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DEUTSCHE ZUSAMMENARBEIT

Dimensions of Gender and Human Mobility in the Context of Climate Change (HMCCC)

Regional Perspectives

Implemented by
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Content

Abbreviations

BMZ ..... German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development

CARICOM ..... Caribbean Community

CEDAW ..... Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women

CFFP ..... Centre for Feminist Foreign Policy

COP ..... Conference of the Parties of the UNFCCC

CSME ..... Caribbean Community Single Market and Economy

DRR ..... Disaster risk reduction

ECLAC ..... Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean

ECOSOC ..... United Nations Economic and Social Council

EIGE ..... European Institute for Gender Equality

FCDO ..... Foreign, Commonwealth & Development Office (UK)

GBV ..... Gender-based violence

GCM ..... Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration

GCR ..... Global Compact on Refugees

GIZ ..... Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit GmbH

GP HMCCC .... Global Programme Human Mobility in the Context of Climate Change

HMCCC ..... Human mobility in the context of climate change

HSNP ..... Hunger Safety Net Programme

IDMC ..... Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre

IGAD ..... Intergovernmental Authority on Development

IMRF ..... International Migration Review Forum

IOM ..... International Migration Review Forum

IPCC ..... Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change

LGBTIQ* ..... Lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, intersex and queer*

OECS ..... Organisation of Eastern Caribbean State

PDD ..... Platform on Disaster Displacement

TFD ..... UNFCCC Task Force on Displacement

UN ..... United Nations

UN ESCAP ..... United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific

UNDP ..... United Nations Development Programme

UNDRR ..... United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction

UNFCCC ..... United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change

UNHCR ..... United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees

WFP ..... World Food Programme

WIM ..... Warsaw International Mechanism for Loss and Damage associated with Climate Change Impacts

WIM ExCom .. WIM Executive Committee

Terminology

Adaptive capacity – refers to attitudes, behaviour, knowledge and skills that enable individuals and communities to be resilient in order to reduce their susceptibility to climate-induced hazards. While technical aspects of climate change impacts are important, adaptive capacity also requires people to be able to make informed decisions and choices, fully exercise their rights and utilise their skills and knowledge (GIZ, 2019).

Climate change – 'means 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 natural climate variability observed over comparable time periods' (UNFCCC, 1992, Article 1(2)). It has adverse effects on the physical environment, resulting in a destabilisation of ecosystems and socio-economic systems and consequences for human health and welfare.

Climate risk – can arise from potential impacts of climate change as well as human responses to climate change (IPCC, 2022).

Disasters – are connected to extreme or slow onset events (see these terms below) which severely disrupt the functioning of a community or a society, including widespread human, material, economic and environmental losses and impacts, which exceed the ability of the affected community or society to cope using its own resources (UNDRR, 2022).

Displacement – term used to describe the movement of persons who are forced to leave their homes by conflict or natural disasters. It is framed as a humanitarian concern, with those affected having immediate needs, including assistance and rights protection, (Sierra Club & UN Women, 2018).

Extreme (weather) event – an event that is unusual compared to the normal values observed at a particular place and time of year. The event becomes extreme either due to frequency or intensity and is often unprecedented (Seneviratne & Zhang, 2021)

Gender – can be defined as 'the roles, behaviors, activities, and attributes that a given society at a given time considers appropriate for men and women'. These include social attributes and opportunities related to being perceived as a man or a woman and the relationships between these binaries. As these understandings are socially constructed, they can be changed. Nevertheless, they construct real-life differences and inequalities between women and men, in 'responsibilities assigned, activities undertaken, access to and control over resources, as well as decision-making opportunities'. This, in turn, leads to marginalisation and discrimination of certain groups (UN Women, 2022b).

Gender analysis – a critical analysis of the effect of gender roles on men's and women's activities, needs, opportunities and rights/entitlements in certain situations or contexts, including the relationship between the binaries and their access to resources (UN Women, 2022).

Gender identity – 'refers to a person's innate, deeply felt internal and individual experience of gender, which may or may not correspond to the person's physiology or designated sex at birth'. This can, but does not always, include modification of bodily appearance through medical procedures or changes in expressions of gender, including dress and behaviour (UN Women, 2022).

Gender responsiveness – 'refers to outcomes that reflect an understanding of gender roles and inequalities and encourage equal participation, including equal and fair distribution of benefits. Gender responsiveness is accomplished through gender analysis, that informs

inclusiveness' (UNDP, 2020, p. 3). It includes planning and carrying out programmes, policies and activities in ways that consider the different needs of men/boys, women/girls, trans and non-binary persons and involve them in decision-making, participation and opportunities (UN Women, 2021).

