-affected populations are currently lacking.

Permanent migration is more likely in the context of slow processes of environmental degradation. In the late 1980s and early 1990s, around 100,000 people moved out of one region in Uzbekistan, in part because of loss of livelihoods related to the desiccation of the Aral Sea, representing 1 in 16 of the population.⁹ Nonetheless, there is considerable scope for the use of temporary or circular migration as a coping or adaptation strategy during the early stages of slow process degradation.

Climate change is expected to lead to a shift towards more permanent movements, both in relation to disasters and slow process degradation. More frequent or more intense disasters may mean there is insufficient time for rehabilitation/recovery (whether natural or the result of human intervention) between disaster events. Slow processes such as sea-level rise and desertification are expected to gradually render livelihoods unsustainable in many areas.

5 Hurricane Katrina, which struck the east coast of the United States in 2005, is often used as an example to illustrate the complexity of post-disaster displacement patterns. Studies of the displacement of New Orleans residents have demonstrated the importance of personal and household characteristics in shaping movement patterns.

6 IOM, 2009.

7 Kugler M., 2006.

8 This phenomenon has been observed in Sahelian countries in West Africa during the recurrent drought periods of the 1970s and 1980s. See, for example, Findley, S.E. (1994), cited in IOM (2009).

9 United Kingdom, Government Office for Science, 2011.

What are the main challenges in regard to obtaining reliable and sufficient data?¹⁰

Notwithstanding significant advances in researching the migration–environment nexus, robust data sets and forecasts remain largely elusive and true interdisciplinary research limited. The main challenges reside in the realms of causalities (e.g. to what extent the environment acts as the primary driver, what migration patterns emerge in response to different environmental stressors, what socioeconomic or other factors need to be considered with regard to vulnerability) and data (e.g. how many people will migrate and where, how climate models can be improved and account for the multi-causal nature of migration, and how migration and environment datasets across countries and regions can be enhanced and/or harmonized).

How can data be improved?

While it is unrealistic to expect to have absolute certainty on the patterns and volumes of environmental migration, much can be done to enhance the knowledge base. Data collection could be improved, for example, by including census data and household surveys on migrations, environmental degradation and natural disasters.

Data collected need to be representative at the national level, and comparable at the international and regional levels. Other ways to enhance knowledge include combining technological advances in satellite imagery (maps) and the so-called “big data” with relevant research methods. As an example of the use of big data in this context, recent studies have used mobile phone users’ call detail records (CDRs) data to track population movement in the aftermath of disasters,¹¹ or

patterns of internal and circular migration which are typically hard to capture using traditional sources of data like national censuses and household surveys.

IOM IN ACTION: Designing the first Atlas of Environmental Migration (2013–2015)

The Atlas of Environmental Migration is a pioneering project, as it is the first illustrated publication mapping environmentally induced migration. The project is devoted to consolidating existing institutional and academic research and data on migration and environment, and translating it into comprehensive, comprehensible and easy-to-access visual tools (maps, diagrams, graphic illustrations) and texts presenting an overview of the complex relationships between migration, environment and climate change.

The Atlas is intended to become a reliable reference tool responding to the need expressed by practitioners and policymakers for improved policy-relevant data on migration, environment and climate change. The project is a collaboration between IOM, Université Versailles Saint-Quentin-en-Yvelines and Institut d’Etudes Politiques (Sciences Po).



¹⁰ For detailed analysis of the state of research and related recommendations, see *Migration, Environment and Climate Change: Assessing the Evidence* (Geneva, IOM, 2009).

¹¹ Bengtsson et al. (2011) used CDR position data of SIM cards from the largest operator in Haiti to estimate population movement magnitude and trends, following the earthquake and cholera outbreak that hit the country in 2010. Their estimates corresponded to results from a UN-led population survey carried out subsequently. Blumenstock (2014) used mobile phone records to infer internal migration patterns in Rwanda. The use of such “big data” is not without challenges, notably in regard to protection of privacy, but the potential benefits are significant.

What is IOM doing to address the data “gap”?

IOM has been addressing these challenges actively. The Organization conducts its own field studies and regularly issues various publications on the topic. The Organization is also developing “repository” platforms to feature research undertaken on environmental migration (see IOM in Action). Finally, IOM is increasingly analysing and harnessing the wealth of field data collected during the course of its various operations (see Brief 14).

IOM IN ACTION: Building repositories of information and making it available to all

Recognizing the importance of ensuring that existing quality information is made easily available to key stakeholders, IOM is developing online knowledge management tools that are global in their scope.

Already accessible is the [Asia-Pacific Migration and Environment Network \(APMEN\)](#), an online information-sharing platform on climate change, environment and migration issues. Created in partnership with the Asian Development Bank (ADB), APMEN brings together in one place the latest information on migration and the environment in Asia and the Pacific. It offers a free virtual space for exchange and learning on migration and environment.

Building on this regional experience, IOM is working on an environmental migration portal. This online platform aims to streamline available information such as new research, policy developments, and current news and events on migration and the environment and make it available to the wider public. The platform features tools such as a searchable research database and interactive and dynamic maps.

IOM IN ACTION: Migration, Environment and Climate Change: Evidence for Policy (MECLEP)

To explore how migration can contribute to adaptation strategies in diverse settings and to strengthen knowledge- and information-sharing with new evidence on migration and the environment, IOM has launched a three-year project called Migration, Environment and Climate Change: Evidence for Policy (MECLEP).

The Dominican Republic, Haiti, Kenya, Mauritius, Papua New Guinea and Viet Nam provide different environmental challenges and migration scenarios and will serve as the pilot countries for the project. While most previous studies on this pertinent issue provided qualitative analysis, household-level surveys will be carried out in the six countries to provide quantitative data, which is one of the novelties of this project.

The surveys will be carried out in communities of origin and destination and will aim to answer how migration, displacement and planned relocation benefit or pose challenges for adaptation to environmental and climate change. The benefits (e.g. remittances used to build resilience to environmental change) as well as the risks and costs of the different types of human mobility, from voluntary to forced migration, will be analysed to enhance understanding and provide concrete policy options.

See <http://www.iom.int/cms/meclep> for more information on the project.

Sources

Bengtsson L. et al.

- 2011 Improved response to disasters and outbreaks by tracking population movements with mobile phone network data. A post-earthquake geospatial study in Haiti. *PLOS Medicine*, 8(8): e1001083, doi.10.1371/journal.pmed.1001083

Blumenstock J., N. Eagle and M. Fafchamps

- 2014 Risk sharing and mobile phone: Evidence in the aftermath of natural disasters. Available from http://www.jblumenstock.com/files/papers/jblumenstock_mobilequakes.pdf.

Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC)

- 2014 Summary for policymakers. In: *Climate Change 2014: Impacts, Adaptation, and Vulnerability. Part A: Global and Sectoral Aspects, Working Group II Contribution to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change* (C.B. Field, V.R. Barros, D.J. Dokken, K.J. Mach, M.D. Mastrandrea, T.E. Bilir, M. Chatterjee, K.L. Ebi, Y.O. Estrada, R.C. Genova, B. Girma, E.S. Kissel, A.N. Levy, S. MacCracken, P.R. Mastrandrea and L.L. White, eds.). Cambridge University Press, Cambridge and New York City, pp. 1–32.

Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC)

- 2013 *Global Estimates 2012: People Displaced by Disasters*. IDMC, Geneva.
- 2014 *Global Estimates 2014: People Displaced by Disasters*. IDMC, Geneva.

International Organization for Migration (IOM)

- 2009 *Migration, Environment and Climate Change: Assessing the Evidence*. IOM, Geneva.
- 2013 *Compendium of IOM Activities in Disaster Risk Reduction and Resilience*. IOM, Geneva. Available from <http://www.iom.int/files/live/sites/iom/files/What-We-Do/docs/IOM-DRR-Compendium-2013.pdf>.

Kugler, M.

- 2006 Effects of low-skilled immigration on U.S. natives: Evidence from hurricane Mitch. University of Houston. Available from http://www.uh.edu/~adkugler/Mitch_Kugler_4.pdf.

Stern, N.

- 2005 *Stern Review: The Economics of Climate Change*. HM Treasury, London.

United Kingdom, Government Office for Science

- 2011 *Foresight: Migration and Global Environmental Change: Future Challenges and Opportunities*. Final Project Report, Government Office for Science, London.



Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia, 2011. View of the *gher* district. © Alessandro Grassani

BRIEF 6: POLICY COHERENCE

OUR KEY MESSAGES

- Environmental migration is a complex and multifaceted phenomenon that cuts across different policy areas, including but not limited to migration, development, climate change and environment, humanitarian assistance and security.
- Policy domains tend to exist alongside each other, but bridges are increasingly being built across policy areas, such as the links between migration and development.
- However, the coherency challenge posed by environmental migration remains substantial. Much needs to be done to bring together stakeholders from different policy areas and close the “coherence gap”.

KEY IOM RESOURCES

- ➔ International Dialogue on Migration No. 18: *Climate Change, Environmental Degradation and Migration* (2012)
- ➔ IOM’s Position Paper on the High Level Dialogue on International Migration and Development (2013)
- ➔ The Berne Initiative: *International Agenda for Migration Management* (2005)

Why promote interaction between distinct policy areas?

Given the multidimensionality of the phenomenon, policy coherence on environmental migration is critical. Governments need to overcome policy silos and draw on all relevant ministries and areas of expertise in designing their policies. In addition to migration management and climate change (adaptation) policies, environmental migration links up with policies in fields as diverse as development, disaster risk reduction (DRR), humanitarian assistance and national security.

The challenge of coherency is even greater when one considers that approaches to environmental migration also have to be coherent between local, national, regional and international levels.

In most policy domains, environmental migration is not an explicit part of the framework, although this is changing fast, and is more a reflection of the relative “youth” of environmental migration as an object of study rather than a lack of interest. In many cases, environmental migration is only addressed partially, often from a negative starting point. For instance, few of the national adaptation programmes of action (drawn up by least developed countries to access international funding for priority actions) recognize the adaptation potential of migration, focusing usually on reducing migratory pressure from areas impacted by climate change.

THEMATIC BOX: Pushing policy coherence forward – Human mobility within the UNFCCC negotiations

Since the UNFCCC 14th Conference of Parties (COP) negotiations, migration issues have gained greater visibility. They are increasingly considered and supported by Parties as one of the key areas of the human dimensions of climate change.

A tendency towards the adoption of language on “human mobility” seems to gather consensus. To date, two decisions have recognized “climate-induced migration, displacement and planned relocation”:

- Decision on climate adaptation adopted in [Cancun in 2010](#) (decision 1.CP/16, section II, paragraph 14 (f));
- Decision on loss and damage adopted in [Doha in 2012](#) (decision 3.CP/18 paragraph 7 (a) (vi)).

Within the context of the [Nairobi work programme \(NWP\)](#), Parties agreed at COP19 in Warsaw (2013) on “human settlements” as a new theme to be considered – this question is broader than migration per se but does not exclude discussions of human mobility issues. These matters will be further discussed at COP20 in Lima, allowing for the possibility of human mobility as an adaptation strategy to be examined within the NWP framework.

Nonetheless, the increasing awareness of a general need for coherency between policy domains is a positive evolution that allows for hope that environmental migration could be addressed comprehensively in the future. Links have been strengthened between the DRR and climate change adaptation communities, for example, or between the humanitarian, DRR and development communities.¹

Mainstreaming environmental migration into international political processes: Where do we stand now?

The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) Cancun Adaptation Framework makes reference to DRR and “climate change-induced migration, displacement and relocation” as elements to be addressed. Furthermore, “migration, displacement and human mobility” are also being considered as part of the loss and damage framework (see the first Thematic Box).

1 The need for increased coherency between these communities resulted in the emergence of the LRRD agenda ([Linking Relief with Rehabilitation and Development](#)). The increasing frequency and increasingly high cost of natural disasters has also led to awareness within the development community of the relationship between disasters and development.

There are also growing calls for migration to be included within the [post-2015 development agenda](#), the [post-2015 disaster risk reduction framework](#), the [World Humanitarian Summit](#) of 2016 and the Climate Agreement to be reached under the UNFCCC in 2015 in Paris.

There remains much room for improvement however. Too few strategic development documents, such as Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs), integrate environmental migration adequately, which has major implications for the chances of policy coherence (see Brief 9). Limited policymaking capacity in some of the most affected countries and regions is also a challenge.

In-depth analysis of the linkages between environmental migration and specific policy areas is undertaken in Briefs 7 (migration policy), 8 (climate change adaptation policy), 9 (development policy), 10 (DRR policy), 11 (humanitarian policy) and 12 (security policy).

Insufficient capacity to coordinate and streamline these and other policy tools will, at best, result in duplication and a stretch of resources, and at worst lead to contradictions. Conversely, harmonizing these strategies will contribute to improved resilience of populations to disasters, climate change and other environmental threats, thereby minimizing instances of forced migration.

One way to start closing the policy coherence gap on environmental migration would be through national and regional policy dialogue processes specifically addressing the migration and displacement implications of climate change. Existing dialogue forums on migration or on climate change do not often allow for the multidisciplinary and multi-stakeholder approach which is needed. This need was expressed by participants at the International Organization for Migration (IOM) [2011 International Dialogue on Migration \(IDM\)](#) workshop dedicated to the topic.²

2 IOM (2011).

IOM IN ACTION: Discussing environmental migration across policy areas

IOM is advocating the inclusion of migration-related language in a number of global policy processes linked to climate change and DRR, and is also striving to bring an environmental lens to migration policy discussions.

By participating in these global forums, IOM brings forward the needs of migrants and the Organization's Member States. International political recognition, in turn, facilitates IOM's capacity to concretely intervene in the field and implement projects benefiting populations and governments.

To date, IOM is actively participating in and contributing to processes across various thematic areas, such as the [Nansen Initiative](#), the [UN World Conference on Disaster Risk Reduction \(WCDRR\)](#), the [United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change \(UNFCCC\)](#), the [post-2015 development agenda](#) and the [2016 World Humanitarian Summit](#).

THEMATIC BOX: Why is it important to consider human mobility concerns in water management policies?

There is little research conducted on the linkages between water security and human mobility, and there are no global estimates on the number of people moving because of water-related issues. What is known is that water insecurity can adversely affect socioeconomic development and undermine the livelihoods of populations – two elements that can trigger human mobility. For instance, water scarcity can lead to temporary and permanent rural-to-rural and rural-to-urban migratory movements as “water-rich” areas attract migrants from “water-poor” regions.

It is also important to note the multi-causal nature of environmental migration. In the water context, this means that movements could possibly be caused by a number of issues such as poor quality of water, physical water scarcity, and unfair distribution of water among users and among countries that share a common water source.

Migration can represent a coping strategy that can improve water security in some contexts. For example, it could decrease pressure on water resources and encourage the rehabilitation of water sources. Migrants' remittances could be used to finance water infrastructure projects, to introduce sustainable agricultural practices and to increase awareness about water treatment.

If migration alone cannot solve water management problems, it remains critical that human mobility is understood and included in water management plans and policies. Otherwise, unmanaged human mobility may add unsustainable additional pressure on water resources, notably in receiving locations.

THEMATIC BOX: Environmental migration and land degradation

Developing countries are particularly vulnerable to climate change, as they have a significant share of their GDP deriving from climate-sensitive sectors, namely agriculture, livestock, forestry, water management and tourism. Desertification, land degradation and drought can threaten these sectors. In turn, livelihoods may be undermined, potentially leading to migration and displacement.

Desertification, exacerbated by climate change, also impacts nomadic populations, resulting in new migration patterns that take nomadic communities beyond their usual areas to support their livelihoods, thus increasing tensions with the sedentary farmers and with the pastoralist groups. The main challenges in these situations are associated with access to and tenure of land and water resources, disruption and loss of grazing rights, limited access to productive inputs and basic services, social marginalization, and disintegration of traditional institutions.

Many households already migrate as a way to deal with drought, land loss and land degradation. Some family members migrate as an income diversification and insurance “strategy” through the remittances that they send. Limited research has been conducted on the potential role of remittances as a productive investment for sustainable land management. As access to land can be key to increasing resilience in developing countries, establishing suitable mechanisms and regulations to promote migrants' investments for land rehabilitation could contribute to adaptation strategies.

IOM and the Global Mechanism of the United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification (UNCCD) have formed a partnership to work on the issues about land degradation and migration. Common activities notably aim at uncovering evidence on the linkages between land and migration and to explore the potential role of remittances as agent of resilience.

THEMATIC BOX: Environmental migration and health

Natural disasters are a public health issue as they are a direct threat not only to people's health but also to health-care services and facilities. Aside from the direct human losses caused by the disaster itself, the destruction of infrastructure intensifies the difficulty of access to health care and sanitation.

Certain seasonal diseases are closely linked to weather-related parameters that increase exposure. This also means that the impacts of climate change and the predicted higher frequency of climate-related hazards could have a direct impact on the incidence of these diseases. For instance, environmental conditions such as high temperatures, high rainfall and humidity, coupled with pools of still, sun-drenched water, favour the propagation of vector-borne diseases such as malaria and dengue.

Evidence shows that migration is a social determinant of health and that migrants' right to health is often limited as they face barriers in accessing essential health and social services for the prevention, treatment, and control of communicable and non-communicable diseases.

IOM has been providing policy and operational responses on migrant health issues since its inception. The Organization has also developed over the past 20 years a full-fledged programme on migration, climate and the environment. The synergy of these domains of expertise allows IOM to propose interventions across sectors on climate, health and human mobility.

At the 2014 World Health Organization (WHO) conference on health and climate, IOM urged governments, WHO and other partners that are working on the implementation of these policies and strategic actions to recognize migrants as well as mobile and other hard-to-reach populations who remain vulnerable to the ill effects of climate change and are often excluded from national health or social welfare systems.

THEMATIC BOX: Environmental migration and the youth

The impact of environmental change compels millions of persons, including young people, to adopt new livelihood strategies. However, very little is known about the role of environmental triggers and their impact on youth migration.

In some developing countries with high fertility and rapid population growth, environmental change can create further pressure on youth population to migrate. The increasing population in Africa, for instance, will add pressure on the environment, particularly in light of growing urbanization trends. Growing populations also mean that larger numbers of people will be subject to the impacts of climate change and may choose or be compelled to migrate as a result.

It is critical to focus on young people and adolescents as a specific group and to plan for adequate provisions to reduce their intrinsic vulnerabilities. Young people in migration situations – for instance, unaccompanied migrant children and children left behind – present specific protection needs. It is also important to look into the migration options available to youth and to consider whether they are empowered to make the decision to migrate safely.

Migration can also be an adaptation strategy to environmental change, as it can promote income diversification and reduce the reliance on depleted resources. Migration can be an alternative to offer to young people affected by environmental and climate change – but to be viable, youth involvement must be secured.

Source: D. Ionesco, D. Salmon and A. Pawliczko, "Youth, environmental change and migration", in: *Migration and Youth: Challenges and Opportunities*, J. Cortina, P. Taran and A. Raphael, eds., on behalf of the Global Migration Group (Geneva, International Organization for Migration, 2014).

Sources

International Organization of Migration

- 2011 International Dialogue on Migration Intercessional Workshop on Climate Change, Environmental Degradation and Migration background paper. Available from https://seors.unfccc.int/seors/attachments/get_attachment?code=J5USK9QL54ONBJ8DWEA8AFLCRLK6A5MQ.

Ionesco, D., D. Salmon and A. Pawliczko

- 2014 Youth, environmental change and migration. In: *Migration and Youth: Challenges and Opportunities* (J. Cortina, P. Taran and A. Raphael, eds., on behalf of the Global Migration Group). International Organization for Migration, Geneva.

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change

- 2011 Report of the Conference of the Parties on its eighteenth session, held in Doha from 26 November to 8 December 2012, decision 3.CP/18, paragraph 7 (a) (vi).
- 2010 Report of the Conference of the Parties on its sixteenth session, held in Cancun from 29 November to 10 December 2010, decision 1/CP.16, section II, paragraph 14 (f).

United Nations Water

- 2013 Water Security and the Global Water Agenda: A UN-Water Analytical Brief. United Nations University, Institute for Water, Environment and Health, Ontario. Available from <http://unu.edu/publications/policy-briefs/water-security-the-global-water-agenda.html>.



Mongolia, 2011. In the Arkhangai province, around 20 miles from Ulziit village, the Tsamba family members live and try to survive with their herd. They moved from the Bulgan province just before the 2011 winter, looking for a warmer place for their sheep. In 2009, 2010 and 2011 the dzud killed 1,000 of their 2,000 sheep.
© Alessandro Grassani

BRIEF 7: ENVIRONMENTAL MIGRATION AND MIGRATION POLICY

OUR KEY MESSAGES

- The migration management policy domain in relation to environmental migration is fragmented. In most areas, progress is limited to recommendations – where concrete examples exist they are often ad hoc. A number of (mainly non-binding) frameworks address the needs of those displaced by natural disasters. However, environmental migration goes beyond natural disasters in its scope.
- More and better evidence is needed, particularly in regard to the positive potential of facilitated migration and of “migration and development” in this context.
- Enhanced awareness, dialogue and coordination are needed at the local, national, regional and global levels, to ensure coherent and comprehensive approaches. Migration specialists cannot address the issues adequately if in isolation from other disciplines.

KEY IOM RESOURCES

- ➔ IOM’s [Migration Crisis Operational Framework \(MCOF\)](#) (2012)
- ➔ [World Migration Report 2010: The Future of Migration: Building Capacities for Change](#) (2010)
- ➔ [The Berne Initiative: International Agenda for Migration Management](#) (2005)

The International Organization for Migration (IOM) distinguishes four broad “pillars” of migration management: migration and development; facilitating migration; regulating migration; and addressing forced migration. Migration management implies a proactive approach, which produces outcomes beneficial for migrants and societies. IOM has been prominent among organizations seeking to promote the inclusion of environmental migration across the different dimensions of migration management (among other policy areas). An example of this is the inclusion of environmental migration scenarios within IOM’s [Migration Crisis Operational Framework \(MCOF\)](#).¹

Existing policy and coordination frameworks (non-exhaustive)²

Two regional frameworks (the African Union (AU) and the European Union (EU)) consider the different pillars of migration management in the context of environmental migration.

The AU pioneered the inclusion of environmental considerations in regional migration policy, specifically in its [Migration Policy Framework for Africa](#) adopted in 2006 by the AU Executive Council in Banjul, the Gambia. The document recognizes environmental factors, both degradation and disasters, among the drivers of mass migration and forced displacement in Africa, including internal displacement, refugee movements, rural–urban migration and cross-border migration,

1 The MCOF analyses 15 generic scenarios that can be applied to a migration crisis. Among those are “sudden-onset natural disaster: internal and cross-border movements” and “slow-onset natural disaster: internal and cross-border movements”. Each scenario outlines possible responses and sectors of assistance to be applied.

2 This section draws on Popp, K., 2014.

in its analysis. Its principal recommendations in this domain concern the incorporation of environmental considerations in national and regional migration policies, enhanced research and data collection on the nexus between migration and the environment, and measures to prevent environmental degradation and natural disasters.

The Global Approach to Migration and Mobility (GAMM), essentially EU's external migration management policy, makes explicit reference to the climate change–migration nexus.³

Nonetheless, the two previously mentioned frameworks are still in the embryonic stages of development (see Thematic Box for a more detailed look at the EU framework), and neither are binding. The AU Kampala Convention on Internal Displacement is a relevant binding framework, but it is limited to the forced migration pillar and again is at an early stage, having only been ratified in December 2012.

Following are additional (non-exhaustive) policy and coordination frameworks for each migration management pillar.

Migration and development

- At the international level, the Global Forum on Migration and Development (GFMD)⁴ has considered climate change and environmental migration. For example, a roundtable session was dedicated to the theme in 2010.⁵ It seems likely that the topic will receive closer scrutiny in future GFMD meetings, but no significant policy document or coordination framework exists at present to specifically address the nexus between climate change, migration and development.
- At the regional level, a recently issued European Commission Staff Working

Document⁶ makes a number of suggestions in terms of exploring the possibilities for addressing environmental migration within the migration and development agenda. Among the document's recommendations is "action under the GAMM migration and development pillar, in particular with regard to relations with the diaspora and facilitating remittances, could, where relevant, be refocused to better promote migration as adaptation."

- IOM⁷ included in its submission to the 2013 UN General Assembly High-level Dialogue on Migration and Development a recommendation to recognize the important role that temporary and circular migration can play in facilitating post-crisis recovery and adaptation to climate change and environmental degradation. The [adopted recommendation](#) highlighted the importance of the migration and environment nexus as it "recognize(d) the need to consider the role that environmental factors may play in migration." For example, IOM supported Temporary and Circular Labour Migration (TCLM) joint project between Colombia and Spain, seeking to enhance the developmental effects in the communities of origin, targeting (inter alia) areas affected by natural disasters. This included leveraging TCLM to provide skills that could be mobilized for resettlement to less environmentally vulnerable areas.⁸

Facilitating migration

- The [European Commission Staff Working Document](#) flags future initiatives relating to the facilitating migration pillar: "The Commission will explore how future initiatives on labour migration and mobility could be more specifically targeted towards regions at risk of

3 European Commission, 2013.

4 The GFMD is a non-binding State-led initiative emanating from the 2006 UN General Assembly High-level Dialogue on Migration and Development.

5 Roundtable 3, session 3.2 at GFMD 2010 in Mexico; see <http://www.gfmd.org/gfmd-meeting/mexico-gfmd-2010>. It was also debated during Roundtable 2, session 2.2 at GFMD 2012 in Mauritius; see <http://www.gfmd.org/meetings/mauritius2012>.

6 European Commission, 2013.

7 IOM's contributions to the 2013 High-level Dialogue on Migration are available online: <http://www.iom.int/cms/hld2013>.

8 IOM, 2009.

climate change or environmental degradation.”⁹

- The Asian Development Bank has recommended using current migration channels to absorb environmental migration, which would serve to meet labour demand in Asian countries and allow for adaptation and risk management through mobility, remittances and other beneficial socioeconomic effects of migration.¹⁰
- Kiribati has a [migration strategy](#) which – explicitly in regard to the threat posed by climate change – is based on equipping Kiribati nationals with the skills needed to find work and settle abroad. The policy is clearly designed as a long-term strategy to avoid the need for relocation.
- In the specific context of pastoralists, policy recommendations have been developed in the framework of an inter-agency initiative called [Security in Mobility \(SIM\) in the Horn of Africa and East Africa](#). One dimension of the recommendations is to facilitate cross-border mobility of pastoralists as a climate change adaptation and conflict prevention measure.
- In 2012, the United States granted work visas to selected low-skilled Haitians as a support measure following the 2010 Haiti earthquake.¹¹ However, this was an ad hoc measure and cannot be viewed as a policy framework for all natural disasters.
- Few countries have specifically considered facilitated migration within the environmental migration context, with the low-lying Pacific islands providing the main [exceptions](#).
- Colombia has supported TCLM with Spain, which contained an environmental dimension. This has been addressed in the migration and development pillar due to the targeted accompanying measures supported by IOM, but TCLM schemes in general (for environmentally

vulnerable areas) could potentially make a positive contribution in the climate change context, though there are likely to be limitations in terms of how much such schemes could be scaled up. TCLM schemes can potentially place migrants in situations of vulnerability in the country of destination; such schemes must therefore also ensure effective protection for migrants’ rights.

Regulating migration

- Countries of origin have tended to focus on the management of internal flows, primarily in view of reducing them through enhanced resilience in rural areas. Environmental migration could become a factor behind decisions to reinforce border controls in some regions, where actual or potential cross-border environmental migration could be large-scale. In the realm of forced return and/or deportation, several countries have temporarily suspended return of nationals of countries devastated by natural disasters, though this has been on an ad hoc basis, and usually limited to nationals already present on the destination State’s territory prior to the disaster.¹²
- Natural disasters often result in activation of national emergency laws, which grant special powers and change the normal order of procedures. Knowledge of these national frameworks is important for the management of disaster displacement. During humanitarian crisis situations, immigration and admission laws require flexibility to provide for the admission of persons who do not fulfill the normally applied admission criteria.
- Recognizing the challenges that crisis situations such as natural disasters can pose for border management, and as part of its wider MCOF, IOM has developed the [humanitarian border management](#)

9 European Commission, 2013.

10 Popp, K., 2014.

11 Cooper, M.D., 2012.

12 After the 2004 tsunami, for example, the Canadian, Malaysian and Swiss Governments temporarily suspended involuntary returns of failed asylum-seekers to affected areas of India, Indonesia, Sri Lanka and Thailand (IOM, 2009).

framework (sometimes also referred to as “crisis border management”). Humanitarian border management recognizes that challenges at borders can be varied, ranging from provision of humanitarian assistance (including facilitated access for personnel and goods) for displaced populations to maintenance of security. Humanitarian border management addresses the full spectrum: pre-crisis, during crisis and post-crisis. Border management agencies including immigration, police, customs, quarantine and armed forces need to be equipped with rapid operational mechanisms to respond to changing and often escalating movement patterns. IOM’s humanitarian border management programme provides a comprehensive policy and operational framework to address the multiple challenges of border management at times of crisis.

IOM IN ACTION: Building migration management capacities at the regional level – the African Capacity Building Centre

The **African Capacity Building Centre (ACBC)** was established in 2009 in Moshi, the United Republic of Tanzania. This IOM facility is hosted by the Tanzania Regional Immigration Training Academy (TRITA).

Working in close partnership with the Tanzanian Government, the ACBC offers capacity-building support to IOM’s African Member and Observer States in various areas of migration governance and management.

Within these efforts, climate-related migration, be it rapid urbanization or forced migration due to natural disasters, is a recent but growing area of concern for national authorities.

The regional training organized by the IOM at the ACBC in 2014 intended to support policymakers in expanding their knowledge and understanding of these complex issues and to propose concrete policy recommendations. IOM is increasingly dedicating resources to raising awareness of the effects climate change and environmental degradation have on human mobility and to building a coherent programme of work at the

policy and operational level that can concretely help Member States tackle this complex question.

The ACBC training not only represented a stepping stone in that respect but also paved the way for new and innovative partnerships and activities on a topic that will continue to be of relevance to the region in the upcoming years.

Forced migration

- It is under the forced migration pillar that the policy framework is most developed, but it would be premature to speak of an overarching, coherent framework. For example, the relevance of internal displacement instruments such as the UN Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement,¹³ which specifically deals with displacement caused by natural disasters, has been acknowledged, though full enactment of the Guiding Principles at the national level is limited to a few countries.¹⁴ The AU’s legally binding Kampala Convention on internal displacement also provides a framework which – in addition to natural disasters – specifically includes climate change among the causes of displacement covered.
- Some Western countries have granted temporary protection status (TPS) to individuals displaced by natural disasters. However, this has tended to be an ad hoc response to specific disasters and has usually been limited to temporary extension of stay for nationals already in the country. Sweden and Finland have gone further by including environmental considerations in criteria for granting protection to asylum-seekers, but this is limited to a case-by-case analysis and has yet to be tested adequately.
- There was consideration of natural disaster displacement in the preparatory works leading to the adoption of the EU

13 United Nations, 1998.

14 For details, see www.internal-displacement.org.

Temporary Protection Directive in 2001, but the adopted Directive makes no specific reference to it, and it is highly debatable as to whether or not the Directive could be invoked for people displaced by natural disasters. In fact, “the record shows that the Council actively considered and rejected the inclusion of disaster victims.”¹⁵

- The Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC) Operational Guidelines on Protecting Human Rights in Situations of Natural Disaster provide some policy direction on sustainable return, as does the IASC Framework on Durable Solutions for Internally Displaced Persons.

THEMATIC BOX: The European Union migration and climate change framework

In April 2013, the European Commission (EC) released the [EU Strategy on Adaptation to Climate Change](#) accompanied by the [Commission Staff Working Document on Climate Change, Environmental Degradation, and Migration](#). IOM, in the framework of the EU–IOM strategic cooperation, has provided technical inputs to the EC as well as recommendations for future implementation, cooperation and dialogue in the area of climate change, environmental degradation and migration.

While the strategy has an internal EU dimension, encouraging the EU Member States to adopt comprehensive adaptation packages and bringing the EU preparedness for current and future impacts of climate change to a new level, the Staff Working Document focuses rather on the interlinkages between climate change, environmental degradation and migration relevant to EU policies with an external focus on development, foreign policy and humanitarian aid, among others.

It specifically focuses on human mobility as a result of climate-related disasters and environmental degradation, including that caused by climate change. It acknowledges the complexity and multi-causality of the link between environmental change and migration, starting from the premise that migration, in the context of environmental change, will present both challenges and opportunities for receiving

and sending countries, and the fact that most migration and displacement is likely to take place in an intrastate context and will disproportionately affect regions in the developing world.

The need to recognize migration and mobility as enabling factors for development as well as the need for enhanced consideration of the interlinkages between climate change, environmental degradation and migration within the development context is also further addressed in the key messages for the UN High-level Dialogue and the post-2015 development agenda as outlined in the [EC Communication on Maximising the Development Impact of Migration](#) (May 2013).

Key migration policy challenges

- Obtaining better evidence for the positive potential of facilitated migration and migration and development in the context of environmental and climate change;
- Addressing the issue of fragmented responses across ministries (immigration, development and so on) linked to the cross-cutting nature of migration (and environmental migration even more so);
- Addressing environmental migration also at the level of regional cooperation (most “international” movements will take place locally cross-border);
- Implementing national laws and policies on internal displacement ([World Migration Report 2010](#));
- Amending national immigration laws and policies ([World Migration Report 2010](#));
- Establishing proactive relocation policies ([World Migration Report 2010](#)); it is important to also consider the risk of displacement caused by adaptation and mitigation policies themselves;¹⁶
- Promoting integration tools as part of a wider migration management approach to environmental in-migration (especially in urban areas with specific challenges such as access to safe land);

¹⁵ Cooper, M.D., 2012.

¹⁶ McDowell, C., 2011.

for example, facilitating newcomers' access to services without alienating the host communities.

Could environmental migration be better factored into the policy domain? How?

IOM, as the leading international agency on migration issues, has been actively raising awareness of the need to integrate environmental migration into migration management policies at the global, regional and national levels. Examples include the international workshop held in 2011 for IOM's Member States as part of IOM's International Dialogue on Migration Programme. As a concrete example of how to integrate environmental migration into migration management policies, IOM's MCOF, adopted by Member States in 2012, provides clear action frameworks for policymakers in the context of both sudden- and slow-onset natural disasters.

National and regional multidisciplinary training also contributes to raising awareness and increasing capacity among policymakers. To date, IOM has conducted training in Latin America, Asia and the Pacific, and East Africa. These training workshops address policymakers from different policy domains beyond migration management. As the implementing organization for the African, Caribbean and Pacific Observatory on Migration (ACP Observatory), IOM has also held international training events for ACP countries focusing on the data collection dimension of environmental migration. Enhancing data availability at the national level will facilitate the integration of environmental migration into national migration management frameworks.

A more systematic approach to TPS – a non-binding international framework such as the UN Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement – could also be envisaged, though it would require concerted action and political will among States. A first step might be limited to systematic TPS for nationals of countries recently affected by natural disasters who are already present in a given country, while a much more ambitious approach would aim for systematic TPS for those arriving at national borders following natural disaster in their home countries.

Focusing on displacement, the State-led [Nansen Initiative](#), launched in 2012, seeks to build policy consensus on appropriate response and protection frameworks for cross-border disaster displacement, including through ongoing regional consultations. IOM is a standing invitee to the Steering Group of the Nansen Initiative and a member of the Consultative Committee. Consensus on a more systematic approach or framework on TPS in natural disaster scenarios could potentially emerge within the framework of the Nansen Initiative.

THEMATIC BOX: Relocation and resettlement

At the country level, notably those threatened with partial or total loss of territory, certain small island developing States have been active in exploring relocation options, including purchase of land in other countries.

Relocation – internal or external – is increasingly prominent in policy discussions relating to climate change adaptation policies. At the international level, relocation is recognized as one of the three dimensions of climate-induced movement (along with migration and displacement) in the Cancun Adaptation Framework of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), though details are not provided. There are a number of relevant existing frameworks on relocation.

Population relocation or resettlement¹ can be spontaneously undertaken; however, in the context of policy debates on climate change-induced migration, the term is widely employed to refer to planned population movements, usually managed by public authorities at the national or sub-national level. Its importance in the climate change adaptation context has been recognized through its inclusion as one of the three dimensions of climate change-induced movement cited in [paragraph 14 \(f\) of the UNFCCC Cancun Agreements](#).

There are existing standards and guidelines on relocation, notably the 1998 UN Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement, which include “natural disasters” as one of the causes of displacement covered. They focus on safeguarding the human rights of displaced people, one element of which is ensuring the provision of durable solutions, such as relocation. The IASC Framework on Durable Solutions for Internally Displaced Persons, building on the Guiding Principles, provides detailed guidance on relocation as one of the three durable solution scenarios.

The World Bank has developed guidelines specifically on resettlement, initially in the context of large-scale development projects. In addition, there are numerous case studies on actual relocation and/or resettlement which can be drawn upon. It remains to be seen if comprehensive and binding standards specifically for environmentally induced relocation will be agreed at the international level, but at present the UNFCCC Cancun Framework seems the most likely framework for any such agreement given the current inclusion of relocation as one of the three pillars relating to population movements. It would not be comprehensive, in the sense that it would not address environmental drivers unrelated to climate change (geophysical, etc.).

Although most environmentally induced relocation (as with migration and displacement) is expected to be internal, international relocation may be needed, such as in the case of island States under threat from climate change-induced sea-level rise. To date, no planned relocation at the international level has been undertaken in the climate change context. Nonetheless, some of the most immediately threatened island States have already begun to explore policy options; for example, the Maldives and Kiribati have been looking into the purchase of land as one option. Little discussion has been undertaken at the regional level, probably linked to diverging approaches and political sensitivities.²

An expert consultation organized by the Brookings–LSE Project on Internal Displacement, UNHCR and Georgetown University titled “Planned Relocation, Disasters and Climate Change: Consolidating Good Practices and Preparing for the Future” was held in Sanremo in 2014.

¹ (Office of the) United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), 2014. *Relocation* is often the preferred term in the climate change context, to distinguish it from the international regime for the resettlement of legally recognized refugees administered by UNHCR.

² IOM, 2010.

Sources

Cooper, M.D.

- 2012 Migration and disaster-induced displacement: European policy, practice and perspective. Working paper 308, Center for Global Development, Washington, D.C.

European Commission

- 2013 Action Plan for Resilience in Crisis Prone Countries 2013–2020. European Commission Staff Working Document 227, European Commission, Brussels.
- 2014 The post 2015 Hyogo Framework for Action: Managing risks to achieve resilience. European Commission Communication 216, European Commission, Brussels.

Global Migration Group (GMG)

- 2011 Statement of the Global Migration Group on the impact of climate change on migration. GMG, Geneva.

International Organization for Migration (IOM)

- 2009 *Temporary and Circular Labour Migration: Experiences, Challenges and Opportunities*. IOM Migration Research Series, No. 2, IOM, Colombia.
- 2010 *World Migration Report 2010: The Future of Migration: Building Capacities for Change*. IOM, Geneva. Available from http://publications.iom.int/bookstore/index.php?main_page=product_info&products_id=653.

McDowell, C.A.

- 2011 Climate change adaptation and mitigation: Implications for land acquisition and population relocation. Working Paper 3 (WP3) for Foresight: Migration and Global Environmental Change, Final Project Report, Government Office for Science, London.

Popp, K.

- 2013 Regional policy perspectives. In: *People on the Move in a Changing Climate: The Regional Impact of Environmental Change on Migration* (E. Piguet and F. Laczo, eds.). Global Migration Issues, Vol. 2, Springer, Dordrecht.

United Kingdom, Government Office for Science

- 2011 *Foresight: Migration and Global Environmental Change: Future Challenges and Opportunities*. Final Project Report, Government Office for Science, London.

United Nations

- 1951 *Convention and Protocol Relating to the Status of Refugees*. United Nations, Geneva.
- 1998 *Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement*. United Nations, New York.