Gender transformative – able to 'transform unequal gender relations to promote shared power, control of resources, decision-making, and support for women's empowerment' (UNDP, 2020, p. 3).

Human mobility in the context of climate change – there is no universally agreed upon definition for human mobility influenced by factors relating to climate change. This study adopts the framing used in the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) process derived from paragraph 14(f) of the Cancun Adaptation Framework (UNFCCC, 2010). Human mobility can be used as an umbrella term to 'encompass different types of movements in the context of climate change: migration, displacement and planned relocation' (IOM, 2018, p. 6). Human mobility can have strong impacts on the environment (IOM, 2018).

Intersectionality – promotes an understanding of human beings as shaped by the interaction of different social locations (e.g. race/ethnicity, gender, class, sexuality, geography, age, disability/ability, migration status, religion). These interactions occur within a context of connected systems and structures of power (e.g. laws, policies, state governments and other political and economic unions, religious institutions, media). Through such processes, interdependent forms of privilege and oppression shaped by colonialism, imperialism, racism, homophobia, ableism and patriarchy are created (Crenshaw, 1991).

LGBTIQ* – an acronym for lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, intersex and queer* people. It is an umbrella term used to describe a person's sexual orientation or gender identity (EIGE, 2022).

Marginalised groups – 'different groups of people within a given culture, context and history at risk of being subjected to multiple discrimination due to the interplay of different personal characteristics or grounds, such as sex, gender, age, ethnicity, religion or belief, health status, disability, sexual orientation, gender identity, education or income, or living in various geographic localities' (EIGE, 2022).

Migration – term used to describe the (predominantly) voluntary movements of individuals away from their homes or places of residence, at times as an adaptation strategy. Migration can be a means to diversify sources of household income, as migrants may support families back home with remittances. Others move to avoid deteriorating environmental conditions that could result in future displacement. Therefore, migration can take different forms – forced, voluntary, circular, temporary, seasonal, permanent and return movements (IOM, 2022).

Mitigation (of climate change) – human intervention to reduce emissions or enhance the sinks of greenhouse gases (IPCC, 2022).

Planned relocation – the process through which communities are moved away from their homes, settled in a new location and provided with the conditions for rebuilding their lives, often with the support of their government. This process can be preventive or responsive to developments caused by climate change. Planned relocation can therefore be considered displacement or a measure to prevent it in a structured manner (Sierra Club & UN Women, 2018, p. 1; UNHCR, 2014).

Risk management – 'plans, actions, strategies or policies to reduce the likelihood and/or magnitude of adverse potential consequences, based on assessed or perceived risks' (IPCC, 2022).

Slow onset events – refer to the risks and impacts of the following events: 'increasing temperature means, desertification, decreasing precipitation, loss of biodiversity, land and

forest degradation, glacial retreat and related impacts, ocean acidification, sea level rise and salinization' (IPCC, 2022).

Trapped populations – people 'who stay behind or are unable to move due to lack of financial and social resources'. For people without financial means, facing cultural stigmas or lacking supporting social networks, movement might not be a possible means of adaptation or risk reduction. These groups and individuals are particularly vulnerable (Sierra Club & UN Women, 2018, p. 1).

Vulnerability – a dynamic condition defined by an increase in the sensitivity of an individual or a community (UNDRR, 2022). Vulnerability is dynamic, multifaceted and context-specific and is determined by societal organisation and factors such as gender, age, health, social status, ethnicity and class (IPCC, 2022).

Executive summary

Human mobility in the context of climate change (HMCCC) is experienced very differently by social groups and populations globally, based on intersections of gender, socio-economic status, sexual orientation and gender identity, geographical location and ethnicity. Therefore, as an issue arising from a complex intertwining of **pre-existing inequalities**, power dynamics and **new dynamics**, HMCCC is **inherently gendered**. This review systematically highlights the gendered patterns and trends of HMCCC along the **four climate mobility pathways**: **migration, displacement, (planned) relocation and immobility/trapped populations**. It is a **systematic review** of the findings of existing publications on gender, including recent literature and interviews from the four geographical components of the Global Programme Human Mobility in the Context of Climate Change (GP HMCCC) in the **Philippines**, the **Caribbean**, the **Pacific** and **East Africa**. Much of the literature on gender and HMCCC refers to certain social groups and women as the only **affected and vulnerable** groups. While it is crucial to acknowledge the gender-specific and intersectional challenges, this focus **distracts from the capacities** and capabilities of diverse population groups and opportunities to achieve better outcomes for society as a whole. By including intersectional perspectives of gender identity, sexual orientation, age, disability and economic status, this review addresses both gender-specific challenges and opportunities that have been found across all mobility pathways (Sierra Club & UN Women, 2018).