- 2013 A/RES/68/4: Declaration of the High-level Dialogue on International Migration and Development. Resolution adopted by the General Assembly on 3 October 2013. United Nations, New York.

(Office of the) United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees

- 2014 *Planned Relocation, Disasters and Climate Change: Consolidating Good Practices and Preparing for the Future*. Final report on expert consultation on Planned Relocation, Disasters and Climate Change: Consolidating Good Practices and Preparing for the Future, Sanremo, Italy, 12–14 March. Available from <http://www.unhcr.org/54082cc69.html>.



Debnagar village, Bangladesh, 2011. The river has flooded the banks every year for the past nine years and people are used to living with high water levels for five months yearly. © Alessandro Grassani

BRIEF 8: ENVIRONMENTAL MIGRATION AND CLIMATE CHANGE ADAPTATION POLICY

OUR KEY MESSAGES

- At the level of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), the inclusion of a paragraph in the Cancun Adaptation Framework (2010) ([decision 1.CP/16 paragraph 14 \(f\)](#)) calling for cooperation on climate change-induced migration, displacement and planned relocation is a positive first step. Nonetheless, this must be elaborated on and included within the successor text to the Kyoto Protocol.
- At the country level, the human mobility implications of climate change need to be systematically addressed, in particular through the [national adaptation plans \(NAPs\)](#) currently being developed as part of the UNFCCC process.
- Funding must be made available to address the challenges of displacement and relocation, and also to better understand and build on the positive adaptation potential of migration. Research, capacity-building and awareness-raising are key dimensions.

KEY IOM RESOURCES

- ➔ [The impact of climate change: Migration and cities in South America \(2014\)](#)
- ➔ Submissions to the UNFCCC:
 - » [Joint submission to the United Nations Convention on Climate Change \(UNFCCC\) on the Nairobi Work Programme on impacts, vulnerability and adaptation to climate change \(2014\)](#)
 - » [Joint Submission on national adaptation plans \(2014\)](#)
 - » [Submission to the Loss and Damage Work Programme \(2013\)](#)
 - » [Key messages on “how to integrate migration into adaptation strategies and planning” \(2012\)](#)
 - » [The Migration–Climate Change Nexus: High Level Plenary Remarks by IOM Director General, COP 17 \(2011\)](#)
 - » [The Social Dimensions of Climate Change \(2011\)](#)
 - » [Side-Event: Climate Change, Environment and Migration Alliance \(CEMA\): Understanding impacts and finding solutions \(2010\)](#)
 - » [Climate Change Adaptation Strategies for Local Impact: Key Messages for UNFCCC Negotiators \(2009\)](#)
 - » [Climate Change and Statelessness: An Overview \(2009\)](#)
 - » [Joint letter of the IASC Principals to the UNFCCC Executive Secretary \(2009\)](#)
 - » [Climate change, migration, and displacement: impacts, vulnerability, and adaptation options \(2009\)](#)
 - » [Climate Change, Migration and Displacement: Who will be affected? \(2008\)](#)
- ➔ [Migration, Environment and Climate Change: Assessing the Evidence \(2009\)](#)

Climate change adaptation and mitigation actions need to be fully integrated into and coherent with development strategies and [Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers \(PRSPs\)](#). Many adaptation actions can also contribute to development, through strengthened resilience, and vice versa. The two policy domains are treated separately in this publication only in order to facilitate clarity of analysis.

Existing policy and coordination frameworks

International level

Neither the [UNFCCC](#) nor the Kyoto Protocol includes any provisions concerning specific assistance or protection for those who will be directly affected by the effects of climate change. Nonetheless, in its *First Assessment Report (1990)*, the [Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change \(IPCC\)](#) posited that “the gravest effects of climate change may be those on human migration.”

Together with partner agencies from the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC), IOM believes it is vitally important that the human mobility consequences of climate change be included in a new treaty that will replace the Kyoto agreement (to be adopted at the 21st Conference of the Parties (COP) in Paris in 2015). As such, IOM and its partners have been actively engaging with the UNFCCC to place the issue on the agenda of the UNFCCC (see IOM in Action).

A significant breakthrough came at the COP16 in Mexico in 2010, where the non-binding Cancun Agreements included for the first time provisions relating to population movements. As stated in [paragraph 14 \(f\)](#):

Invites all Parties to enhance action on adaptation under the Cancun Adaptation Framework, taking into account their common but differentiated responsibilities and respective capabilities, and specific national and regional development priorities, objectives and circumstances, by undertaking, inter alia, the following:

... (f) Measures to enhance understanding, coordination and cooperation with regard to climate change induced displacement, migration and planned relocation, where appropriate, at national, regional and international levels.

However, it remains to be seen if the final post-Kyoto agreement will retain this commitment, and if so, what funding and other support will be made available. IOM and its partners will continue advocating this issue to ensure the current level of commitment is included, elaborated upon, and that adequate funding is made available. IOM has also been collaborating with the IPCC to enhance consideration of the human mobility dimensions of climate change in the IPCC research.

National level

National climate change strategies and adaptation plans have so far not adequately addressed the migration, displacement or relocation dimensions.¹ Several least developed countries have partially addressed these issues in the [national adaptation programmes of action \(NAPAs\)](#) which were developed for the UNFCCC,² but they have tended to focus on preventing environmental migration, for example, in order to reduce rural–urban migration when urban areas cannot adequately absorb the influx of population. Nevertheless, “in some cases, the NAPA identifies migration as an adaptation strategy in itself. This perspective appears in two contexts. First, some countries see migration as a way to reduce population pressures in places with fragile ecosystems. Second, countries recognize that resettlement of some populations may be inevitable, given the likely trends, and should be accomplished with planning.”³

However, little attention has been paid to the positive role mobility can play in the context of climate change adaptation, particularly in regard to slow-onset impacts. Mobility in all its dimensions needs to be systematically considered as an essential stage of the adaptation planning process. The UNFCCC’s [national adaptation plan \(NAP\)](#) could prove to be a key channel for ensuring mobility is addressed in national plans and strategies. Like its predecessor, the NAPA, the NAP focuses on

1 For reviews of how NAPAs address human mobility issues, see Martin, S., as cited in IOM (2009) and McDowell, C.A. (2011).

2 The least developed countries were asked to submit NAPAs in order to be able to rapidly access UNFCCC funding for priority adaptation projects. NAPAs have been criticized as being too small-scale, based on the project-approach, and insufficiently integrated with national development and poverty reduction approaches. However, NAPAs were never intended to be comprehensive, long-term approaches, but rather to identify urgent priorities for actions on the ground.

3 Martin, S., in IOM (2009).

the least developed countries, but the UNFCCC envisages the NAP as a relevant framework for all affected developing countries. IOM is advocating the inclusion of mobility within the NAP process and has started work on developing technical guidelines to mainstream migration into NAPs.⁴

Key challenges/issues in the policy domain

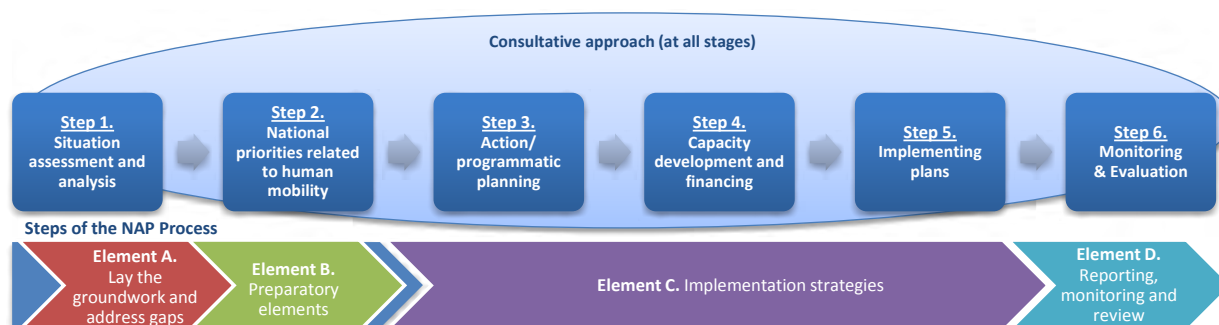
- Difficulty to raise awareness and understanding of the positive ways mobility can contribute to climate change adaptation;
- Low capacity in many national ministries to effectively integrate human mobility considerations into adaptation plans, hindered also by a lack of data;
- Inclusion of human mobility as a form of climate change adaptation under the successor to the Kyoto agreement would likely entail financial undertakings for State parties, notably as regards measures to enhance cooperation on migration, displacement and planned relocation (although the phrase “measures to enhance cooperation” leaves considerable room for divergent interpretations);

- Climate change adaptation and mitigation measures themselves may lead to significant relocation of populations. This may be in the form of large-scale infrastructure projects and also land-use change policies designed to reduce greenhouse gas emissions (e.g. reforestation).⁵

Could it be better factored into the policy domain? How?

IOM has already been carrying out **training** for policymakers on different aspects of the human mobility–climate change nexus to raise awareness, in particular regarding the need for coordinated interministerial approaches. IOM is in the process of developing a training manual that will, inter alia, address integrating human mobility into adaptation planning (including a section on NAPs) and enhancing policy coherence with other sectors such as development, humanitarian assistance and disaster risk reduction.

Figure 8.1: Technical guidelines mainstreaming migration into national adaptation plans⁶



Sources: 1) Adapted from the stages of the development planning from the GMG (2010:21) Handbook on mainstreaming migration into development planning.
 2) Least Developed Countries Expert Group (2012). *National Adaptation Plans. Technical guidelines for the national adaptation process*. Bonn: UNFCCC Secretariat.

⁴ See summary of IOM’s written contribution to UNFCCC in United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (2011) (paragraph 41). IOM held a side event at the COP18 in Doha entitled “How to Integrate Migration into Adaptation Strategies & Planning”. For details, see: <http://www.iom.int/cms/en/sites/iom/home/what-we-do/migration-and-climate-change/migration-and-climate-change/iom-at-unfccc-conference-18-doha.html>.

⁵ For a detailed discussion of this dimension, see McDowell, C.A., 2011.

⁶ IOM, 2014.

IOM IN ACTION: Influencing policymaking at the global level – the United Framework Convention on Climate Change

IOM and its partners have made several submissions to the negotiators of the UNFCCC reflecting the need to include the migration and displacement consequences of climate change in the post-Kyoto agreement. Among these submissions are:

- Joint submission with the Advisory Group on Climate Change and Human Mobility on the Nairobi Work Programme on impacts, vulnerability and adaptation (2014)
- Joint submission with the Advisory Group on Climate Change and Human Mobility to the United Nations Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) on national adaptation plans (2014)
- Contribution on potential elements related to human mobility in the context of a [Warsaw COP19 decision on loss and damage](#) (2013)
 - » IOM collaborated with the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), Norwegian Refugee Council/Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (NRC/IDMC), United Nations University (UNU), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), International Labour Organization (ILO), the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR), Sciences Po (CERI) and Refugees International and drafted a joint negotiation text on the Subsidiary Body for Implementation (SBI) item 11, which was shared with Parties at COP19, following the joint submission to the SBI Work Programme on Loss and Damage in October 2012
- [The Social Dimensions of Climate Change](#) (2011)
- IOM and UNU side-event: Climate Change, Environment and Migration Alliance (CEEMA): understanding impacts and finding solutions” (2010)
- [Climate Change Adaptation Strategies for Local Impact: Key Messages for UNFCCC Negotiators](#) (2009)
- [Climate Change and Statelessness: An Overview](#) (2009)

- Joint letter of the IASC Principals to the UNFCCC Executive Secretary (2009)
- Climate change, migration, and displacement: impacts, vulnerability, and adaptation options (2009)
- Climate Change, Migration and Displacement: Who will be affected? (2008)

Prior to and following COP19 in 2014, IOM responded to requests from the Adaptation Committee to share its experience in supporting adaptation in developing countries.

IOM and its partners have been organizing awareness-raising events at [COPs every year](#) since the COP14 in Poznan (2008).

IOM’s Director General William Lacy Swing addressed the [high-level plenary](#) on this issue at the COP17 in Durban (2011).

- 1 The Advisory Group on Climate Change and Human Mobility includes IOM, UNHCR, the UNU Institute for Environment and Human Security (UNU-EHS), the NRC/IDMC and Refugees International.

THEMATIC BOX: Human mobility and the loss and damage agenda

Despite strengthened mitigation and adaptation efforts, natural events related to climate change result in greater damage and costs every year, both in developing and developed countries. Therefore, loss and damage increasingly appears as a critical issue to be considered on the international climate change agenda, as the international community recognizes that mitigation and adaptation actions alone are not enough to prevent all the adverse impacts of climate change. In this context, *loss and damage* can be defined as “the actual and/or potential manifestation of climate impacts that negatively affect human and natural systems,” which either can be repaired (*damage*) or cannot (*loss*).¹

Population movement is extremely relevant to the debate in various ways. Those forced to move will likely have to abandon various types of assets (economic assets such as land and houses, ecological and sociocultural assets such as community support networks, etc.). These movements may in turn incur loss and damage for the communities left behind (e.g. loss of human capital). Compensation for such losses will be a complex but important issue. At

another level, loss and damage caused by climate change may translate into decreased capacity for migration, resulting in so-called “trapped populations”. Migration can be a strategy to avoid loss and damage.

Work on this theme intensified, following COP16 in Cancun 2010, which established the [Work Programme on Loss and Damage](#) to consider approaches to the issue, particularly in the context of developing countries that are vulnerable to climate change.² The implementation of the Work Programme on Loss and Damage is structured along three broad thematic areas:

- Assessing the risk of loss and damage and existing knowledge;
- Exploring existing and potential approaches to address loss and damage;
- Discussing the role of the UNFCCC in enhancing the implementation of these approaches.

[COP18 in Doha](#) (December 2012) fully recognized for the first time the need for enhanced action to address loss and damage resulting from adverse impacts of climate change, explicitly mentioning migration, displacement and human mobility.³ The Doha decision also included, among its considerations, provision of financial support to affected developing countries by developed countries, and as a concrete next step, the establishment of relevant institutional arrangements at COP19.⁴ The resulting Warsaw international mechanism for loss and damage⁵ established at COP19 in Poland in November 2013 refers directly to the Doha decision, and while the decision agreed upon in Warsaw does not explicitly reiterate the text on migration, displacement and human mobility, it nevertheless gives a mandate to the executive committee of the mechanism to continue work on all key areas identified in the Doha decision, including human mobility.

The latest developments on the loss and damage agenda provide new opportunities for further work and institutional cooperation on progressing towards better understanding, and, subsequently, increased consideration of human mobility as part of international climate change policy processes.

IOM advocated with its partners the inclusion of the migration dimension within the loss and damage agenda throughout the months preceding the Warsaw decision. The Organization has contributed to several joint submissions and joint advocacy efforts, and has provided several inputs to the UNFCCC, including for the UNFCCC technical paper on non-economic loss (published in October 2013), which gives more detailed consideration to displacement and human mobility-related loss and damage.⁶

IOM will continue its advocacy efforts together with its partners on the inclusion of human mobility within the post-Kyoto agreement. It will mobilize relevant organizational experience in administering compensation schemes and resources to enhance understanding and data and to build multi-stakeholder partnerships, working in particular to support governments of the most vulnerable States.

¹ Definition from the Loss and Damage in Vulnerable Countries Initiative, as cited by the Climate and Development Knowledge Network; see http://cdkn.org/2012/09/loss-and-damage-from-defining-to-understanding-to-action/?loclang=en_gb. For background on the emergence of loss and damage within the UNFCCC, see: IOM, “Moving in the right direction? Assessing progress in Doha: Migration in climate change negotiations”, in *Migration Policy Practice*, 3(1) (2013); and UNFCCC, decision 1/CP.13, FCCC/CP/2007/6/Add.1, paragraph 1 (c) (iii).

² UNFCCC, decision 1/CP.16, paragraphs 25–29.

³ Paragraph 7 (a)(vi), decision 3/CP.18: Approaches to address loss and damage associated with climate change impacts in developing countries that are particularly vulnerable to the adverse effects of climate change to enhance adaptive capacity, states: “Enhancing the understanding of: [...] How impacts of climate change are affecting patterns of migration, displacement and human mobility.” See <http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/2012/cop18/eng/08a01.pdf>.

⁴ See <http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/2012/cop18/eng/08a01.pdf>.

⁵ See <http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/2013/tp/02.pdf>.

⁶ Decision -/CP.19, Warsaw international mechanism for loss and damage associated with climate change impacts. See http://unfccc.int/files/meetings/warsaw_nov_2013/in-session/application/pdf/fccc.cp.2013.l.15.pdf.

Sources

International Organization for Migration (IOM)

- 2009 *Migration, Environment and Climate Change: Assessing the Evidence*. IOM, Geneva.
- 2011 The Migration–Climate Change Nexus. Remarks by William Lacy Swing, Director General, International Organization for Migration, at the Conferences of the Parties (COP 17) and Conference of the Parties serving as the meeting of the Parties to the Kyoto Protocol, High Level Plenary, 9 December.

McDowell, C.A.

- 2011 Climate change adaptation and mitigation: Implications for land acquisition and population relocation. Working Paper 3 (WP3) for Foresight: Migration and Global Environmental Change, Final Project Report, Government Office for Science, London.

United Nations System Chief Executive Board for Coordination (UN System CEB)

- 2013 United Nations Plan of Action on Disaster Risk Reduction for Resilience. UN System CEB, New York and Geneva.
- 2014 How the United Nations System Supports Ambitious Action on Climate Change. UN System CEB, New York and Geneva.

United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change

- 2008 Climate Change, Migration and Displacement: Who will be affected? Working paper submitted by the informal group on Migration/Displacement and Climate Change of the IASC.
- 2009a Joint letter of the IASC Principals to the UNFCCC Executive Secretary. Submitted by IOM, FAO, ICRC, ICVA, IFRC, IA, OCHA, OHCHR, SCHR, RSG on Human Rights of IDPs, UNDP, UNFPA, UN-HABITAT, UNHCR, UNICEF, WFP, WHO, WB, Bonn.
- 2009b 5th session of the Ad Hoc Working Group on Long-Term Cooperative Action under the Convention (AWG-LCA 5). Submitted by IOM, UNHCR, UNU, NRC, RSG on Human Rights of IDPs, Bonn.
- 2009c Climate Change and Statelessness: An Overview. Submitted by UNHCR, IOM, NRC, Bonn.
- 2009d Climate Change Adaptation Strategies for Local Impact: Key Messages 8.27 in for UNFCCC Negotiators. Submitted by IFR, UN, OCHA, ACT, IOM.
- 2012 Synthesis report on support for the national adaptation plan process for the least developed countries. Note by the Secretariat, FCCC/SBI/2012/8.
- 2013 Report of the Conference of the Parties on its nineteenth session, Warsaw, 11–23 November.

Warner, K. et al.

- 2014 *Integrating Human Mobility Issues within National Adaptation Plans*. Policy Brief No. 9, United Nations University Institute of Environment and Human Security (UNU-EHS), Bonn.



Nairobi, Kenya, 2014. In the streets of Mathare, 500,000 people live and iron huts alternate with buildings with overcrowded rooms. © Alessandro Grassani

BRIEF 9: ENVIRONMENTAL MIGRATION AND DEVELOPMENT POLICY

OUR KEY MESSAGES

- Migration remains poorly integrated into broader, overarching development frameworks.
- Mobility can help reduce vulnerability to climate/environmental stressors, such as through temporary labour migration, remittances (internal or from diaspora) and relocation.
- The most vulnerable may be those who do not have the resources to use mobility as a coping or adaptation strategy (trapped populations). Policy responses need to include them too.
- Mobility can also increase vulnerability. This can be through the depletion of human capital in origin areas, or through the precarious situation in which migrants may find themselves, particularly in urban areas where they may be subject to new environmental risks.
- A more joined-up approach to policymaking is required, which may take the form of mainstreaming migration into national development planning. Specific focus on environmental migration is needed within such an approach.
- Ways to harness the positive potential of migration for development should be explored, with a focus on building resilience and supporting climate change adaptation.