Gender-specific challenges

- **Safety and security** (harassment, sexual and gender-based violence, sex and labour trafficking and violations of human rights)
- **Psychosocial needs** (mental health including anxiety, depression and post-traumatic stress disorder)
- **Access to relief and other social services** (inadequate or unequal access)
- **Rights to own, inherit or use land** (gender-based discrepancies, influence the ability to return and rebuild)

Gender-specific opportunities

- **Equal consultation and participation** (better informed policies)
- **Capacities and knowledge of all groups**
- **Empowerment of actors**
- **Leadership opportunities** (in households, communities and decision-making)

The review found that gender aspects and intersectional discrimination are not adequately and comprehensively addressed across all forms of human mobility. Consequently, all four mobility pathways – **migration, displacement,** (planned) relocation and **immobility/trapped populations** – constitute important fields of action for German development cooperation, in which the above principles should be applied. By actively

considering and addressing the differences, power dynamics, skills and needs of all social groups, including the most marginalised populations, development cooperation actors can contribute to more effective policies and implementation of HMCCC frameworks. In unravelling the factors that enable interventions to unfold gender-transformative and intersectional approaches, the review points to the following **general and overarching principles** that came up repeatedly across all human mobility pathways:

- **Moving beyond women and integrating a gender and intersectional perspective on HMCCC**
- **Collecting and using gender/intersectional disaggregated data on HMCCC**
- **Enabling representation and participation in decision-making**
- **Ensuring access to and control over resources**
- **Transforming norms and roles**
- **Putting gender and HMCCC on the agenda (of Germany's feminist development policy)**

Germany's feminist development policy further provides an opportunity to position the interface of gender and HMCCC in the national and international development discourse. **Realising rights, ensuring equitable access to resources and improving representation** are crucial across all mobility pathways and require appropriate awareness, capacities, analysis, meaningful participation of marginalised groups in decision-making and funding (BMZ, 2022). Most importantly, insights highlight that HMCCC activities should be planned and implemented in a participatory and inclusive manner. **Mainstreaming gender** into discussions of HMCCC at the local, national, regional and international level is therefore equally as important as mainstreaming aspects of human mobility into gender equality and equity discourses.

1) Introduction

Context and relevance

Intersections between power dynamics based on gender, socio-economic status, sexual orientation, gender identity, geographical location and ethnicity result in climate change impacts, such as human mobility being experienced very differently by social groups and populations globally. As an issue arising from a complex intertwining of pre-existing inequalities and new dynamics, HMCCC is **inherently gendered**. Indeed, some of the most important factors that shape HMCCC patterns and experiences are power imbalances, discrimination and gender roles (Evertsen & van der Geest, 2020). Aiming to strengthen efforts promoting gender equality, the Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) GmbH commissioned this systematic review **of existing documents on gender and HMCCC** which also contributes to the German and international policy debate.

> **"Gender influences who moves (or stays), how decisions are made, an individual's circumstances in transit, and the outcomes of movement"**
> **(Sierra Club & UN Women, 2018, p. 2).**

Due to underlying inequalities, the **lack of decision-making power** of groups that are discriminated against on the grounds of gender additionally compounds the gendered nature of HMCCC. As a result, not all groups are able to mitigate and cope with the consequences of climate change. A major factor in this is the lack of recognition of the **capacities and rights of affected groups** in representing their own interests, needs and solutions and of their potential to advance transformative climate action.

Social barriers and cultural norms in societies all around the world shape institutions and preclude many people from participating in the planning and implementation of prevention, mitigation and coping actions regarding climate change and human mobility (CARE International, 2020). Moreover, it is crucial to consider how norms, stereotypes and social barriers have shaped not only **unequal access to resources, services and land**, but also the **distribution of responsibilities and roles** of all genders and social groups in society – identifying people as boys and men, as girls and women in all their diversity[1] or as LGBTIQ* or indigenous people. In this review, 'women' is understood to encompass women in all their diversity, and 'men' is understood to encompass men in all their diversity.

There is a growing consensus on the **importance of addressing gender aspects** related to HMCCC. Given the complexity of the different processes and risk factors associated with it, careful analysis is required to advance understanding and develop actions to address the issues involved. While many challenges and opportunities relating to gender and HMCCC are common to all mobility pathways, the patterns and trends for women, men and marginalised groups in general in

[1] While the term 'women and girls in all their diversity' is generally used in the publications of international institutions and governments, there are differences in the way it is used depending on the institution and the context. The advantages are that the addition of 'in all their diversity' recognises the diversity of identities and life realities within the groups 'women' and 'girls' and explicitly emphasises this. The perception of women and girls as monolithic categories is therefore broken down, putting the emphasis on an intersectional understanding, which reflects the intertwining of the different dimensions of marginalisation and the difference between groups of women and girls in all their diversity. However, the conceptual vagueness and differences in how inclusive the term is understood to be (i.e. which groups of people are to be included) may also lead to a conceptual blurring (The Global Fund, 2019).

these pathways may differ (Sierra Club & UN Women, 2018). Based on the Warsaw International Mechanism for Loss and Damage associated with Climate Change Impacts (WIM) under the UNFCCC, HMCCC originally encompassed three pathways – migration, displacement and (planned) relocation. However, the discourse is moving towards also including immobility and trapped populations under this umbrella term and not focusing solely on mobility (Foresight, 2011). The following review of gendered patterns and trends will therefore be structured along **four climate mobility pathways**.

International frameworks

Gender analysis and gender-responsive action planning are therefore critically relevant to all pathways of mobility in the context of climate change and play a crucial role in understanding the causes and consequences of climate-related human mobility. This has been acknowledged by the main international actors and is reflected in numerous **global agreements** and commitments addressing HMCCC, most of which are non-legally binding and rely on voluntary contributions by states. Looking at the chronology of gender in intergovernmental processes, Resolution 1996/6 of the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) set out the mainstreaming of a gender perspective in United Nations (UN) policies and programmes in 1996. Since then, global negotiations have increasingly reflected the growing understanding of gender considerations in climate decision-making over the last twenty years. The most relevant frameworks include the Paris Agreement on climate change, the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration (GCM), the Global Compact on Refugees (GCR), the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction, the Gender Action Plan under the Lima Work Programme on Gender – UNFCCC, the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, the UNFCCC Task Force on Displacement (TFD) established by the WIM Executive Committee (ExCom), the Platform on Disaster Displacement (PDD), the Cancun Adaptation Framework and the Grand Bargain (GIZ, 2020c).

While these international processes and frameworks call for the implementation of gender-responsive approaches and gender-sensitive policies, they tend to follow a binary understanding of gender, **exclude other gender identities** and miss out on the opportunity to address all societal groups and include **issues of intersectionality** (GIZ, 2020c). Additionally, the **frameworks do not provide concrete guidance** on how gender-responsive approaches could be translated and implemented and instead rely on voluntary action by states which decide how they want to contribute to gender-responsive approaches to HMCCC at the national level. This also goes back to the point that many climate frameworks **lack detail on gender-specific challenges and rarely mainstream or prioritise gender-transformative** policy measures, such as gender action plans; they do not attempt to redefine gender roles and relationships. For example, while the WIM ExCom calls for an increase in the 'visibility of the gender dimension of the loss and damage agenda' (paragraph 49 of the WIM ExCom report FCCC/SB/2018/1), visibility is only a first step in the direction of gender-responsive action (GIZ, 2020c, p. 4; UNFCCC, 2020). No major international framework addresses all gender-related challenges, such as data gaps, safety and security, psychosocial needs, access to relief and other social services and the rights to own, inherit and use land.

With regard to climate-related processes and frameworks, the **Paris Agreement** has a particularly important role since it **legally obliges the signing parties to track their progress**. However, although it has a human rights approach to environmental migration, it does not address any of the main gender-specific challenges of HMCCC (ECLAC & IOM, 2021, p. 27). The **2030 Agenda** is the only framework to address **women's land rights**, which is a key issue in the context of female human mobility. In addition to challenges and vulnerabilities, **gender-specific opportunities** are key

to creating a more balanced idea of women's diverse roles in the context of HMCCC. Most international frameworks address at least some opportunities, such as equal consultation and participation and leadership opportunities. The **2030 Agenda** and the **GCR** are good examples as they illustrate gender-related opportunities across these two categories and also access to capacity building and education and the empowerment of women (ECLAC & IOM, 2021). In the context of the **GCM**, the German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ) made a pledge within the framework of the International Migration Review Forum (IMRF) in May 2022 to aim for gender-responsive and, if possible, gender-transformative implementation of the GCM (UN Network on Migration, 2022). The GCM framework leaves room for improvement on the integration of opportunities built on **education and capacity building for women**.

In some cases, **guidelines and action plans** have been developed to complement existing frameworks. In 2017, at the 25th session of the Conference of the Parties of the UNFCCC (COP25), a five-year enhanced Lima Work Programme on Gender and its Gender Action Plan were agreed (UNFCCC, nd.). Another example is the Words into Action guidelines on disaster displacement, developed by a team of experts led by the United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction (UNDRR) to support the Sendai Framework. It provides specific guidance on the application of human rights standards in evacuations and addresses areas that general frameworks do not cover. While it is an important first step that all the above frameworks make some mention of gender-related topics, coverage and specificity needs to be improved. Additional guidelines such as those mentioned above on **integrating a gender and intersectional lens** with practical guidance and checklists provide relevant examples.