KEY IOM RESOURCES

- ➔ [IOM's Position Paper on the High Level Dialogue on International Migration and Development \(2013\)](#)
- ➔ [International Migration and Development Training Modules \(2013\)](#)
- ➔ [Mainstreaming Migration into Development Planning: A Handbook for Policy-makers and Practitioners \(2010\)](#)

Understanding of the complex relationship between international migration and development has increased greatly over recent years. It is high on the current international agenda, with the second [United Nations General Assembly High Level Dialogue on Migration and Development](#) having been held in October 2013, and ongoing discussions in regard to including migration within the post-2015 development framework process. In parallel, the challenges posed by climate change for development are increasingly understood, such as the impact of recurrent disasters on GDP. However, the nexus linking climate change, migration and development has received far less attention, particularly in regard to internal migration dynamics within developing countries. Rural–urban migration within developing countries poses a major challenge for cities already struggling to accommodate natural population growth, and it is expected that climate change will increase rural–urban flows.

Existing policy and coordination framework (non-exhaustive)

The [African Union \(AU\) Migration Strategy](#) (2006) recognizes environmental degradation and natural disasters as drivers (push factors) of internal, rural–urban migration, and by extension, urbanization, in Africa. While recognizing that “urbanization is an integral aspect of economic and social development experienced by both developed and developing countries,” if rapid and unregulated, it can have adverse consequences for migrating and urban populations by straining the existing urban infrastructure and services and resulting in higher rates of urban poverty, lack of access to adequate housing, health care, education and other services, and environmental problems. Promoting sustainable urbanization constitutes therefore a priority concern for African governments in the years ahead.

Recommendations in the document include:

- “Strengthen efforts to address causes of internal migration including poverty, environmental degradation, natural disasters, and conflict, especially as they relate to the process of urbanization.
- Take steps to ensure that persons migrating internally have adequate access to basic services such as education, healthcare and employment especially in urban centers with rapidly growing populations of migrants from rural areas.”

However, few countries have mainstreamed migration into national development plans or instruments:

... a survey conducted in 2011 within a UNDP/IOM project on mainstreaming of migration into development planning found that few countries have mainstreamed migration into national development plans or instruments. The conclusion is that while some progress has been made at the global level in recognising the linkages between migration and development, at the national level, despite many commitments, migration remains poorly integrated into broader, overarching development frameworks.¹

1 United Nations Task Team, 2013.

Even fewer have specifically considered environmental migration and displacement within development plans or policies.² Consideration of environmental migration has mainly been in the context of climate change adaptation plans (notably [national adaptation programmes of action \(NAPAs\)](#) submitted by least developed countries for [United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change \(UNFCCC\)](#) funding). Brief 8 of this publication offers more discussion on adaptation policies.³

Key issues in development policy

The policy focus has typically been on the effects of environmental migration on rural–urban migration flows and urbanization. However, consideration of this type of migration has tended to focus exclusively on the negative dimensions (strains on housing, services and vulnerability of urban migrant populations). Although these negative dimensions are important concerns, an exclusively negative approach fails to acknowledge the ways in which mobility can be a way of reducing vulnerability to climate change, both for migrants and – in certain circumstances – their communities of origin. Indeed, the lack of “access to mobility” can be a major source of vulnerability, leaving “trapped” rural populations exposed to climate change impacts.

Mobility for reduced vulnerability to climate change

Policies have tended to focus on limiting rural–urban flows due to insufficient integration capacity of already crowded cities, or due to the negative effects outmigration can have on the rural communities left behind (e.g. depletion of human capital, weakening of social support networks). Development policies aiming to tackle these issues are usually designed to “stabilize” rural communities by strengthening livelihoods and

2 As a donor, the European Commission included environmental migration as one of the priorities for the 2011–2013 programming document of its thematic programme on external migration and asylum, which comes under the Development Cooperation Instrument (DCI).

3 In some ways this is an artificial separation since, in many cases, development planners are involved in devising adaptation plans, and many aspects of adaptation are akin to classic development interventions (notably in regard to building livelihood resilience in rural areas).

improving access to services and/or infrastructure. While this approach is valid in areas where in situ adaptation is a sustainable option, it should not be accompanied by measures seeking to limit the availability of migration as a coping strategy for rural households.

Many rural households cope with environmental shocks through migration; for example, the temporary labour migration of a family member whose remittances enable the family to remain in place. “There is now a growing understanding that those in rural communities struggling with persistent drought and desertification use migration as a coping strategy.”⁴

“While internal remittances are underreported, evidence indicates that internal migration, like international migration, can contribute significantly to poverty reduction. Studies in India, Bangladesh, Tanzania, Mexico and Indonesia have found poverty rates in households with a migrant fall by as much as one half during periods studied.”⁵ Policymakers will need to improve data on migrant populations in urban areas, a challenge complicated by the often blurred line between temporary and permanent migration, and low rates of registration with municipal authorities.

It is also worth keeping in mind that migrants often serve as a valuable resource to a city’s life. Their presence drives the demand for goods and services and has the potential to expand the local labour market and economic activity by multiplying the available human capital. They can enrich a city’s cultural life and foster innovation and intellectual vitality.

The case of “trapped populations”

As highlighted in the UK Foresight report, and somewhat counter-intuitively, climate change may actually put mobility out of reach as a coping strategy, as its cumulative impacts on livelihoods reduce the resources available for migration. There is a risk that populations could become trapped. There will likely be a need for participatory relocation programmes for those who are unable or do not have the resources to move. These programmes would most likely be developed and

implemented in the framework of climate change adaptation policies, but will also clearly need to be taken into account in development planning (to include aspects such as altered population distributions, access to jobs and services, among others) at the national, regional and local levels.

Mobility and increased vulnerability to climate change in urban settings

Notwithstanding the positive dimensions of mobility described previously, many of those migrating to cities may find themselves subject to increased environmental risk. Many urban destinations are subject to real or potential threats such as flooding and landslides. Cities face the challenge of sustained population growth rates (largely due to “natural” growth and also migration⁶), putting pressure on housing availability, land-use planning and access to basic services. As a result, migrants often end up residing in makeshift accommodation in high-risk areas. This was prominent among the findings of the UK Foresight study, and is a very clear example of how development policies need to integrate environmental migration more comprehensively. Foresight reported that “Up to 192 million extra people will be living in vulnerable urban coastal floodplains, mainly in Asia, by 2060.”

The implications for urban planning and land-use regulations are enormous. Population relocation within urban areas is likely to become a major issue, particularly for cities situated in low-lying coastal areas. Many of those needing to be relocated will be migrants, and their specific needs must be taken into account.

Mainstreaming of mobility into urban development and planning policies needs to be undertaken, in some cases, as a matter of urgency.

Could environmental migration be better factored into the policy domain? How?

Improve the policy process

The need for joined-up planning and policies on migration led the International Organization for

4 Leighton, M., 2009.

5 United Nations Development Programme, 2009.

6 Parnell, W., 2011.

Migration (IOM) – with the support of the inter-agency [Global Migration Group](#) – to develop a [handbook](#) for mainstreaming migration into development planning: “Mainstreaming migration in development planning may be defined as the process of assessing the implications of migration on any action (or goals) planned in a development and poverty reduction strategy. This means mainstreaming migration and development concerns into legislation, policies and programmes at all levels (local, national and, if applicable, regional). It also means integrating migration and development concerns at all stages of development planning, including design, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation.”⁷

Environmental migration already figures in the handbook as one of the migration domains to be considered, for example, through a “sectoral checklist”.⁸ While this provides a good starting point, knowledge and work have progressed since the handbook was published in 2010. For example, work has been undertaken on how to integrate environmental migration into National Migration Profiles exercises, which can be a useful tool for the mainstreaming process while simultaneously addressing the “data deficit”.

Explore concrete ways to harness the positive potential of mobility: Diaspora and remittances

There is a need to further explore ways of harnessing migration for development in the context of communities threatened by climate change impacts. How can policies on migration for development be used internally to build climate change resilience in rural areas (most of the work done so far on migration and development has focused on international migration)? How and to what extent could remittances contribute to building resilience in communities of origin? Could remittances be channeled towards climate change adaptation activities, for instance, through matched public funding? Beyond financial remittances, in what other ways could migration contribute to building resilience in communities of origin? Could migrants’ and diasporas’ skills and knowledge be transferred to origin communities in

support of climate change adaptation, drawing on experiences of targeted programmes of temporary return of appropriately qualified migrants/diaspora members?

Sources

Deshingkar, P.

- 2011 Are there examples of remittances being used to build local resilience to environmental change, especially through investment in soil and water conservation, or broader agriculture? Foresight Scientific Review 13, Government Office of Science, London.

International Organization for Migration (IOM)

- 2010 *Mainstreaming Migration into Development Planning: A Handbook for Policy-makers and Practitioners*. IOM, Geneva.

Leighton, M.

- 2009 Migration and slow-onset disasters: Desertification and drought. In: *Migration, Environment and Climate Change: Assessing the Evidence* (F. Laczo and C. Aghazarm, eds.). International Organization for Migration, Geneva.

Parnell, S. and R. Walawege

- 2011 Sub-Saharan African urbanisation and global environmental change. *Global Environmental Change*, 21(S1):S12–S20.

United Nations Task Team on the 2015 Post-2015 UN Development Agenda

- 2013 *A Renewed Global Partnership for Development*. United Nations, New York.

United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development (UNCSD)

- 2012 Migration and sustainable development. Rio 2012 Issues Briefs, No. 15, UNCSD Secretariat, Rio de Janeiro.

United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)

- 2009 *Human Development Report 2009: Overcoming Barriers: Human Mobility and Development*. UNDP, New York.

7 IOM, 2010.

8 Ibid.



Dacope district, Bangladesh, 2011. Due to the cyclone Aila, which hit Bangladesh in May 2009, the river has flooded its banks and some areas and villages were still under water in 2011. © Alessandro Grassani

BRIEF 10: ENVIRONMENTAL MIGRATION AND DISASTER RISK REDUCTION POLICY

OUR KEY MESSAGES

- Human mobility relates to disasters in a number of ways, before, during or after the disaster. Mobility can save lives, enhance resilience and reduce risk, but mobility can also make people more vulnerable and expose them to new risks.
- Since the current [Hyogo Framework for Action](#) (HFA) has limited recognition of human mobility as a driver of risk, the post-2015 agreement on disaster risk reduction (DRR) (HFA2) must adequately recognize mobility as a fundamental human process that – although can increase risk – can also be central to building resilience. The full spectrum of mobility in relation to disasters needs to be better understood and integrated into DRR planning at all levels (international, national and local).
- Data needs to be improved, to allow for displacement tracking and modeling of population movements based on risk assessments.

KEY IOM RESOURCES

- ➔ [IOM Key Advocacy Messages: Mobility and Disaster Risk Reduction](#) (2014)
- ➔ [Population mobility and disaster risk reduction: Perspectives on human mobility and the HFA2 consultation process](#) (2014)
- ➔ [Human mobility: Shaping vulnerability and resilience to disasters – Background paper to the HFA2 dialogue](#) (2014)
- ➔ [The MEND Guide: Comprehensive Guide for Planning Mass Evacuations in Natural Disasters](#) (2014)
- ➔ [The Hyogo Framework, disaster risk reduction and mobility](#) (2013)
- ➔ [Mobility Related Indicators for the Implementation of the UN ACTION PLAN on DRR](#) (2013)
- ➔ [Compendium of IOM Activities in Disaster Risk Reduction and Resilience](#) (2013)
- ➔ [The Migration–Climate Change Nexus: High Level Plenary Remarks by IOM Director General, COP 17](#) (2011)
- ➔ [Disaster Risk Reduction, Climate Change Adaptation and Environmental Migration: A Policy Perspective](#) (2010)
- ➔ [IOM Infosheet: Disaster Risk Reduction and Climate Change Adaptation in IOM's Response to Environmental Migration](#) (2010)

Built upon the notion of resilience, disaster risk reduction (DRR) “describes the concept and practice of reducing disaster risks through systematic efforts to analyse and manage the causal factors of disasters, including through reduced exposure to hazards, lessened vulnerability of people and property, wise management of land and the environment, and improved preparedness for adverse events.”¹

Beyond causing loss of life and major economic, social and environmental damage, disasters can result in massive displacement of populations, sometimes intertwined with other factors, such as conflict, as part of complex emergencies. The International Organization for Migration (IOM) has been actively integrating DRR into its humanitarian response and its recovery and development actions for many years, but in more recent years the Organization has also been advocating increased attention to the mobility dimension within DRR policy discussions.² To understand the linkages between DRR and resilience, IOM highlights the importance of “recognizing migration as a main driver of risk, a significant dimension of vulnerability and an effective strategy for building the resilience of individuals and communities.”³

Existing policy and coordination framework (non-exhaustive)

DRR is prominent on the global agenda notably within development and humanitarian circles, as the high human, economic, social and environmental costs of disasters are gradually better understood.

The UN General Assembly adopted the [International Strategy for Disaster Reduction](#) in December 1999 and established the United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (UNISDR) as the secretariat to ensure its implementation. Among its key tasks, UNISDR supports the implementation of the [Hyogo Framework for Action 2005–2015: Building the Resilience of Nations and Communities to Disasters](#), which was endorsed by the UN General

Assembly, following the 2005 World Disaster Reduction Conference in Kobe, Japan. The HFA is the key policy document on DRR.

At the [Rio+20 United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development](#) in Brazil in 2012, member States requested that DRR be more central to sustainable development policies and plans, and DRR features prominently in ongoing discussions on the [post-2015 development agenda](#).

The HFA does not specifically mention migration and only mentions displacement once, in regard to ensuring that “programmes for displaced persons do not increase risk and vulnerability to hazards.”⁴

As a committed partner of the International Strategy for Disaster Reduction, IOM is seeking to promote a deeper understanding of the complex relationship between disasters and mobility. As mentioned, the HFA does not explicitly mention migration. However, there is space to include relevant migratory issues, for example, the reference to promoting diversified income options to reduce vulnerability.

As with humanitarian response, responsibility for DRR lies primarily with States. Many countries have adopted DRR plans or have established national platforms, although in the case of developing countries, fewer have devoted sufficient resources.⁵ Understanding of and commitment to DRR at the local level is just as – if not more – important. Community-based DRR has become a key part of the policy framework.

Demonstrating the importance attached to DRR, the UN Secretary General created the position of Special Representative for Disaster Risk Reduction in 2008. The Special Representative is responsible for facilitating the development of a post-2015 framework for DRR (HFA2). Seeking to boost the implementation of the current HFA and position the work of the United Nations in the context of ongoing discussions for HFA2 and the post-2015 development framework, UN Heads of Agency endorsed, in April 2013, the UN Action Plan on Disaster Risk Reduction for Resilience.

IOM welcomes the reference to migration in the plan as one component of a holistic DRR approach.

1 UNISDR definitions.

2 Notably through the Global Platform for Disaster Risk Reduction (<http://www.preventionweb.net/globalplatform/2013/>) and participation in the International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (<http://www.unisdr.org/who-we-are/international-strategy-for-disaster-reduction>).

3 IOM, 2013.

4 UNISDR, 2013a, p. 11.

5 UNISDR Regional Office for Africa, 2010.

The document provides an important basis to address the linkages between disaster and human mobility through concrete and integrated responses promoting resilience and reducing forced migration. DRR and resilience building are fully integrated into the [Migration Crisis Operational Framework \(MCOF\)](#), IOM's overarching policy framework for intervention in natural disaster situations, among others.

Key issues: The complex relationship between human mobility and disasters

Human mobility relates to disasters in a number of ways, before, during or after the disaster. While IOM fully supports and implements traditional DRR measures, which seek to reduce or prevent forced migration through early warning systems, hazard mitigation, preparedness and enhanced resilience, there is a need to [better integrate the complex dimensions of mobility](#) into DRR strategies before, during and after the disaster. At each stage, various types of intervention are possible, and mobility can be a way of reducing risk. Some interventions can span across the different phases of the disaster event.

Labour migration can significantly increase resilience through income diversification. Additionally, financial and social remittances and more general engagement of the diasporas can contribute to building resilience at the local level, although further study is needed to better understand this potential. Increased remittance flows in the wake of natural disasters, for example, have already supported post-disaster recovery in a number of countries.

Pre-emptive evacuations to move people and communities out of harm's way before disasters strike can be an effective risk reduction strategy if undertaken in a participatory and sustainable manner.

Evacuations can be extremely effective in saving the lives of people threatened by hazards. Planning for the sudden movement of people, especially in the case of massive movement caused by extreme events, is essential to meet the emergency needs for shelter and assistance, and to ensure evacuees and other affected people are able to recover from the disruption and risks created by their

displacement as safely and quickly as possible. The manner in which evacuations are carried out may significantly affect the ability of practitioners to manage assistance to populations in evacuation sites.

THEMATIC BOX: Understanding unplanned displacement

While this form of displacement is something to be avoided as far as possible (through DRR or evacuation), it is nonetheless a recurrent characteristic of natural disasters. People displaced in this way are particularly vulnerable and must benefit from rapid humanitarian assistance to guarantee their safety. By ensuring that adequate response capacities are in place, this form of mobility can nonetheless be a key factor in reducing loss of life.

Once the displaced population has been mapped and essential humanitarian assistance provided, recovery assistance can involve relocation to a third area, or return. Return should be made an available option wherever conditions allow for it to be undertaken safely. The *IASC Framework on Durable Solutions for Internally Displaced Persons* highlights this safety aspect, emphasizing the implementation or existence of DRR measures as a condition for return:

In the case of return to or settlement in disaster-prone areas, disaster risk reduction measures (early warning, preparedness, mitigation and adaptation) have been implemented to minimize, to the extent possible and reasonable, risks stemming from natural or human-made hazards. In many cases, it is not enough to rebuild the status quo before displacement since it offered insufficient protection. Instead, the national and local authorities and donors should be ready to make substantial investments to "build back better." National and local authorities will need to take measures to reduce the vulnerability of IDPs and the general population from recurrent natural hazards or secondary hazards.⁶

⁶ IASC, 2010, p. 29.

THEMATIC BOX: Hazards versus disasters

It is important to distinguish between disasters and hazards. Natural hazards, such as cyclones or floods, affect all countries. Yet, hazards become disasters only when capacities to prevent, reduce and recover from their impacts are insufficient.

The severity of the effects of natural hazards is shaped by specificities at the society, community and individual levels – the degree of vulnerability is also linked to socioeconomic and political systems.

For example, even in highly developed States (e.g. the United States, the Netherlands and Australia), hazards strike regularly. These hazards have high impacts when they affect unprepared communities, and disproportionately affect vulnerable groups, such as migrants or ethnic minorities.

Emerging issues

Compendium of IOM Activities in Disaster Risk Reduction and Resilience highlights the following emerging issues in the areas of risk reduction and mobility:

- Urbanization fueled by rural urban migration;
- Planned relocations from high-risk areas;
- Mobility as a risk reduction and adaptation strategy;
- National capacity-building in managing displacement and mass evacuations;
- Tracking and modeling population movements based on risk assessments;
- Reducing the vulnerability of displaced persons as well as their impacts on the receiving society and ecosystem;
- Mainstreaming risk reduction in durable solutions to end displacement situations;
- Land and property issues related to risk exposure and risk reduction;
- DRR role in conflict situations (especially where natural resources are an underlying factor of tensions).

How to strengthen disaster risk reduction measures to better address the mobility dimension

Integration of mobility in disaster risk reduction policies and approaches

The full spectrum of mobility in relation to disasters needs to be better understood and integrated into DRR planning at all levels (international, national and local). Despite progress (e.g. mention of *migration* in recent UN Action Plan on DRR), the issue of human mobility is still lacking meaningful recognition and inclusion in key documents.

Funding

In view of the overlaps between emergency/humanitarian and development funding, approaches need to be redefined in order to design and implement comprehensive interventions to reduce disaster risk. This is particularly important in addressing the full spectrum of mobility aspects of DRR, which includes elements that go beyond traditional humanitarian/DRR funding (e.g. preventive relocation, labour migration/remittances for resilience-building). Funding for DRR in general is also insufficient, despite the fact that many DRR measures are relatively not costly to implement.

Improving data and analysis

IOM is also working on developing **mobility-related indicators** that can help measure the role migration and displacement play in strengthening resilience and creating vulnerability, as part of a broad DRR monitoring and evaluation framework. This should help establish the role of migration management policies and activities in managing risk and building community resilience.

IOM IN ACTION: Multiple levels of disaster risk management in the Federated States of Micronesia and the Marshall Islands

In the small island developing States such as the Federated States of Micronesia and the Marshall Islands, efforts to reduce disaster risk have to take into account a wide series of natural hazards, as well as the effects of climate change.

These initiatives are supported by the US Agency for International Development (USAID) and [IOM in the Federated States of Micronesia](#) is active as an operational partner for the implementation of institutional disaster risk management activities in the two countries.

At the same time, IOM works with civil society organizations at the municipal and local levels in the six main population centres (i.e. Majuro, Ebeye, Kosrae, Pohnpei, Chuuk and Yap) to increase their disaster response capacity and coordination mechanisms. The Organization also assists local organizations in conducting hazard, vulnerability and capacity assessments and in compiling multi-hazard disaster risk management plans that are linked to national- and State-level plans.

In order to further support government efforts in the implementation of climate change adaptation and DRR national policies and strategies, IOM is targeting approximately 10,000 school-age students in 50 schools with the Climate Adaptation, Disaster Risk Reduction and Education (CADRE) Programme. The CADRE Programme aims at supporting the adaptation and preparedness strategies of schools and communities that are vulnerable to climate change and natural hazards, and at empowering them to independently cope with and respond to natural disasters.

THEMATIC BOX: Urbanization and disaster risk

- In the last century, population growth has increasingly been concentrated in cities. Today, urban areas are home to over 50 per cent of the world's population and will host about 90 per cent of the total demographic increase over the next decades. In-migration drives urbanization especially in small and mid-size urban areas in developing countries, while internal growth accounts for most of the overall increase.
- Natural disasters and environmental degradation as well as conflicts can be major drivers of rural-to-urban and urban-to-urban migrations. Cities tend to offer stronger assistance and protection systems, and markets that continue to provide goods, even in times of hardship. They provide better access to education and health care and diversification of income opportunities. They allow for a way of life less dependent on locally available natural resources and can multiply the people's capacity to cope with both natural and human-made hazards.
- Nonetheless, with vulnerable populations and unprotected capital increasingly concentrating in cities, urban development also drives disaster risk. In dense urban areas, hazards—even small, localized ones—threaten large populations and substantial economic assets, and can have enormous impacts on the population's settlement and mobility. Due to the heavy concentration of different land uses, natural events often trigger secondary hazards (e.g. fires, explosions, spills), resulting in a catastrophic chain of effects.
- Environmental degradation induced by poorly managed urbanization is a key driver of hazard occurrence. Buildings and infrastructure deeply affect air and water circulation and soil stability, reducing the local ecosystem's capacity to regulate floods, fires, landslides and weather extremes. Insufficiently planned development that does not meet the population's demand for essential services also produces risk, inducing poor and marginal groups, which often cannot rely on effective coping mechanisms for recovering from shocks, to live in unsafe conditions. Risk finds spatial expression in informal settlements of substandard buildings located on land prone to hydro-geological hazards and rarely served by essential services and welfare systems.
- Recognizing the central role of urban governance in reducing disaster risk, UNISDR launched its "Making Cities Resilient" campaign in 2010, in order to raise awareness of urban risk and disaster risk reduction among actors at all administrative levels and to support the implementation of resilience-building initiatives in cities around the world.

Sources

Institute for the Study of International Migration (ISIM)

- 2013 The Hyogo Framework, disaster risk reduction and mobility. Working paper, Crisis Migration Project, ISIM, Georgetown University.

International Organization for Migration (IOM)

- 2013 *Compendium of IOM Activities in Disaster Risk Reduction and Resilience*. IOM, Geneva.

Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC)

- 2010 *IASC Framework on Durable Solutions for Internally Displaced Persons*. The Brookings Institution–University of Bern, Project on Internal Displacement, Washington, D.C.

United Nations

- 2014 Joint UN Statement – 1st Preparatory Committee Meeting (PREPCOM) for the Third UN World Conference on Disaster Risk Reduction. Delivered on 14 July, Geneva.

United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (UNISDR)

- 2013a Hyogo Framework for Action 2005-2015: Building the Resilience of Nations and Communities to Disasters. Extract from the final report of the World Conference on Disaster Reduction, A/CONF.206/6, 18–22 January 2005, Kobe, Hyogo, Japan.
- 2013b Disaster Risk Reduction in the United Nations – Roles, mandates and results of key UN entities. UNISDR, Geneva.

United Nations System Chief Executive Board for Coordination (UN System CEB)

- 2014 How the United Nations System Supports Ambitious Action on Climate Change. UN System CEB, New York and Geneva.

UNISDR Regional Office for Africa

- 2010 *Inventory of National Coordination Mechanisms, Legal Frameworks and National Plans for Disaster Risk Reduction in Africa*. UNISDR Regional Office for Africa, Nairobi.



Debnagar village, Bangladesh, 2011. For the past nine years, the overflowing water from the river in this village has flooded the riverbanks, affecting the homes of families along the banks. Residents are already used to living with high water levels for five months yearly. © Alessandro Grassani

BRIEF II: ENVIRONMENTAL MIGRATION AND HUMANITARIAN POLICY

OUR KEY MESSAGES

- Displacement caused by natural disasters is a major challenge for the global humanitarian response community, a challenge likely to be exacerbated by climate change impacts on frequency and intensity of natural hazards.
- There are a number of relevant policy and operational frameworks in existence, which provide for immediate assistance and protection, and longer-term protection (durable solutions: return, local integration or relocation). Protection frameworks are primarily within the realm of those displaced internally. There is no one applicable framework for protection in the case of displacement across borders.
- There is a need to improve data on those displaced by natural disasters. Real-time displacement tracking data can be an extremely important tool for humanitarian response.
- Funding shortfall and limited response capacity in some of the countries most affected by disaster-induced displacement remain key issues.

KEY IOM RESOURCES

- ➔ *The MEND Guide: Comprehensive Guide for Planning Mass Evacuations in Natural Disasters* (2014)
- ➔ IOM's Migration Crisis Operational Framework (MCOF) (2012)
- ➔ *Internally Displaced Persons: IOM Policy and Activities MC/INF/258* (2002)
- ➔ IOM's Role in the Humanitarian Response to Displacement induced by Natural Disasters (SCPF 2012)

Humanitarian relief includes (usually large-scale) assistance to meet basic needs, and protection (including durable solutions). It must be rapid, coordinated and context-specific (including a gendered approach). Despite increased attention to resources for DRR, major displacement will most likely continue, if not increase, as climate change impacts are felt.

Both sudden- and slow-onset (notably droughts) natural disasters can result in displacement requiring humanitarian relief. In terms of humanitarian response, floods and storms now make up the bulk of sudden-onset international disaster responses. Sudden-onset geophysical events can nevertheless cause massive displacement, such as the 2004 Indian Ocean tsunami and the 2010 Haiti earthquake.

Existing policy and coordination framework (non-exhaustive)

Efforts to develop coordination frameworks have mainly been conducted under the auspices of the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC). Established in 1992, the IASC is the main international mechanism that brings together the key humanitarian actors including relevant agencies from the United Nations system, the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) and key international non-governmental organizations active in humanitarian assistance. The IASC develops policies and operational guidelines, advocates the application of humanitarian principles, and coordinates humanitarian responses, notably through the cluster approach established in 2006, following the Humanitarian Response Review.

The **IASC cluster approach** ensures coordinated operational responses at the central and field levels.¹ Most of the clusters are relevant in the context of humanitarian response to natural disasters. IOM and the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) co-lead the cluster for **camp coordination and camp management (CCCM)** for natural disaster- and conflict-induced internal displacement situations, respectively. Other clusters include: protection; shelter; food security; water, sanitation and hygiene; and logistics.

The IASC released operational guidelines on protecting persons in natural disasters in 2006² and has been an active voice globally in demanding that the humanitarian consequences of climate change be addressed, notably within the **United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC)** context. The Operational Guidelines build on the existing UN Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement and are structured around four groups of rights:

1. Physical security and integrity;
2. Basic necessities;
3. Other economic and social rights (e.g. right to have access to work, right to receive restitution or compensation for lost property);

1 IASC, 2006.

2 See also: IASC, 2008.

4. Other civil and political rights (e.g. free movement and return).

Groups 3 and 4 demonstrate that responses must also address longer-term needs and lead to durable solutions.

What are the main frameworks for internally displaced persons (non-exhaustive)?

In contrast to the international refugee regime, protection frameworks for internally displaced persons designate natural disasters as one of the causes of displacement. Since the majority of natural disaster-displacement is internal these frameworks become all the more relevant.

Key policy frameworks on IDPs are:

- UN Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement (1998)

The UN Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement define internally displaced persons as “. . . persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of residence . . . as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of . . . disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized state border.”³

The Guiding Principles address all phases of displacement (protection from displacement, protection and assistance during displacement, and durable solutions) and set out the basic principles of a human rights-based approach to addressing internal displacement. Although non-binding,⁴ the Guiding Principles have received considerable international endorsement, with some States having directly transposed them into national law. The African Union **Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa**, known as the Kampala Convention, entered into force in December 2012 and essentially transposes the Guiding Principles in binding form at the continental level,⁵ although the Convention

3 United Nations, 1998.

4 Many of the norms contained therein are legally binding, as they are restatements of international legal norms found in treaties and conventions.

5 Note, however, that the Kampala Convention is broader in scope. For example, it mentions climate change as one of the causes of displacement (the Guiding Principles are limited to “natural disasters”). The full text of the Kampala Convention can be downloaded at: <http://www.internal-displacement.org/publications/2010/african-union-convention-for-the-protection-and-assistance-of-internally-displaced-persons-in-africa>.

has yet to be ratified by the majority of African Union member States.

■ IASC Framework on Durable Solutions for Internally Displaced Persons

To further clarify what constitutes a “durable solution” and to provide guidance on how to achieve it, the IASC developed a [Framework on Durable Solutions for Internally Displaced Persons](#), which was issued in 2010 through the UN Secretary General’s Special Representative for the Human Rights of Internally Displaced Persons.⁶ The Framework builds on section V of the 1998 UN Guiding Principles: Principles Relating to Return, Resettlement and Reintegration. It distinguishes between three scenarios: sustainable return, sustainable local integration and sustainable settlement in another part of the country.

What is IOM doing for internally displaced persons?

IOM is one of the agencies involved in assisting internally displaced persons [and its mandate refers specifically to displaced persons](#). IOM provides a broad range of assistance activities to individual persons, such as transport, and fulfilling their basic needs such as food, shelter and other supplies. It also carries out projects related to successful return and reintegration, when conditions allow, for example, vocational training to ensure sustainability over time. Governments are also the beneficiaries of IOM programmes, which build the national capacities needed to manage or prevent internal displacement. IOM carries out these activities in close coordination with other international agencies. IOM’s mandate and role in protecting and assisting internally displaced persons are discussed in detail in a 2002 IOM governing body document.⁷

IOM Migration Crisis Operational Framework

IOM’s Migration Crisis Operational Framework, adopted in 2012, outlines the Organization’s operational response framework for different types

of scenario.⁸ It is organized around two pillars: phase of crisis (before, during and after) and sector of assistance (15 in all, including several within the realm of humanitarian assistance and protection). Scenarios for sudden- and slow-onset natural disasters are included, which also demonstrate how IOM responses fit into and are coordinated with international frameworks (notably the IASC cluster approach in the natural disasters context).

THEMATIC BOX: What is a migration crisis?

Migration crisis is short for “crisis with migration dimensions”. A migration crisis may be sudden or slow in onset, can be caused by natural or human-made factors, and can take place internally or across borders.

Key challenges and how they might be addressed

Greater funding and capacities are needed in order to deal with an already large caseload and even more complex mobility (such as positive impacts of migration or protracted displacement⁹).

In international law, States bear the primary responsibility for assisting and protecting populations exposed to natural disasters, but many do not have either the funds or capacity to fulfill this obligation.

Building the capacities of State authorities (including those at the local level) is therefore a key area to be strengthened. Efforts are already well underway, such as UN support for both preparedness and response through its humanitarian coordinators and

8 The MCOF analyses 15 generic scenarios that can be applied to a migration crisis. Among those are “sudden-onset natural disaster: internal and cross-border movements” and “slow-onset natural disaster: internal and cross-border movements”. Each scenario outlines possible responses and sectors of assistance to be applied. See http://www.iom.int/files/live/sites/iom/files/About-IOM/governing-bodies/en/council/101/MC_2355.pdf.

9 As outlined in the background paper of the International Dialogue on Migration (IDM) intersessional workshop “Moving to Safety: Migration Consequences of Complex Crises”: “. . . Migration crises are not static events. Crisis-related migration rarely ends with one-time, linear displacement from one place to another. Especially once the initial emergency phase has passed, or where displacement has become protracted, the migration consequences of a crisis take a number of complex forms.” See <https://www.iom.int/jahia/webdav/shared/shared/mainsite/microsites/IDM/workshops/moving-to-safety-complex-crises-2012/Background-Paper-EN.pdf>.

6 IASC, 2010.

7 IOM, 2002.

resident coordinators. IOM contributes proactively to this endeavour, notably through training for national and local authorities undertaken as part of its role as the global cluster lead for CCCM for natural disasters.

Current funding is also insufficient. The existing funding mechanisms for humanitarian assistance (for, inter alia, natural disasters), which rely entirely upon donor voluntary contributions, include in particular the Central Emergency Response Fund, the Consolidated Appeals Process (CAP) and individual agency appeal mechanisms. The mechanisms are also increasingly solicited.¹⁰ On average, around 65 per cent of the CAP funding requirements were met from 2009 to 2013.¹¹ Overall, demands for humanitarian funding for natural disasters have consistently increased. The total number of flash appeals has increased considerably in recent years.

Protection of people displaced across borders by natural disasters also needs to be strengthened. While human rights law affords protection in principle, there is no specific instrument dealing with cross-border displacement in the context of natural disasters in the international framework.¹²

There is a need to improve data on those displaced by natural disasters. Gathering data in an emergency setting is a major challenge, where the applicability of certain tools is limited by factors such as security, accessibility and connectivity. IOM has developed a flexible and modular system called the **Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM)**. The DTM has been deployed in a variety of natural disaster, conflict and complex emergency settings. The DTM is a system of tools and processes, which enables tracking and monitoring of displacement situations (including sites of displacement, places of return and the mobility of displaced populations) and provides a better understanding of the evolving needs of a displaced population, on site or en route. At the global level, IOM is currently developing a global platform for all DTM field implementations in the future.¹³

Aggregated data on those displaced by sudden-onset disasters (mainly storms and floods) has improved with the annual publication of [estimates by the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre/Norwegian Refugee Council \(IDMC/NRC\)](#),¹⁴ which include, inter alia, data captured through IOM's DTM. Data on those displaced by slow-onset disasters (notably drought) and processes (e.g. desertification, sea-level rise) remains scarce, linked to the complexity of data collection and establishing the environmental factor as a driver of movement.

The need to strengthen humanitarian programming in urban areas is particularly relevant in the context of environmental migration, with recent research emphasizing the urban dimension,¹⁵ both in terms of rural–urban migration and increasing vulnerability of urban areas to climate change. Work on this aspect is ongoing within the IASC, notably the IASC Reference Group on Meeting Humanitarian Challenges in Urban Areas.

A strengthened linkage with other areas is also a key need, such as DRR and linking relief with rehabilitation and development.

THEMATIC BOX: IOM and the 2016 World Humanitarian Summit

IOM is contributing to processes and discussions in the lead up to the World Humanitarian Summit (WHS), scheduled for May 2016, in Istanbul, Turkey, with a view to ensure migration issues are featured in the Secretary General's report to be published before the Summit.

Thanks to its global presence, IOM works directly with those in need of humanitarian assistance – including migrants and populations displaced by natural disasters. IOM will draw on its expertise on different areas to engage with the WHS Initiative: disaster risk reduction, assisting mobile populations, migrants in crisis, humanitarian border management, counter-trafficking, urbanization and migrants in cities. IOM will take the opportunity to bring into the WHS process the voices of those affected and make sure that migration and migrants are fully considered in humanitarian response and recovery efforts.

10 Financial Tracking Service, 2014.

11 See <http://fts.unocha.org/pageloader.aspx?page=emerg-emergencies§ion=CE&year=2014>.

12 This issue is discussed in more detail in Brief 4.

13 Examples of usage of IOM's DTM are given in Brief 14.

14 IDMC, 2014.

15 United Kingdom, Government Office for Science, 2011.

Sources

African Union

- 2010 African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa. Full text of the Kampala Convention, 23 October, Kampala, Uganda.

Financial Tracking Service

- 2014 Response Plans in 2014. Available from <http://fts.unocha.org/pageloader.aspx?page=emerg-emergencies§ion=CE&year=2014>.

Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC)

- 2006 Guidance Note on Using the Cluster Approach to Strengthen Humanitarian Response. IASC, Geneva.
- 2008 *Human Rights and Natural Disasters: Operational Guidelines and Field Manual on Human Rights Protection in Situations of Natural Disaster*. The Brookings Institution–University of Bern Project on Internal Displacement, Washington, D.C.
- 2010 *IASC Framework on Durable Solutions for Internally Displaced Person*. The Brookings Institution–University of Bern Project on Internal Displacement, Washington, D.C.

Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC)

- 2014 *Global Estimates: People Displaced by Disasters*. IDMC, Geneva.

International Organization for Migration (IOM)

- 2002 Internally Displaced Persons: IOM Policy and Activities, MC/INF/258. IOM, Geneva. Available from http://www.iom.int/jahia/webdav/shared/shared/mainsite/about_iom/en/council/84/Mcinf258.pdf.
- 2012 IOM Migration Crisis Operational Framework, MC/2355. IOM, Geneva. Available from http://www.iom.int/files/live/sites/iom/files/About-IOM/governing-bodies/en/council/101/MC_2355.pdf.

United Kingdom, Government Office for Science

- 2011 *Foresight: Migration and Global Environmental Change: Future Challenges and Opportunities*. Final Project Report, Government Office for Science, London.

United Nations

- 1998 *Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement*. United Nations, New York.



Turkana County, Kenya, 2014. A shepherd of the Turkana tribe looks for grazing land for his flock, along the border between Kenya and Ethiopia, near the Todonyang village. © Alessandro Grassani

BRIEF 12: ENVIRONMENTAL MIGRATION AND SECURITY POLICY

OUR KEY MESSAGES

- The linkages between environment, migration and (in)security are complex; scientific literature is inconclusive in regard to direct linear relationships.
- Linear, deterministic approaches should therefore be avoided – such approaches generally fail to acknowledge the complexity of migration, the different forms of migration or environmental stressor, or the importance of contextual factors in receiving areas (local and national levels) in shaping how in-migration might exacerbate the potential for conflict effects.
- The issue can be approached from a national security perspective or a human security perspective. The International Organization for Migration (IOM) favours the human security approach, which considers physical security as but one of many dimensions of an individual's security (food/livelihood security, water security, etc.). The human security approach is all the more relevant in the context of climate change, which impacts multiple dimensions.

KEY IOM RESOURCES

- ➔ Migration Research Series No. 42: *Climate Change, Migration and Critical International Security Considerations* (2011)
- ➔ *Livelihood Security Climate Change, Migration and Conflict in the Sahel* (2011)

Existing policy and coordination framework

It would be premature to talk of a policy or coordination framework dealing with environmental migration in the traditional “national security” policy domain. Nonetheless, the security implications of climate change are increasingly discussed at the international level.¹ In these discussions, climate change is often portrayed as a threat multiplier. In his 2009 report to the UN General Assembly, the UN Secretary General specifically cited environmental migration as a threat to peace and security.² Such views have their roots in the environmental security and conflict studies fields, usually analysing climate change in terms of increased pressure on scarce resources, leading to migration and then conflict, or to conflict then migration and to conflict again (respectively known as the direct and indirect pathways).³

In the aforementioned report, the UN Secretary General also identified the absence of a specific legal framework for those displaced across borders by climate or environmental change⁴ as a national security risk.⁵

1 See, for example, the discussion in the sixty-fourth session of the UN General Assembly (September 2009) of the UN Secretary General's Report, “Climate Change and its Possible Security Implications,” or the open session debate held in July 2011 at the UN Security Council.