German development cooperation

Since the end of 2021, the German Government has pursued a **feminist development policy** under the leadership of Minister Svenja Schulze (BMZ, 2022). The resulting BMZ strategy, published on 1 March 2023, places new and higher demands in terms of anchoring gender equality and inclusion in German development cooperation projects.

3Rs approach of the feminist development policy

Realise **rights**: commitment to repeal discriminatory laws and promote the legal empowerment of women and LGBTIQ* people in all areas of life. All people should be able to fully exercise their rights.

Ensure equitable access to **resources**: in development coopera-tion, more resources than before must be used specifically to promote gender equality.

Improve **representation**: all groups that have not been ade-quately represented up to now should be able to participate in and influence political decision-making processes at all levels. Women, LGBTIQ* people and other marginalised groups must participate equally in international negotiations, government agreements, the development of new strategies and the concep-tion of new projects.

In addition to a stronger focus on transforming gender inequality, there will also be greater emphasis on reducing discrimination against people on the basis of gender identity, sexual orientation, disability, skin colour or other characteristics and on increasing their participation. Intersectional, gender-transformative and power-critical approaches are expected to be given higher priority in the implementation of German development cooperation. The **3Rs of BMZ's feminist development policy** – rights, resources,

representation (BMZ, 2022) – will therefore be highlighted throughout the review using the icons below:

Objective and scope of the review

The GIZ GP HMCCC has been incorporating a gender lens on HMCCC through its activities and publications. This publication provides a **systematic review** of the findings of existing publications on gender, including recent literature and interviews from the programme's four geographical components in **the Philippines, the Caribbean, the Pacific and East Africa**. By compiling and synthesising the information into a systematic summary of the main issues and approaches, the review highlights differences and parallels between the regions. Combined with a global analysis of lessons learned and recommendations, it aims to contribute to the international policy debate.

With regard to the methodological approach, a **qualitative content analysis** was employed for the assessment and review of documents. This research design enabled an in-depth analysis of relevant categories and patterns found in the literature, making it possible to interpret and compare results accordingly. However, an important **limitation** to consider is that only a part of the academic and policy debate was reviewed. This research was not intended and does not claim to be an extensive literature review. It is rather an insight into the current discourse and debate and will therefore be continued, adapted and extended in the future.

The authors of the study are based in the Global North and **embedded in knowledge creation structures** associated with it. This affiliation influences the researchers' positionality and biases in their perception of debates and understanding of literature regarding the Global South. One researcher further positions herself in accordance with her origins and (professional) socialisation in the Global South.

2) Gender dimensions of HMCCC

Discussions on HMCCC and interlinkages between topics

Gender, human mobility and climate change are all **complex topics**, and there are theoretical debates and discussions on how these terms should be defined and understood. This is apparent in the list of terminology provided above. Human mobility, for example, can be distinguished in terms of its different forms, namely migration, forced displacement, (planned) relocation and immobility or trapped populations (these last two terms should not be regarded as synonyms; immobile suggests a certain degree of decision while trapped does not). These forms of mobility can be further dissected by **geographical** (e.g. internal or cross-border) and **temporal** (e.g. permanent or seasonal migration) **distinctions**. In turn, climate change is often discussed in the literature on human mobility in terms of its impacts and whether they result in slow onset events, extreme events or disasters. In the context of human mobility and climate change, discussions on gender often revolve around the roles, behaviours, activities and attributes of subpopulations that determine different **structural effects** of human mobility and climate change. Additionally, a large body of literature on gender in the context of HMCCC focuses on defining the gender perspective as, for example, non-binary, intersectional, including local and indigenous gender identities (see Terminology, p. 5) or a discursive process.

The way in which these topics are interconnected is even more complex, with different kinds of **interlinkages** found between the various forms of human mobility, the consequences of climate change and gendered realities (see Figure 1). The following section describes how state-of-the-art literature outlines the interrelationships between gender, human mobility and climate change.