2 United Nations, 2009.

3 Warnecke, A., D. Tänzler and R. Vollmer, 2010.

4 Those displaced through the “indirect pathway” would, however, be covered by existing humanitarian/refugee protection frameworks.

5 United Nations, 2009. As stated in the report: “... the international community must anticipate and prepare itself to address a number of largely unprecedented challenges posed by climate change for which the existing mechanisms may prove inadequate: one is the possibility of large numbers of persons displaced across borders by climate change, which existing international law cannot adequately address, especially if they have no country to which to return.”

However, evidence for direct linkages between climate change, migration and (in)security is inconclusive. In its recently published [Fifth Assessment Report](#), the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change is cautious in regard to the issue. For example, the report states that “longer term environmental change caused by climate change also amplifies existing trends such as rural to urban migration,” but “there is no established evidence that rapid urbanization itself is a source of conflict,” citing research on social disorder and population growth in 55 cities in Africa, which found that rapid growth of city populations does not drive unrest.

The “securitization” of climate change is contested by the G77 and the Non-Aligned Movement, which see it as undermining the focus on addressing climate change through the traditional pillars of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (mitigation, adaptation, etc.). This divergence of approach was highlighted during an open session on the topic convened by the Security Council in 2011, with several States contesting the legitimacy of the Security Council to debate the topic. Notwithstanding the differences of approach, the migration/displacement/relocation implications of climate change were mentioned in several statements.

A human security perspective

IOM approaches the issue through the lens of human security, a concept that puts the individual at the centre of analysis and considers physical security (from war or violence) as only one of several security needs (food security, water security, environmental security, livelihood security, etc.). All have implications for migration. A human security approach to environmental migration calls for a comprehensive but differentiated approach based on a region-specific context, assessing the types of events (e.g. sudden, slow, irreversible or cumulative onsets) and corroborating it with socioeconomic factors (level of development and governance, existing conflict situation, demographic pressure, etc.) and individual vulnerability factors (gender, poverty, dependency on immediate environment for livelihood, etc.).

These risk factors can all have an impact on the security of individuals and affect the migratory consequences of environmental factors. Migration is not vulnerability per se. It can be both a negative and a positive response to vulnerability linked to

climate change, depending inter alia on the extent to which it is planned or done voluntary or by force. The traditional security approach fails to provide an adequate framework to understand and address the security implications of climate change in terms of human mobility. By contrast, the human security approach puts vulnerable people (as opposed to States) at the centre in order to assess the linkages and interdependency between development, human rights and national security. It is likely that both the traditional, national security approach and the human security approach will continue to co-exist.

Some attention has been given to the climate change–migration–security nexus in regional groupings,⁶ notably the European Union. In 2008, the then High Representative for Common Foreign and Security Policy Javier Solana and the European Commission submitted a [joint report to the European Council on climate change and international security](#), which was also known as the Solana Report.⁷ Environmentally induced migration is identified exclusively as a threat: “Such migration may increase conflicts in transit and destination areas. Europe must expect substantially increased migratory pressure.” More recently, in 2011, a [joint reflection paper submitted by the European External Action Service and the Commission](#) also referenced migration within this context, stating that, “*while climate change alone does not cause conflict, it is leading to increased competition for scarce natural resources, further weakens fragile governments and exacerbates migratory pressures.*”⁸ While the wording is more cautious than that used in the 2008 Solana Report, it would seem to reflect a continuity of approach.

The operational response

At the operational level, relevant guidelines are contained within the [Camp Management Toolkit](#), a comprehensive document developed by a group of agencies and used widely in field operations. The Toolkit covers camps for refugees and internally displaced persons, and is applicable in both conflict and natural disaster settings. The 2008 revised version of the *Camp Management Toolkit* covers, inter alia, measures to reduce the risk of

⁶ Popp, K., 2014.

⁷ European Commission, 2008.

⁸ European Council, 2011.

conflict with receiving communities (access to local resources, employment, etc.) and to resolve conflict where it arises.⁹ The Toolkit would seem to reflect a typical human security approach, with its emphasis on the local level and contextual factors. Similarly, the 2014 [Camp Closure Guidelines](#) touch upon security issues arising when closing camps.

Key challenges

- Causal relationships between climate change, conflict and migration are complex, and empirical evidence is lacking. It cannot even be taken for granted that conflict (whether linked to environmental factors or scarcity, or not) leads to migration.¹⁰ Analysts have investigated the impacts of large-scale population movements, such as when camps for refugees and internally displaced persons in relation to potential tension with host communities. The empirical evidence for a causal relationship between migration and security in this context is ambiguous,¹¹ with some studies¹² having found statistically significant evidence of a link while others¹³ have found none. Few studies have considered environmental migration specifically,¹⁴ but there are good reasons to suppose that environmental migration would be less likely to lead to conflicts with receiving communities than conflict-induced displacement.
- It is important to differentiate between migration linked to sudden-onset natural disasters (large-scale, rapid and often temporary) and movements linked to slow-onset phenomena. Within the latter, it is necessary to distinguish between the smaller-scale, often “circular” movements associated with early stages of degradation, and potentially large and permanent outmigration caused once certain tipping points are reached.

- Sudden-onset natural disasters involve the type of large-scale movements presumed to present higher conflict risk. Conflicts with receiving communities over scarce resources are more likely in situations of protracted displacement, although a host of other factors come into play (see below).
- The destabilizing effects of large-scale in-migration must be considered in parallel with contextual factors in the receiving area. Conflict may arise when migrants, particularly those of a different nationality or ethnicity, move quickly or in large numbers to areas already suffering from tensions over access to scarce resources and where coping mechanisms are absent. Property claim disputes and increased demands on limited publicly funded health and social systems can also generate frictions.¹⁵ However, it should be noted that in such cases migration is an exacerbating factor rather than a determining factor – in a context of existing political instability, weak governance and structural development issues. In this context, it is also important to consider the relevance of mutual perceptions among host and refugee communities when trying to assess the likelihood of (violent) conflict in receiving areas.¹⁶ In general, security implications are more likely when sudden-onset disasters are a recurring feature, and in areas where vulnerabilities are cumulated. Some areas are simultaneously subject to sudden- and slow-onset phenomena.
- In contrast to the potentially destabilizing effects of large-scale in-migration, recent studies suggest that where environmental migration caused by slow-onset phenomena may be linked to tensions, these will most likely be short-term and low-intensity, at least until “tipping points” are reached.¹⁷ Policymakers will nonetheless be challenged to integrate the new arrivals without alienating

9 IOM is one of the six agencies of the Camp Management Project which produced the 2008 revised Guidelines.

10 Raleigh, C., 2011.

11 Warnecke A., D. Tänzler and R. Vollmer, 2010.

12 Salehyan, I. and K.S. Gleditsch, 2006.

13 Weidmann N.B., P. Kuhn and V. Nikolic, 2007.

14 Reuveny, R., 2007.

15 United Nations, 2009.

16 Martin, A., 2005.

17 Gleditsch, N.P., R. Nordås and I. Salehyan, 2007.

the receiving communities. Addressing rural–urban migration caused by slow-onset environmental factors will need to link up with overall urbanization and development policies.

- Particularly at early stages, migration linked to environmental degradation can have positive effects, which reduce the likelihood of conflict. This can be in terms of reduced population pressure on resources in the area of origin, and decreased reliance on the environment for livelihood in those areas by allowing, for example, income diversification through remittances.

Could environmental migration be better factored into the security policy domain?

As described previously, divergent approaches to security shape how policy responses to climate change and environmental migration are framed. At present, the traditional, national security approach is the most visible in regard to the security implications of climate change, but it fails to adequately factor migration and displacement into its analytical framework. Linear, deterministic analyses that perceive environmental migration only as a climate change–conflict transmission mechanism should be avoided.

Such approaches generally fail to acknowledge the complexity of migration, the different forms of migration or environmental stressor, or the importance of contextual factors in receiving areas (local and national levels) in shaping how in-migration might exacerbate the potential for conflict effects. It is nonetheless true that many likely receiving areas for environmental migration are currently ill equipped to assist or integrate large numbers of environmental migrants, and many are themselves vulnerable to environmental or climate change.

Data to inform policy

Regardless of the security angle from which environmental migration is approached, better data and understanding of various aspects is needed. More and better data on likely future environmental migration and displacement would

allow for identifying likely receiving areas and planning accordingly to avoid tensions or conflict with the receiving communities. This is more difficult in the case of sudden-onset disasters, where exact geographical location is difficult to predict (some areas are nevertheless identifiable as subject to recurrent incidence of this type of disaster). In the case of slow-onset events and processes, study of routes and destinations of existing forms of migration should be pursued as a key line of inquiry, since research usually shows that “new migration” tends to flow along existing routes rather than new routes.

Better understanding of how different types of environmental in-migration can interact with contextual factors in receiving areas (local and national levels) and potentially exacerbate conflict risk is needed. At the same time, the potentially positive effects of migration (particularly during the early stages of slow-onset phenomena) for the areas of origin need to be better understood. Policy measures to “block” environmental migration are more likely to have adverse security outcomes in the longer term, in origin, transit and destination areas.

Supporting migrants and host communities

In the case of large-scale displacement caused by natural disasters, ensuring adequate humanitarian assistance will be a key factor in reducing conflict potential, and it is also the key to preventing the build-up of longer-term tensions at the local level between displaced populations and receiving communities. Where the displaced persons are in camps, systematic application of the relevant guidelines contained in the inter-agency *Camp Management Toolkit* would go a long way to preventing conflicts.

In general, more attention and resources will need to be devoted to supporting host communities, whether in sudden- or slow-onset environmental migration contexts. This can be in terms of bolstering public services (water, health, sanitation, etc.), and/or preserving natural resources which may be put under strain. Land tenure regulations and urban planning may also be key areas to be strengthened. In many ways, these needs are part of a general need for development, yet it may be crucial to target these areas nationally (and internationally) for priority assistance.

Measures designed to facilitate the integration of environmental migrants (as with other migrants) may also help reduce the potential for tensions with receiving communities. These may include public information campaigns, cultural orientation, language training and anti-discrimination measures.

Sources

European Commission

- 2008 Climate change and international security. Paper from the High Representative and the European Commission to the European Council, S113/08, Brussels.

European Council

- 2011 Towards a renewed and strengthened EU climate diplomacy. Joint reflection paper of the European External Action Service and the European Commission, Brussels.

Gleditsch, N.P., R. Nordås and I. Salehyan

- 2007 Climate Change and Conflict: The Migration Link. Coping with Crisis Working Paper Series, International Peace Academy, New York.

Global Camp Coordination and Camp Management (CCCM) Cluster

- 2014 Camp Closure Guidelines.

Martin, A.

- 2005 Environmental conflict between refugee and host communities. *Journal of Peace Research*, 42(3):329–346.

Norwegian Refugee Council (NRC)/Camp Management Project (CMP)

- 2008 *Camp Management Toolkit*. NRC/CMP, Oslo, pp. 375–377.

Popp, K.

- 2014 Regional policy perspectives. In: *People on the Move in a Changing Climate: The Regional Impact of Environmental Change on Migration* (E. Piguet and F. Laczkó, eds.). Global Migration Issues, Vol. 2, Springer, Dordrecht.

Raleigh, C.

- 2011 The search for safety: The effects of conflict, poverty and ecological influences on migration in the developing world. *Global Environmental Change*, 21(S1):S82–S93.

Reuveny, R.

- 2007 Climate change induced migration and violent conflict. *Political Geography*, 26:656–673.

Salehyan, I. and K.S. Gleditsch

- 2006 Refugee flows and the spread of Civil War. *International Organization*, 60(2):335–366.

United Nations

- 2009 Climate change and its possible security implications. Report of the Secretary General, A/64/350, presented during the sixty-fourth session of the UN General Assembly, New York, 11 September.

United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) et al.

- 2011 *Livelihood Security Climate Change, Migration and Conflict in the Sahel*. UNEP, Geneva.

Warnecke, A., D. Tänzler and R. Vollmer

- 2010 Climate change, migration and conflict: Receiving communities under pressure? German Marshall Fund of the United States, Washington.

Weidmann, N.B., P. Kuhn and V. Nikolic

- 2007 Refugees as local catalysts of conflict? A statistical assessment. Paper presented at the Forty-eighth ISA Convention, Chicago.



Seis village, Ethiopia, 2014. A deserted landscape in the surroundings of the Seis village, along the border between Kenya and Ethiopia. © Alessandro Grassani

BRIEF 13: A GENDER APPROACH TO ENVIRONMENTAL MIGRATION

OUR KEY MESSAGES

- Environmental change and natural disasters affect men and women in different ways. Vulnerability to climate and environmental stressors is also shaped by gender roles and responsibilities.
- Gender is a key analytical tool when looking for adequate and durable responses to environmental migration that are mindful of differentiated gender needs and impacts.
- Gender roles and relations significantly affect women's and men's decisions to migrate for environmental reasons and experiences of migration.
- Gender-equality concerns must be integrated into international negotiations and agreements on climate change mitigation and adaptation, and environmental migration discussions more broadly, to ensure that policies are effective, fair and implementable on the ground, and that they do not exacerbate existing inequalities and vulnerabilities or create new ones.

KEY IOM RESOURCES

- ➔ IOM Infosheet: Gender and Migration
- ➔ IOM Infosheet: Gender Focus in Emergency and Post-crisis
- ➔ IOM Infosheet: Rural Women and Migration (2009)
- ➔ *Gender and Labour Migration in Asia* (2009)

It is increasingly acknowledged that gender is one of the most important factors shaping the migratory experience. Migration is inherently gendered – women and men tend to have different migration patterns at every stage of the migration cycle (pre-departure, transit, arrival, stay and return). The pressure to migrate, risk perception, priorities, strategies, destination choices, employment prospects, access to integration or reintegration activities also vary by gender.¹ Experience shows that migration can lead to shifts in gender roles, contribute to changing oppressive gender relations, and provide new opportunities to improve women's and men's lives.

However, it is important to underline that migration can also exacerbate existing inequalities between women and men, expose them to new vulnerabilities, and intensify gendered experiences of poverty, discrimination and socioeconomic inequality.² Gender is therefore critically relevant to most, if not all, aspects of migration and is a crucial factor in understanding the causes and consequences of migration.³

Decoding the nexus between migration, environment and gender

The gender dimension must be taken into account when considering the relationship between migration, environment and climate change. Environmental migration, like other types of migration, is indeed a gendered process:

1 Piper, N., 2005.

2 Jolly, S. and H. Reeves, 2005.

3 International Organization for Migration (IOM), 2009a.

vulnerabilities, experiences, needs and priorities of environmental migrants vary according to women's and men's different roles, responsibilities, access to information and resources, education, physical security, and employment opportunities.

While the linkages between migration, environment and climate change are now widely studied, discussions within public, policy and academic realms regarding environmental migration are often gender-neutral⁴ and few studies make the link between migration, environment and gender.

Why is it important to analyse environmental migration through the gender prism?

Cultural norms, gender roles and unequal migration policies may limit women's and men's ability to migrate: in some regions, women household members are more likely to migrate; in other regions, it is men who typically move.⁵ Migration can be a strategy in the event of imminent or acute natural disasters and can also represent a common coping or adaptation strategy where environmental degradation is not yet too severe.

Integrating considerations of gender into environmental migration analysis can help understand how the gender dimension influences the decisions of women and men affected by natural hazards or environmental degradation. Applying a gender analysis to environmental migration may lead to a more accurate understanding of this process and is also necessary to address the particular vulnerabilities, experiences, and needs of women and men migrants so that policies, programmes and projects can respond to gender-specific objectives.

Taking into account gender considerations in environmental migration management policies and programmes can help:

- Reduce vulnerability of populations exposed to environmental risk factors;

- Prevent forced migration due to environmental factors to the extent possible;
- Facilitate migration as an adaptation strategy to climate change;
- Tailor assistance to populations on the move as a result of environmental causes;
- Identify durable solutions adapted to differentiated gender needs.

Gender-blind policies run the risk of proposing inappropriate responses to climatic and environmental problems and are less likely to succeed. A gendered analysis is therefore crucial to developing and deploying responsive strategies that are effective and fair to both female and male environmental migrants, and that do not exacerbate existing gender inequalities or create new ones. Furthermore, comprehensive gender-sensitive considerations help assess the different impacts of policies and legislation on women and men, as part of different social groups, to ensure that actions do not exclude or harm other social groups.⁶

What are the gender differences in vulnerability to climate change?

Environmental migration 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.

Overall, those who are economically, politically and socially marginalized within the communities affected by natural hazards and environmental degradation experience the impacts of climate change most acutely. They are also those who have the fewest opportunities to access information, to prepare for the impacts of climate change and to wilfully migrate, as migration requires economic capacities and social resources that are not available to everyone. Due to issues pertaining to opportunities and capabilities, the marginalized groups left behind in the face of natural disasters

4 Women's Environment and Development Organization, 2008.

5 The Philippines represents the largest exporter of female labour migrants throughout the world: in 2005, nearly 70 per cent of Filipino international migrants were females (IOM, 2004). In Mexico, the majority of the migrants are males and leave to work particularly in the United States (IOM, 2004).

6 Warner, K. et al., 2012.

and environmental crisis usually include the poor, the elderly, women, children, and/or minorities that face cultural or religious restrictions on their mobility.⁷

Gender is a crucial element in shaping vulnerability to climate change and influencing the subsequent probability of migration. If the link between poverty and vulnerability can be easily understood, the relationship between gender, vulnerability and probability of migration is more difficult to explain since it is shaped by other social, cultural, economic, ecological and political factors. A number of empirical studies investigating vulnerabilities to climate change from a gender perspective have shown that women are generally more exposed to environmental and climatic risks and more affected by their impacts due to specific gender roles and responsibilities that have been historically and socially assigned to them.⁸

Unequal gender distribution of roles and responsibilities and unequal access to resources may, indeed, make women more vulnerable than men to the impacts of climate change and natural disasters in both developed and developing countries.⁹ Data and experiences of current exposure to climate-related hazards suggest that, in most developing countries, because of a deeper economic and social gender divide, women often experience larger negative impacts of climate variability and change than men do¹⁰ as they tend to be poorer and less educated than men, to rely more on natural resources for their livelihood and to face social, economic, and political barriers that limit their coping and adaptive capacities.¹¹

Gendered power relations, cultural norms and values, together with the gendered division of labour, deeply affect and differentiate the adaptive capacity of women and men. For example, in some communities, cultural norms can restrict the freedom and/or movement of women, especially in the absence of an adult male relative, making it more difficult for women to seek help or shelter when disasters occur. This limited mobility also often means that women are less aware of the

information available during times of crisis or leading up to it.

It is also widely documented that gender powerfully shapes human responses to disaster, both directly and indirectly. Women are especially hard hit by the social impacts of natural disasters. Post-disaster mortality, injury and illness rates tend to be higher for women due to their limited and reduced mobility and their role in taking care of and looking after the health of family members.¹²

Although women are likely to be unequally at risk of loss and harm, disproportionately affected and less able to recover, experiences of powerlessness can leave men, like women, particularly vulnerable to climate change. Some evidence suggests that, in specific and particular situations, men can be more exposed to natural hazards, including secondary hazards related to emergency assistance, and that they might be less aware of risks and less ready to mobilize social capital to initiate a migratory movement.¹³

While in most cases addressing vulnerabilities based on gender involves promoting women's equality, it is important to adequately consider also men's vulnerabilities and integrate the gender dimension in disaster risk assessment, reduction and management.¹⁴ Indeed, both women and men have particular economic and social disadvantages that make them vulnerable to climate change, although their vulnerabilities are not always the same as they often interact with their physical environment in different ways.¹⁵

THEMATIC BOX: Looking at environmental migration from a gender perspective in Nepal and the Upper Indus Basin

The impacts of climate change vary widely across the world according to different environmental, economic, political, social and cultural contexts. People living in rural areas and relying on local natural resources and environment for subsistence and income will certainly feel these effects most intensely. In those regions, gender relations will shape differently the impacts of climate change and the varying responses of women and men to them.

7 Chindarkar, N., 2012.

8 Women's Environmental Network, 2010.

9 Masika, R., 2002.

10 Chindarkar, N., 2012.

11 Masika, R., 2002.

12 Fothergill, A., 1996.

13 IOM, 2013.

14 Ibid.

15 Chindarkar, N., 2012.

- In rural Nepal, the effects of climate variability vary by gender, with women being more affected by changes. In the Chitwan Valley, nearly all households rely on firewood for heating and cooking and depend on the local environment to create market goods such as reed baskets. The collection of these resources in this region is a highly gendered activity, with women primarily responsible for fetching firewood. Due to climate change and environmental degradation, local forests are gradually declining in this area. Recent studies have shown that an increase in the collection time for firewood and a decline in agricultural productivity increase the probability of local female migration.¹
- The Upper Indus Basin, within the Karakoram and Hindu Kush Mountains, is one of the recognized hot spots of climate change. The entire area is very sensitive to potential shifts as the Indian monsoon patterns and melting glaciers increase the risk of flooding during the winter season and of drought in the summer season. Local communities are adapting in various ways to climate change; labour migration is one of the adaptive strategies most resorted to. It has been proven that migration as adaptation to climate change in the Upper Indus Basin is a highly gendered phenomenon: due to gendered relations, cultural norms and the gendered division of labour, virtually only men are allowed to move to seek employment elsewhere. Women are left behind to take care of the agricultural work and the household and to manage natural resources.²

¹ Massey, D., W. Axinn and D. Ghimire, 2010.

² Gioli, G., 2012.

The gender–migration–environment nexus: What can be done?

Effectively integrating gender concerns in responses to environmental migration means promoting a range of good practices, such as:

- Promoting awareness about gender roles, relations and inequalities in environmental migration;

- Supporting research projects, programme formulations, and case studies designed and conducted with a focus on gender issues;
- Developing gender-sensitive environmental migration materials to be used in training by women's, environmental or migration organizations;
- Collecting, analysing and disseminating regularly sex- and age-disaggregated data in order to better understand migration patterns and formulate more effective policies;
- Addressing barriers to equal participation and engagement in community and household decision-making processes;
- Enlisting both women and men as key environmental actors in natural disaster management.

IOM is committed to [mainstreaming the Organization's gender policy](#) throughout IOM activities and programmes, and supports the development of initiatives to address the specific gender-related needs of migrants.

Sources

Chindarkar, N.

2012 Gender and climate change-induced migration: Proposing a framework for analysis. *Environmental Research Letters*, doi:10.1088/1748-9326/7/2/025601.

Fothergill, A.

1996 Gender, risk and disaster. *International Journal of Mass Emergencies and Disasters*, 14(1):33–56.

Gioli, G.

2012 Gender and environmental migration in the Upper Indus Basin.

Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC)

2006 *Women, Girls, Boys and Men: Different Needs – Equal Opportunities: Gender Handbook in Humanitarian Action*. IASC, Geneva.

- International Organization for Migration (IOM)
- 2002 Gender and Migration. Infosheet, IOM, Geneva.
 - 2004 *The World in Motion: Short Essays on Migration and Gender*. IOM, Geneva.
 - 2005 *Migration, Development and Poverty Reduction in Asia*. IOM, Geneva.
 - 2009a Introduction. In: *Gender and Labour Migration in Asia*. IOM, Geneva.
 - 2009b How Can I Better Understand Gender Terms and Concepts? Infosheet, IOM, Geneva.
 - 2011a *Glossary on Migration*. Second edition, IOM, Geneva.
 - 2011b *World Migration Report 2011: Communicating Effectively about Migration*. IOM, Geneva.
 - 2013 *Compendium of IOM Activities in Disaster Risk Reduction and Resilience*. IOM, Geneva.
- Jolly, S. and H. Reeves
- 2005 *Gender and Migration: Overview Report*. BRIDGE Development–Gender, Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex, Brighton.
- Masika, R.
- 2002 Editorial. *Gender and Development*, 10(2):2–9.
- Massey, D., W. Axinn and D. Ghimire
- 2010 Environmental change and out-migration: Evidence from Nepal. *Population and Environment*, 32(2–3):109–136.
- Piper, N.
- 2005 Gender and Migration. Background paper for the Global Commission on International Migration (GCIM) and appendix to the GCIM Global Report on Migration, Recommendations to the Secretary General.
- United Nations International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (UN-INSTRAW)
- 2009 Glossary of Gender-related Terms and Concepts.
- Warner, K. et al.
- 2012 *Where the Rain Falls: Climate Change, Food and Livelihood Security, and Migration*. United Nations University, Tokyo.
- Women's Environment and Development Organization
- 2008 What it means for women. Climate Change and Displacement, *Forced Migration Review*, 31:56.
- Women's Environmental Network (WEN)
- 2010 *Gender and the Climate Change Agenda: The Impacts of Climate Change on Women and Public Policy*. WEN, London.



Dacope district, Bangladesh, 2011. Due to the cyclone Aila, which hit Bangladesh in May 2009, thousands of people were still displaced in 2011. The area was once a farmland and has completely dried up due to the infiltration of seawater brought by the cyclone Aila and by shrimp farming. The lack of drinking water is the biggest problem for people living in the area. © Alessandro Grassani

BRIEF 14: IOM OPERATIONAL RESPONSES TO ENVIRONMENTAL MIGRATION AND DISPLACEMENT

OUR KEY MESSAGES

- Since 2000, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) has implemented over 750 projects worldwide to respond to the challenges of environmental migration.
- IOM intervenes at every stage of the migration cycle to propose comprehensive responses centred on addressing environmental migration and displacement, preparing for, preventing and responding to displacement, mitigating the impact of environmental migration and displacement on destination areas, and proposing durable solutions.
- These projects demonstrate that creative solutions do exist for communities and individuals affected by environmental degradation, climate change and natural disasters. Migration does not have to be the last resort measure; it can also be a positive driver for change.

KEY IOM RESOURCES

- ➔ *Compendium of IOM Activities in Disaster Risk Reduction and Resilience* (2013)
- ➔ IOM Infosheet: Programmatic Activities on Migration, Environment and Climate Change (2014)
- ➔ IOM Infosheet: Displacement Tracking Matrix (2013)
- ➔ IOM Infosheet: Migration Crises – Migrant Health and Psychosocial Support (2011)

IOM applies a migration management approach to respond to environmentally induced migration and displacement situations, built around three central objectives:

- To prevent forced migration resulting from environmental factors to the extent possible;
- To provide assistance and protection to affected populations where forced migration does occur, and to seek durable solutions to their situation;
- To facilitate migration as a climate change adaptation strategy and enhance resilience of affected communities.

To achieve these goals, IOM intervenes at all stages of the migration cycle to prevent, prepare for, respond to, mitigate the impact of, and address instances of environmental migration and displacement. This document highlights some examples of IOM operational work in this area – most of the examples are extracted from *Compendium of IOM Activities in Disaster Risk Reduction and Resilience*.

Preventing displacement

IOM undertakes a wide variety of actions designed to minimize forced migration in contexts of natural disasters and environmental degradation linked to climate change. Infrastructure interventions to reduce exposure to disaster risk form a prominent pillar of the Organization's work in this area, as do projects designed to strengthen livelihoods (sometimes the two are linked). Interventions designed to promote mobility can also contribute to reducing forced migration, this being a more recent area of activity.

What can be done to prevent displacement?

In close partnership with local communities and relevant national authorities, IOM has helped to protect lives and livelihoods through interventions such as:

■ Infrastructure interventions

The majority of IOM activities in this area have been undertaken in sudden-onset contexts, primarily in relation to floods and storms.

- » Construction or rehabilitation of coastal storm defence systems;
- » Construction of flood-resistant housing;
- » Construction of water-harvesting structures such as water pans and shallow wells;
- » Micro-infrastructure for soil conservation to reduce flood or landslide risk.

Wherever possible, IOM interventions source construction materials locally and hire labour from among the affected populations.

■ Livelihood interventions

Comprehensive approaches to strengthen and diversify livelihoods in order to build resilience can include:

- » Risk assessment and mapping;
- » Introduction of drought-resistant crops;
- » Promoting conservation to avoid coping responses that negatively affect livelihoods in the long term;
- » Income diversification for small-scale farmers;
- » Training and provision of equipment for animal health workers.

■ Promoting mobility as a strategy to build resilience

IOM interventions in this area have included support to pastoralist communities to protect traditional, mobility-based strategies threatened by recurrent drought, localized inter-group resource-conflict and diverse obstacles to mobility (including

national borders). Comprehensive approaches have involved combining livelihood support measures with advocacy and awareness-raising.

IOM has also sought to promote temporary and/or circular labour migration schemes to prevent the loss of livelihood associated with environmental degradation and natural hazards by facilitating institutional arrangements, transportation and access to labour markets. This has included components designed to strengthen resilience in communities of origin, for example by mobilizing the migrants as “agents of development” in their home communities.

IOM has also carried out assessments to better understand the use of temporary labour migration as a coping strategy in the face of environmental pressure on livelihoods,¹ or how diasporas support countries of origin hit by natural disasters, notably through financial remittances. In 2008, for instance, an IOM study on Guatemala found a sharp increase in remittances for reconstruction in the aftermath of disasters. A relevant indicator was the fact that families receiving remittances usually lived in concrete houses (94.5%) that help them to better cope with natural hazards.

IOM IN ACTION: Comprehensive livelihood support in Kenya

IOM is engaged in supporting pastoralist communities in the arid and semi-arid zones of Kenya, particularly in the north and north-east, which have been negatively impacted by recurrent drought and erratic rainfall. Many of these communities have been put under additional strain by large refugee influxes from Somalia (notably following the 2011 drought). In partnership with other international agencies, IOM has provided extensive support to these communities to preserve their traditional mobility-based livelihood model (cattle herding) while also promoting income diversification in order to mitigate risk. Examples of the former include

- Construction of water-harvesting structures such as water pans and shallow wells;

1 See, for example, the IOM-commissioned study in Tajikistan published in 2012, available from http://publications.iom.int/bookstore/index.php?main_page=product_info&cPath=41_7&products_id=820.

- Provision of training and equipment for animal health workers.

Examples of support for income diversification include:

- Introduction of drought-resistant crops;
- Provision of agricultural tools.

In parallel, IOM has been promoting conservation to avoid coping responses that negatively affect livelihoods in the long term (such as cutting down trees for charcoal).

Further interventions to support livelihoods through infrastructural development are planned in cooperation with partners (e.g. United Nations Environment Programme, UN-Habitat and Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations), in order to reduce the mobility needs of people depending on scarce resources. Interventions will include the creation and enhancement of water catchments, water points and pastures. Furthermore, plans are in place to support youth groups with job and business creation, in order to reverse rural–urban migration flows.

Planned relocation

In situations where forced migration is not preventable, planned relocation can be an effective measure for reducing the exposure of vulnerable population and capital to disasters. This strategy can be applied to areas subjected to high-risk natural hazards, as well as to regions facing irreversible ecosystem degradation, including (but not limited to) degradation induced by development projects (e.g. dam construction or mining projects), pollution (e.g. nuclear contamination) or environmental change (e.g. sea-level rise).

Planned relocations, however, are complex processes that often have multiple implications on aggregate risk levels. They are high in cost and have the potential to deplete the human, social and economic capital of both relocated and host communities, thereby causing impoverishment and further vulnerability. Experiences and success stories demonstrate that adequate participation of concerned households to the decision-making process and long-term support for their livelihood options is essential in designing and implementing relocation plans that can effectively reduce risk.

What can be done to conduct successful relocations?

- Evaluate coercive (e.g. land-use regulations) and non-coercive (e.g. financial incentives) measures to decrease the concentration of people and assets in the areas at risk.
- Consider land tenure and property regimes in both the community of origin and the community of destination, in order to avoid conflict and make relocation just.
- In the case of cross-border relocation, adequately consider the issue of legal status and rights of the relocated population.
- Ensure that relocated households have sufficient access to resources and services for them to pursue safe lives, by restoring their livelihood options and community life, and by building their knowledge of the new context.
- Whenever the relocated households' previous assets cannot be restored, provide adequate compensation, taking into account the longer-term consequences of relocation.
- Make sure both the relocated and the host communities are involved in the decision-making process, in order to better prepare them for change, as well as minimize intra-communal tension.

IOM IN ACTION: Relocation of the atoll communities in Bougainville, Papua New Guinea

The atoll communities of north-eastern Bougainville in Papua New Guinea reside on isolated and remote low-lying islands. They are faced with slow-onset changes to their environment, including seawater inundation, salinization of soil, soil erosion, land loss and climate variability, leading to, among others, food insecurity and increased vulnerability to natural disasters. While climate change might have played a role in the degradation of the islands' ecosystems, human activities, in particular dynamite fishing, are mainly responsible for the

destruction of the natural barriers provided by local coral reefs.

In 2005, it was officially decided that the 1,000 residents should be evacuated, 10 families at a time, to the larger island of Bougainville, 100 kilometres away from the communities. IOM assisted with the [relocation of the affected population](#). Plans to evacuate the local population were already being discussed in the early 1980s, but were interrupted by the war in Bougainville.

Finding land in Bougainville for the resettlement of evacuees was challenging: the island had just emerged from a civil war, and 96 per cent of the land area was governed by customary ownership and often subject to competing claims by landowners. Establishing clear titles was a complex process, most of all because the Government lacked the political will and financial resources to drive the resettlement process. Neither did the Carteret Islanders have sufficient resources to buy land for themselves.

It was only through the community-driven initiative Tulele Peisa that the issue could be addressed, and the relocated islanders were allocated enough land to support sustainable crop production. Most of the resettlement land was donated by the Catholic Church.

IOM is now assisting the Autonomous Bougainville Government in assessing the vulnerability of the remaining communities (i.e. the Carteret, Fead, Tasman and Mortlock atolls) to environmental change and climate variability, as well as the need for them to relocate – temporarily or permanently – within the Autonomous Region of Bougainville. IOM will develop and test research methodologies and tools and train researchers in the field to allow for the production of vulnerability and resilience maps of atoll communities. The data will be used to provide guidance on the identification of resettlement priorities, as well as to identify other government-led and community-based mitigation and adaptation measures for the communities that wish or are able to remain, temporarily or permanently, on the targeted atolls. In addition, the data will allow for establishing baselines to track future impacts and trends in environmental change and climate variability in the targeted atolls.

IOM IN ACTION: Migration as an adaptation strategy in practice in Colombia

Many areas in Colombia are subject to severe environmental risks that are exacerbated by a high poverty rate and a range of conflict- and crime-related challenges. IOM was involved in the [Colombian Temporary and Circular Labour Migration \(TCLM\) programme](#), an innovative model of temporary and circular labour migration between Colombia and Spain. This programme can serve as a concrete illustration of how migration can be used as an adaptation strategy for vulnerable populations. It offered a livelihood alternative through temporary work abroad to families confronted with natural disasters (primarily populations affected by eruptions of the Galeras Volcano in Nariño, Colombia), enabling affected zones to recuperate.

Through its involvement in the programme, IOM supported migrants and their families in maximizing the impact of remittances on the recovery of the affected area through public and private co-funding and international cooperation, and took into account the needs of the most marginalized populations in rural communities. In 2007, for instance, 162 women received training on leadership and local development to bolster their capacity as potential agents of development. As such, TCLM can make an important contribution to sustainable development, enabling local populations to increase their resilience to environmental challenges and offering them an alternative to permanent migration, whether to urban slums or abroad.

IOM IN ACTION: Preventing forced migration in Haiti

The intervention programmes that IOM carries out in Haiti focus on mitigating the risk from hazards faced by the local population, particularly in urban communities and rural areas surrounding settlements for internally displaced persons. All activities are carried out in collaboration with the Civil Defence Direction and with local authorities at the commune and neighbourhood levels.

Most of Haiti's recurrent disasters are caused by hydro-meteorological events associated with storms and hurricanes. Therefore, the disaster

risk reduction (DRR) intervention that IOM has developed for the country focuses on structural and non-structural measures that prevent and mitigate hazards, for example, by building flood and landslide mitigation structures, enhancing water drainage, reforesting slopes and promoting sustainable watershed management. Starting in 2010, the Organization has constructed 187,748 metres of stone check dams, excavated 322,988 metres of contour canals and micro-basins, planted 1,392,725 trees, and constructed or rehabilitated 157,099 metres of drainage canals.

In close coordination with the Ministry of Public Works, Transportation and Communication, IOM Haiti is also executing soil conservation projects. These labour-intensive cash-for-work projects employ internally displaced persons who fled Port-au-Prince following the 2011 earthquake. By stabilizing slopes with a number of micro-interventions, the internally displaced persons build infrastructure that will reduce flooding for many decades to come.

In order to support the hazard mitigation intervention, IOM has started to systematically map risks at the community level. The local DRR team created a methodology combining field-level and remote sensing data, with inputs from community members, to create community risk maps. Work on the pilot study in Cité Soleil has been completed.

Preparing for displacement

While taking measures to prevent displacement is vital, it is just as important to recognize that displacement cannot always be avoided, and in such cases facilitating mobility is a vital part of the equation, enabling affected population to flee from danger and access assistance. Disaster preparedness measures are needed at all levels (local, national, international), which can reduce loss of life and negative impacts on the displaced. Well-planned evacuation frameworks are a particularly effective way of facilitating mobility to save lives and mitigate risks for the displaced. People who lack the capacity to move in the face of hazards and human-made crises (i.e. trapped populations) are therefore among the most vulnerable. Adequate preparedness is essential to ensuring that mobility can be tapped as a viable life-saving strategy for all the people at risk and that these people only remain displaced the minimum time necessary.

What can be done to ensure adequate disaster preparedness?

- Enhance capacities for risk management at all levels through institutional capacity-building and community-based disaster risk management (including awareness-raising).
- Clearly distribute responsibilities across institutional levels and actors.
- Ensure coordination of decisions and activities at all levels.
- Produce and distribute timely information on hazards and life-saving actions through early warning-early action (EWEA) systems.

IOM IN ACTION: Capacity-building for national authorities to manage displacement

As the [global cluster lead agency for camp coordination and camp management \(CCCCM\)](#) in natural disasters, IOM is committed to building the capacities of national and international authorities to anticipate and respond to disaster-induced displacement, enabling them to address the needs of people living in temporary settlements and relocation sites.

The [capacity-building efforts](#) of IOM in the CCCM area contribute to the expansion of information management, coordination and operational capacities of governments, CCCM cluster partners and other humanitarian actors.

In 2013 alone, CCCM training sessions were extended to over 5,530 humanitarian counterparts, community members, national authorities and IOM staff members in 19 countries.

In Colombia, the national Government has endorsed the CCCM methodology and tools and has expanded the CCCM capacity-building programme of IOM countrywide.

Following IOM CCCM capacity-building in 2011, supported by the Namibian Red Cross Society, Namibia has integrated temporary settlement management within its institutional DRR strategy and has included it as one key area in the new National Disaster Risk Management Plan.

Further to the training of 574 officials in Mozambique in 2013, the Government requested IOM's support in establishing a roster of CCCM disaster management actors to be called upon in emergencies, ensuring the long-term and sustainable impact of CCCM capacity-building initiatives in the country.

IOM and other key partners have also recently developed *The MEND Guide: Comprehensive Guide for Planning Mass Evacuations in Natural Disasters* through consultation with steering committee representatives from government authorities together with experts from IOM, UN agencies, the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre and academia. The MEND Guide is restricted to planning and implementing mass evacuations in natural disasters; it does not deal with wider displacement per se.

IOM IN ACTION: Planning evacuations sites in Nepal

It is estimated that up to 900,000 people will be displaced by a major earthquake in the densely populated and highly vulnerable Kathmandu Valley alone. Disaster risk in the country is driven by poverty, illiteracy, rapid population growth and unplanned urbanization. Being prepared for population movements in the aftermath of natural disasters is therefore an absolute priority for the Government and other emergency actors.

IOM has been supporting local institutions in providing assistance to the victims of natural disasters ever since the 2008 Koshi floods. Aware of the challenges posed by seismic risk, the Organization is now committed to enhancing local preparedness for earthquakes and has helped drafting emergency earthquake response plans for the municipalities of Kathmandu, Lalitpur, Kirtipur and Madhyapur.