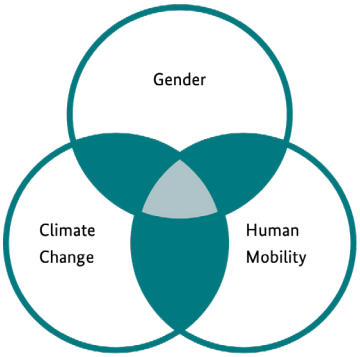

Figure 1: Interlinkages between gender, climate change and human mobility (own illustration)

Gender and human mobility

Gendered norms and inequalities contribute to differences in opportunities and vulnerabilities within a population. With regard to human mobility, these **gendered differences** shape how different subpopulations consider the options or necessity of mobility, conditions while they are on the move and what the resulting impact of mobility may be (Lama et al., 2021, p. 34). However, as gender is not a static condition but a continuous process, the experiences and impacts of human mobility can affect gendered **norms and inequalities** and, in turn, give rise to new opportunities and challenges (see Figure 2). A further dimension to consider is how different forms of human mobility (and immobility) carry different gendered implications. Gendered norms and inequalities have different implications when it comes to migration, displacement, (planned) relocation and immobility. These gendered implications can be seen in the opportunities and vulnerabilities associated with the different realities of human mobility as well as in the drivers and resulting impacts of migration, displacement, (planned) relocation and immobility (GIZ, 2021d; Sierra Club & UN Women, 2018).

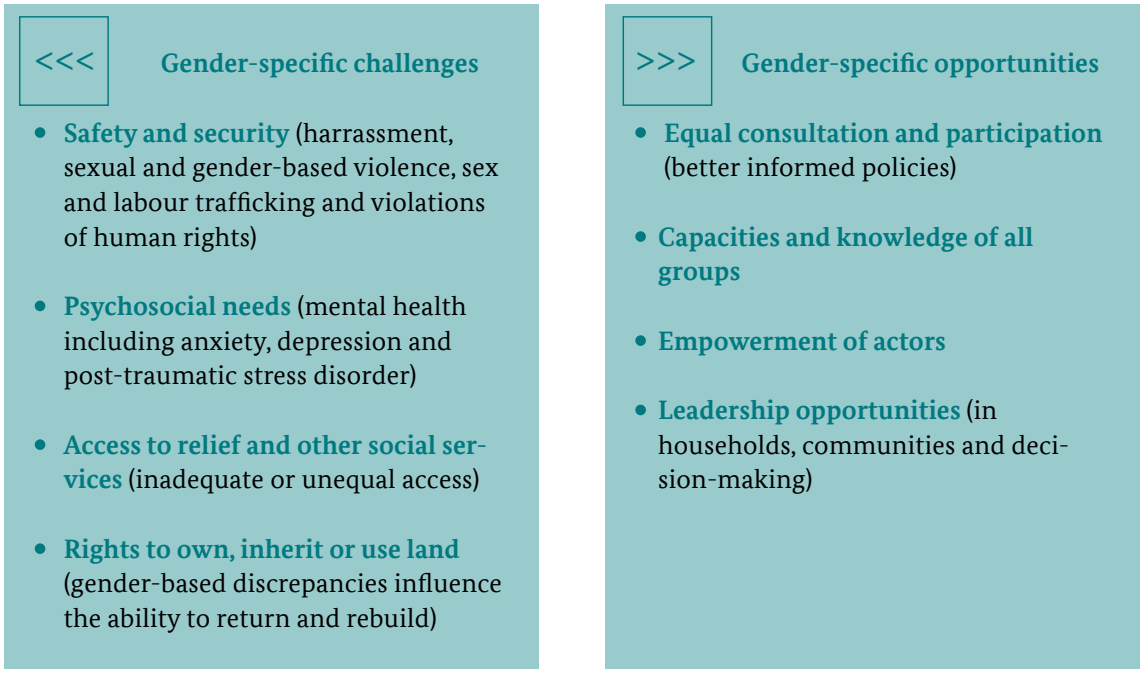

Figure 2: Own illustration, based on Sierra Club & UN Women, 2018

Human mobility and climate change

From the perspective of human mobility, climate change is often considered a driver, a constraint or a parallel impact on communities and the environment. Climate change can directly or indirectly contribute to reasons for migration, displacement, (planned) relocation and immobility, acting as a driver of mobility. Owing to the multicausality of human mobility, however, the effects of climate change cannot be considered in isolation. There are a range of other parallel factors, many of which are themselves affected by climate change (such as agricultural factors, conflict-related factors, food security, economic opportunities, etc.). Climate change impacts may also constrain mobility by limiting the possibility of migrating or by affecting the lived realities of displaced people (i.e. through access to resources). Additionally, climate change can affect environments and populations that are already experiencing human mobility, possibly putting an **added strain on resources**. Furthermore, different kinds of climate change-related impacts, whether slow onset or extreme events, can affect human mobility in different ways (Evertsen & van der Geest, 2020; McLeman & Gemenne, 2018).

Gender and climate change

As with gender and human mobility, the relationship between gender and climate change is fundamentally shaped by gendered norms and inequalities that affect how different subpopulations experience the impacts of climate change in terms of **opportunities and challenges** (Lama et al., 2021). Gender also plays an important role in terms of vulnerabilities to climate risks and opportunities for adaptive capacity, especially among marginalised groups. Policies on climate change and risk management should therefore not only be gender-responsive (i.e., take gender into account), but also gender-transformative (i.e., promote shared power, control of resources, decision-making and support for the empowerment of women).