The Organization has identified and prioritized 83 open spaces in Kathmandu Valley that can be used for humanitarian purposes following a disaster. These sites have been endorsed by the Ministry of Home Affairs (MoHA) and now enjoy specific protection from further encroachment. IOM is coordinating State and non-State humanitarian actors in defining the functions and purposes of each of these sites.

For large and mid-size sites for internally displaced persons, IOM prepared detailed plans to ensure that space is effectively used, based on a series of workshops and on the work on a common mapping platform performed by all stakeholders in collaboration with the MoHA. Maps with logistic and planning information of each identified site can then be used by all humanitarian stakeholders to plan for a more effective emergency response.

Responding to displacement

In times of disasters, mobility is often the only safe option open to victims. At the same time, displacement as an extreme form of mobility is often a major driver of vulnerability. It tends to reduce access to assets and services for people who are alien to the environment they are moving through or settling in.

In many cases, displaced people are disempowered and have a limited range of survival and livelihood options. Humanitarian assistance and protection are therefore needed to make sure people continue to be able to meet their basic needs. At the same time, the post-disaster relief and recovery period often represents a valuable window of opportunity for integrating risk reduction measures into response measures, taking advantage of increased awareness of DRR needs as a result of media and institutional attention.

What can be done to respond effectively to disasters?

- Roll out orderly evacuations to reduce the impact of disruptive events.
- Track displacement.
- Support mobile populations, address urgent humanitarian needs, ensure effective protection and ensure that movements only last the minimum period of time necessary.
- Integrate long-term risk reduction considerations from the earliest stages of the emergency response.

IOM IN ACTION: Evacuating at-risk populations in Haiti

In October 2012, when hurricane Sandy hit Haiti with heavy rains, an estimated 370,000 people displaced by the 2010 earthquake were still living in the 541 remaining settlements for internally displaced persons; many more were in informal settlements and unprotected locations. With the storm approaching, IOM decided to conduct sensitization campaigns in 176 settlements and deployed operative teams to prepare the most vulnerable individuals for the storm, including for a potential evacuation.

When the storm struck Port-au-Prince, IOM directly moved 1,250 vulnerable people from 12 of the most at-risk settlements to six shelters in other parts of the city. Exposure to hazards (particularly, floods) and vulnerability profiles had been assessed beforehand, which led to the identification of 343 individuals with specific health and protection needs (which included pregnant and lactating mothers, children under five, elderly persons and mobility-impaired individuals). IOM staff assisted the evacuated individuals both at the sites of origin and at the sites of destination.

The intervention was supported by the Department for Civil Protection of the Haitian Government, the Haitian Red Cross, the Ministry of Social Affairs and the National Water and Sanitation Authority, with food assistance provided by the World Food Programme.

THEMATIC BOX: Tracking displacement at all stages of a migration crisis – the Displacement Tracking Matrix

Accurately locating populations in need of assistance and protection, especially those characterized by high mobility, is essential in responding to humanitarian crises. In order to address this challenge, IOM developed the [Displacement Tracking Matrix \(DTM\)](#), an information management tool which regularly captures, processes and disseminates complex information to provide a clear understanding of the changing locations, vulnerabilities and needs of populations in crisis situations.

The DTM has a modular approach that makes it adaptable to response and recovery efforts in disaster and conflict settings. It has been deployed and refined in numerous operations over the last decade and is now a standard resource for government agencies and humanitarian actors responding to crises.

IOM IN ACTION: Emergency transportation for Somalis entering Kenya

In August 2011, at the peak of the Horn of Africa humanitarian and drought crisis, Somalis were fleeing their country to seek assistance in the settlements across the Kenyan border.

In order to enhance the timeliness and effectiveness of protection and assistance provided to the displaced, IOM established an organized transportation system to the Liboi Reception Centre. Partners on the ground referred the most urgent cases to IOM, which allowed priority to be given to especially vulnerable individuals escaping on foot along the route (e.g. women, children and the elderly).

Mobile populations were supported during the travel and, upon clearance by Kenyan Government authorities, received immediate medical screening and care. They were then transported on the 90-kilometre journey to the Dadaab settlements, where they received further assistance. The project contributed significantly to reducing the mortality rates among people on the move and newcomers in displacement sites.

IOM IN ACTION: Tracking displacement during crises – the Temporary Settlement Support Unit in Pakistan

The Temporary Settlement Support Unit (TSSU) of IOM in Pakistan used the DTM to provide coordination support for temporary settlements, following the floods that affected Sindh and Balochistan in early September 2012. Through the DTM, the TSSU obtained information on the mobility of affected populations and on the needs of the people hosted in temporary settlements.

In October 2012, the TSSU profiled the situation of 50,197 individuals in 313 settlements (including a majority of spontaneous sites) in flood-affected areas, identifying needs (e.g. food, health, shelter and winterization kits) by sector.

The assessment highlighted that many affected families had already been induced to leave temporary settlements after short periods due to concerns for assets they had left behind, insufficient access to humanitarian assistance in camp-like settings and eviction from temporary settlements.

The assessment was repeated in November and December 2012, targeting 95 temporary settlements and 2,859 villages, in order to better monitor the return of evacuees to their areas of origin. The TSSU staff observed that 4,745 families (out of the 7,969 identified in October 2012) still remained displaced, with an additional 1,406 displaced households identified in Balochistan. Communities faced continued displacement primarily due to standing waters in their areas of origin.

While a consistent trend to return was observed, humanitarian needs in return areas were high, with returnees and host families often facing conditions similar to internally displaced persons. Around 66 per cent of affected families reported serious losses of livelihood and the deterioration of their economic conditions, with access to health and education still very limited.

Throughout its activities, the TSSU incorporated a capacity-building component aimed at developing the knowledge of actors (including the Government of Pakistan, UN agencies, and international organizations and national non-governmental organizations) involved in managing temporary settlements during the flood response.

IOM IN ACTION: Camp coordination and camp management in disaster contexts, 2011 and 2012

As the CCCM Cluster lead for natural disaster situations, IOM is tasked with ensuring strategic, coordinated and effective humanitarian responses in camps and camp-like settings.

Since 2005, IOM has led, co-led or facilitated CCCM activities in 26 countries. IOM is also supporting the Cluster capacity-building activities; in 2013, 5,532 people from 19 countries were trained in CCCM.

In 2013/2014, IOM was active in a number of climate disaster emergencies all over the world, mobilizing agencies, non-governmental organizations and national authorities in response activities.

Mitigating impacts of displacement on destination areas

The massive and rapid influx of environmentally displaced populations, if not appropriately managed, can put severe strain on host communities, potentially leading to intra-communal tensions and hardship and discrimination for both locals and newcomers.²

Population movements of this kind have the potential to negatively affect well-being, stability and safety in the receiving communities by modifying existing socioeconomic, environmental (see box) and cultural balances. Receiving communities often suffer arrival of newcomers as a burden, which can result in competition for scarce resources and/or environmental degradation, potentially leading to impoverishment, tension and conflict.

Active efforts are required to adequately manage rapid, large-scale population movements, in order to preserve the living standards of the receiving communities. Inadequate planning and management can lead to secondary displacement. What can be done to mitigate the impacts of displacement?

- Plan for the arrival of mobile people in the host community in order to prepare adequate facilities and avoid informal settlement issues that put both newcomers and receiving communities at risk.

² This applies equally to mass influxes of conflict-displaced populations.

- Support the capacities of local institutions to provide basic services, in order to avoid depleting existing standards of health care, education, transportation, and water and energy provision for the receiving community.
- Multiply income opportunities, taking into account that the influx of population fuels the local market and economy.
- Address tensions stemming from cultural and ethnic differences by building reciprocal trust between communities (e.g. bring communities together around small infrastructure projects).
- Avoid situations of inequality vis-à-vis vulnerable members of the host community when offering support and assistance to newcomers, by adequately addressing existing conditions of need and deprivation.

THEMATIC BOX: Reducing the environmental footprint of displaced populations

Large population influxes, often in camp settings, can put pressure on local ecosystems in a number of ways, including through increased demand for scarce natural resources (e.g. water, fuel and food), potentially impacting negatively the environment upon which local communities already depend. Reducing the ecological footprint of people on the move is an essential part of respecting local carrying capacity and avoiding secondary displacement due to environmental degradation and related hazards. Environmental concerns should be taken into account when planning and managing displacement sites, from the moment a site is selected until after it has been responsibly closed.¹

These actions are recommended:

- Respect principles and procedures that minimize the environmental impact of migration management measures at any stage of the crisis.
- Carry out an environmental assessment as soon as a location is selected as a displacement site.
- Ensure that the procurement and disposal of materials necessary for constructing settlements and for providing water, sanitation and energy are environment-friendly.

- Ensure that measures to support livelihoods and income opportunities respect the limits of the carrying capacity of host ecosystems (e.g. cutting trees for charcoal selling).
- Make sure that upon closure of temporary settlements any waste produced is disposed of responsibly and the sites where these settlements were located are environmentally rehabilitated.

¹ More information on environmental concerns in camp and camp-like contexts can be found in the [Camp Management Toolkit](#) and the [Camp Closure Guidelines](#).

IOM IN ACTION: Relocating cross-border migrants in Kenya and Ethiopia

In August 2012, IOM started relocating Somalis affected by drought and famine who had moved en masse to the refugee camp in Dadaab, northern Kenya. About 30,000 displaced individuals were living in deplorable conditions on the overcrowded outskirts of the camp, overwhelming the response capacity of host communities and humanitarian actors.

The work of [IOM in the region](#) focused on relocating displaced Somalis to an extension of another site, Ifo, which the Organization had been preparing for weeks to be capable of hosting 7,500 tents. The relocation enabled aid agencies to rationalize their provision of essential services, better assisting the drought-affected population.

Similarly, IOM relocated the displaced population to Ethiopia from the transit centre in Dollo Ado, where a measles outbreak was further aggravating the living condition of a congested population. Migrants were relocated to a new camp at Halewiyn, where additional shelter and other life-saving services and facilities had been established. The transport assistance provided by IOM helped to reunify families separated by the drought and the distance between Kenya and Ethiopia.

Proposing durable solutions to environmental migration and displacement

Long-term approaches are required to address the challenges of environmental migration and displacement. This includes measures targeting receiving communities. Policy challenges differ widely according to the specific circumstances and the type of movement. Nonetheless, common challenges include guaranteeing newcomers have access to basic services and sustainable livelihood options, or ensuring they can settle in safe accommodation on land which is itself not subject to environmental and/or climate risk.

Where the migration or displacement is longer-term, guaranteeing effective political participation and social integration is another challenge. In general terms, newcomers often find themselves in situations of heightened vulnerability, especially where existing support networks are absent. In the case of rapid and large-scale influxes in contexts of existing scarcity, the potential for tensions or conflict with receiving communities can be significant (see Brief 12). Those moving to urban areas may find themselves subject to even higher levels of “environmental risk,” often forced to settle on floodplains or areas prone to landslides.

In most cases of mobility induced by environmental factors, population movements tend to be reversible. Migration as a coping or adaptation strategy is often a measure people adopt on a temporary, often seasonal, basis. Displacement induced by disasters mostly leaves the door open for the return of the affected population once the affected area has recovered. Nonetheless, in many developing countries, rural–urban migration linked to environmental factors – whether temporary or permanent – is contributing to the challenge of rapidly growing urban populations (land, housing, infrastructure, service provision, disaster risk).

What kind of durable solutions to displacement are possible?

For those displaced by natural disasters, the focus should be on facilitating sustainable return as soon as conditions allow, and where this is not feasible (e.g. due to irreversible environmental degradation that has made the source area uninhabitable),

support measures for local integration or relocation to a third area are needed.

Return, local integration and relocation should always be chosen freely. Government, humanitarian and other actors in the recovery process should make sure that the conditions for a safe life are in place in the destination site when planning for the closure of camps, collective centres, transitional shelters and other receiving facilities. Sustainable solutions to displacement should establish a safer, more resilient community that can rely on sustainable livelihoods, effective social protection measures, and embedded DRR culture and practice.

Implementing durable solutions to displacement³ is a complex, long-term process that needs to be sensitive to maintaining (as far as possible) social networks, local knowledge and capacities. Solutions should take into account existing socioeconomic and legal issues (such as the availability of income opportunities and access to basic services and land), as well as the evolution of ecosystems, including current and future effects of climate change.

What can be done to guarantee safe and sustainable return?

- Support spontaneous return as soon as the environmental and material conditions for safe reconstruction and recovery are in place.
- Identify and address the main risk factors that pressured people out of their settlements in the first place.
- Restore and enhance essential assets and livelihoods by building back safer houses and infrastructure, revitalizing local productive activities and markets, and re-establishing local services.
- Promote new settlement and ecosystem management practices through education and training, in order to create safer and more sustainable living conditions.

3 UN General Assembly, Framework on Durable Solutions for Internally Displaced Persons, Report of the Representative of the Secretary-General on the human rights of internally displaced persons, Walter Kälin (2009). Available from http://www2.ohchr.org/english/issues/ido/docs/A.HRC.13.21.Add.4_framework.pdf.

What can be done to support local integration or relocation to a third area?

Ensuring that the host community is adequately prepared and supported is critical to the successful local integration of displaced populations – see section on mitigating impacts of environmental displacement on destination areas. In addition, following are specific longer-term support measures:

- Ensure that displaced populations enjoy legal status and political representation in the host community and guarantee that administrative frameworks allow for easy, low-cost registration and access to public services and political participation.
- Provide integration support, such as information on procedures, services available, and rights and responsibilities.
- Promote the co-development of the displaced and host communities by maximizing the contributions of the former to the local economy and making full use of their skills and culture.
- In the case of relocation to a third area, ensuring the full participation of both the receiving community and the population to be relocated is essential in order to ensure sustainable and successful outcomes. This means involving them from the very earliest stages of planning.

What can be done to address environmental migration in urban areas?

Being a migrant is often a condition that restricts access to resources, political representation, and opportunities for formal housing and services, all of which may place migrants in situations of increased vulnerability in urban areas. Newcomers and poorer households tend to occupy marginal, peripheral areas prone to mudslides and rockfalls.

Migrants to urban areas may pose significant challenges to urban authorities, especially in developing countries, where – if arriving in significant numbers – they may put pressure on local resources and on the capacity of institutions to plan and manage urban development. Their presence

may also pose challenges in terms of integration and/or social cohesion, particularly where migrants are from different ethnic groups. To address the issues related to environmental migration in urban areas, these actions are recommended:

- Ensure that planning and land-use regulations allow incoming migrants to settle in environmentally safe areas, and restrict settlement in at-risk areas.
- Guarantee that administrative frameworks allow for easy registration and access to public services and political representation.
- Provide integration support for incoming migrants (e.g. information on procedures, services available, and rights and responsibilities).
- Support measures for urban communities experiencing high in-migration.
- Assess intra-urban relocation options to safer areas (sensitive to specific needs of migrant communities).

What can be done to address land and property issues?

Land issues – such as security of tenure, land use, land access and land administration – are fundamental for a safe life, as they directly affect the sustainability and resilience of settlements, the quality of shelter, and access to livelihoods and basic services. Land loss and property destruction, caused both by environmental change and human-made processes, often require the permanent relocation of the affected population.

Unresolved land issues and/or insecure land tenure can hinder the deployment of mobility-based coping strategies in the face of disasters and environmental degradation. Fear of not being able to prove land and/or property ownership may lead people to stay in dangerous or environmentally unsustainable areas. Unclear occupancy rights can also hinder recovery efforts in areas hit by natural disasters, especially where the disaster has resulted in loss or destruction of land ownership certificates or registries, physical boundary markers or of actual land.

Recognizing and protecting property rights, particularly for the most vulnerable individuals, as well as implementing fair and adequate compensation schemes, including finding alternative settlement solutions, if necessary, are key factors in ensuring the long-term recovery and well-being of communities affected by disasters and environmental change. The following actions may be done:

- Recognize and address the property rights and needs of all individuals, in order to reduce the vulnerability related to insecurity of tenure.
- Guarantee adequate access to information, legal counselling and representation to secure rights.
- Identify and assess potential obstacles in addressing land, property and housing issues, taking into account existing and potential conflicts over land and local natural resources.
- Build the capacity of government authorities, communities and other key stakeholders.
- Include land and property issues in disaster responses as early as possible, in order to allow for a quick reconstruction and recovery process in a coordinated manner.
- Restore and improve land administration systems based on a thorough understanding of existing land and property practices (especially customary tenure systems) and dispute resolution mechanisms, in order to avoid conflict.
- Avoid and manage intra- and inter-communal conflicts stemming from land distribution, by promoting dialogue and participatory decision-making processes.
- Take into account context-specific issues, such as the relocation of landless squatters and informal settlers displaced by disasters, especially in urban contexts (e.g. the 2010 Haiti earthquake), and of rural populations depending on land exploitation for their livelihoods.

IOM IN ACTION: Use of village assessments to promote sustainable return in Sudan and South Sudan

According to the tracking of spontaneous returns conducted by IOM in 2009, an estimated 10 per cent of the returnees from Darfur and other regions in Sudan to South Sudan were liable to secondary displacement due to the lack of services (e.g. education, health care and water) and job opportunities in their respective areas of origin.

In order to promote sustainable return, reduce the risk of secondary displacement and improve the capacity of receiving communities to adapt to a sudden increase in population, IOM made village assessments in Sudan and South Sudan, as well as in areas with high returnee caseloads.

The assessments provided a detailed understanding of the availability of and access to basic services and resources in target areas and were used to design and prioritize interventions that would improve the conditions in these villages for the benefit of the entire community, including the host population, returnees, internally displaced persons and nomadic pastoralists that come through the area seasonally.

Moreover, the assessments allowed for identifying the risk of conflicts over limited resources, and therefore supported the peace-building process. In addition, they exposed existing protection gaps due to social and political factors (e.g. age, gender, ethnic and cultural diversity), allowing local drivers of marginalization and discrimination to be identified and addressed.

IOM IN ACTION: Understanding rural–urban migration in Mongolia

IOM conducted research in Mongolia in 2010, focusing on the migratory tendencies of rural herder populations faced with severe environmental stresses on their traditional lifestyles. In Mongolia, there are more than 800,000 herders among its 2 million population. Migration of herders to urban centres is perceived as an increasing phenomenon, though actual data is limited. The capital, Ulaanbaatar, is seen as the last destination of migration by destitute herders.

Most migrants to the capital set up their gers (traditional hut-type accommodation) in unoccupied areas and do not officially register their plots. Price of registration and complexity of procedures are the most likely obstacles to registration, though this issue needs further research. Contrary to expectations, the study found that newcomers tended not to congregate in obvious areas or camp-like settings.

Instead, many appear to be residing with host families spread around the city, most of whom have plots of land that can easily accommodate 3–4 gers. It is therefore extremely difficult to track the recent in-migration among a population of 1.2 million. Interviews with local officials and anecdotal evidence revealed a concern that receiving communities, while not seen to be expressly hostile to the incoming population, were wary of the strain on livelihoods and social services that were brought by the population increase, as well as additional pollution.

The primary challenges for rural–urban migrants are the lack of basic social services and livelihood opportunities in the urban centres. The issue of registration is a significant challenge to the integration of migrants into urban centres, for policymakers and migrants alike. The IOM study included a number of recommendations, among which:

- Step-up civil registration drives in the capital, including subsidized rates for displaced populations. Combine this with comprehensive mapping of newly arrived migrant communities, which will act as a baseline survey if further displacement occurs;
- Possible return mechanisms to formerly rural residents now living in poverty on the periphery of urban centres;
- Feasibility assessment of Government-identified resettlement areas (Ulaanbaatar proximity sites) for . . . rural–urban migrants;
- Advocacy for sustainable, equitable and effective urban development policies. . . .

Sources

(Office of the) United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees

2014 *Planned Relocation, Disaster and Climate Change: Consolidating Good Practices and Preparing for the Future*. Final report on expert consultation on Planned Relocation, Disasters and Climate Change: Consolidating Good Practices and Preparing for the Future, Sanremo, Italy, 12–14 March. Available from <http://www.unhcr.org/54082cc69.html>.

17 route des Morillons, P.O. Box 17, 1211 Geneva 19, Switzerland
Tel: +41 22 717 9111 • Fax: +41 22 798 6150
E-mail: hq@iom.int • Website: <http://www.iom.int>