Gender-specific challenges vs opportunities

Much of the literature on gender and HMCCC refers to women and other social groups as the only groups **affected and vulnerable** to climate change, migration and displacement. While it is crucial to acknowledge the gen-

der-specific and intersectional challenges, this sole focus on vulnerabilities also **distracts from the capacities** of diverse population groups and opportunities to achieve better outcomes for society as a whole. Therefore, the social 'construction of economically poor women as victims denies women's agency and emphasizes their vulnerability as their intrinsic problem' (UNHCR & PIK, 2022, p. 2). In a similar vein, a sole binary focus on women and girls prevalent in the discourse on gender distracts from other gender identities and sexual identities, such as LGBTIQ*. This review therefore aims to move beyond a binary view and include more perspectives of gender identity, sexual orientation, age, disability and economic status, addressing **both gender-specific challenges and opportunities**. Shifting social norms can create entry points for marginalised gender identities to gain economic empowerment and participation in decision-making as an accompanying feature of HMCCC, provided that appropriate policies are in place. The main challenges and opportunities can be grouped according to these categories and will be highlighted throughout the review (Sierra Club & UN Women, 2018).

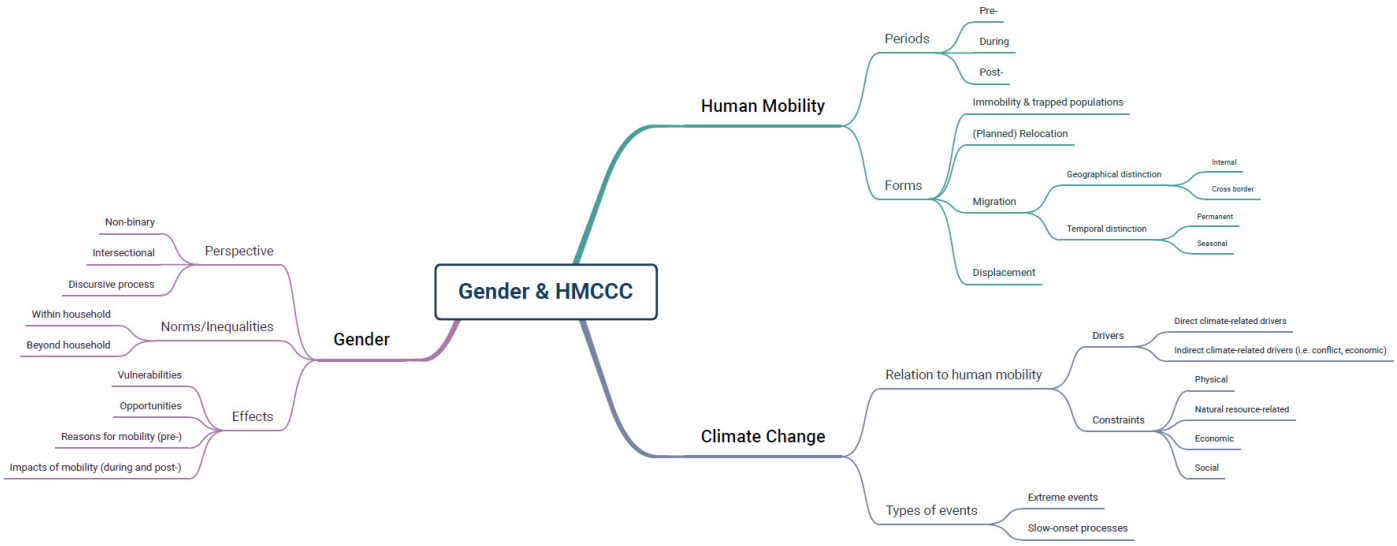

Figure 3: Connecting the dots on gender and HMCCC

3) Gender dimensions of climate change-induced migration

Definition: The movement of persons away from their place of usual residence, either across an international border or within a state (IOM, 2022). Migration can take different forms – circular, temporary, seasonal, permanent and return movements. In the context of HMCCC, migration can be seen as a strategy for adaptation, where households diversify their use of assets (e.g. financial, human and social capital) to cope with slow onset impacts on livelihoods (e.g. agricultural production), often in contrast to 'trapped' members of households who stay behind (Sierra Club & UN Women, 2018, p. 5).

Social meaning of migration in the Caribbean

The literature on human mobility due to climate events has generally focused on the physical meaning of mobility rather than on the different social meanings that it acquires and constructs. In the Caribbean, migration has historically been one of the primary means through which Caribbean people seek employment and educational opportunities. The free movement frameworks facilitated by the Caribbean Community Single Market and economy (CSME) and the Organisation of Eastern Caribbean States (OECS) have played a significant role in this. In this context, education- and employment-related migration often acquires social meanings related to opportunities, freedom and justice (GIZ, 2022a).

Climate change is increasingly influencing human mobility and migration patterns as a result of a **reduction in resource availability, increasing food insecurity and worsening social cohesion.** Climate-induced risks and persistent economic insecurity are a major driver of migration and exacerbate the need to find better working opportunities and living conditions elsewhere. Affected populations migrate to adapt and cope in the face of environmental hazards, such as drought and flooding. The challenges they pose are often intertwined with livelihood issues, such as poor harvests and decreasing agricultural productivity and income. As a result, populations move to find a more sustainable livelihood to better adapt and cope with climatic and economic insecurities.

Conflicts over natural resource management and conflict mediation

Against the background of growing conflicts over natural resources in the context of climate change, the inclusion of women in all their diversity and indigenous people in resource governance and natural resource conflict resolution results in gender-specific opportunities in terms of natural resource management and conflict mediation. To this end, gender sensitisation sessions and discussion forums with young people, men and traditional elders as part of a UN Project in Sudan sought to change the norms around women's diverse role in conflict mediation processes, especially those concerning natural resources (UNEP, 2018).

In addition to economic insecurities, harsh environmental conditions created or worsened by climate change negatively impact **social cohesion**. In fragile states, in particular, this leads to populations not being able to meet their basic needs (McLeman & Gemenne, 2018). Climate change also causes **shifts in pastoral migration patterns** in East Africa. Changing pastoral routes and patterns can cause families to split, increase the burden of household work for women and expose men to danger on unsafe routes (GIZ, 2021a).

In northern Uganda, there are emerging social issues arising as a result of droughts that are having a severe impact on **social cohesion in families and communities.** As their livelihoods come under threat due to droughts, pastoralists seek alternative livelihoods or coping activities, such as brewing, mining, selling products or migration. However, women face problems within their families, such as accusations of infidelity, when they work away from home (e.g. in mines) because droughts are limiting pastoral activities (GIZ, 2022b).

The literature suggests that, in the context of HMCCC, **the majority of migrants move within the borders** of their own country as internal migrants. This has been found to be true across all geographical regions. Migration patterns usually show movement from **rural to urban areas**, motivated by the need to find better working opportunities and living conditions, which many lose due to climate-induced risks and the consequent economic insecurity. Once they have migrated to urban areas, many migrants from rural regions settle in particularly **flood-prone area**s, often in slums, due to their low socio-economic status. In doing so, they paradoxically and unknowingly contribute to the very risks they were trying to avoid (GIZ, 2021a). While some people migrate as **individuals**, it is very often the case that **entire households** (or even communities) move.

Temporary and seasonal migration

In terms of time-related patterns, migration can be **temporary or long-term**. Temporary and seasonal migration has, in many contexts, been **a strategy for coping with challenging conditions**, such as heat waves and intense rainy seasons, since it is often linked to alternative sources of livelihood (from around three months to five years). Increasingly, previously recurrent patterns of seasonal migration, which reduced reliance on limited natural resources, have become unsustainable; this is especially the case with slow onset events. In such cases, focusing on gender dimensions provides a powerful lens for gaining a better grasp of the situation and taking appropriate action. One important characteristic of seasonal and temporary work as a driver for HMCCC is its **individual** nature. However, many censuses across the Asia-Pacific, including the **Philippines**, lack temporary/seasonal migration data which would be useful in policymaking (GIZ, 2021c).

Return migration in the Philippines under COVID-19

As well as causing migrants to leave their homes, global crises may also cause them to return. This was especially apparent during the COVID-19 pandemic when many overseas workers from the Philippines returned and needed to be reintegrated (Kang & Latoja, 2022). The Philippines is a major migrant-sending and remittance-receiving economy, and the emigration of Filipino workers has been part of the country's development narrative (GIZ, 2021c, p. 10). In 2007, women accounted for 70% of overseas Filipino workers (GIZ, 2021c, p. 11).

In some cases, it is **difficult to disentangle** the characteristics of the two, as what was originally intended to be **temporary migration might turn into long-term and permanent migration.**

Gender-specific challenges

Gender dimensions influence 'all stages of migration – from motivations for migration, migration pathways and routes, as well as the opportunities and resources available to potential migrants' (IOM, 2021, p. 6). This results in g**ender-differentiated challenges and impacts** relating to migration. **Negative gender-related impacts** have been consistently identified in the literature. For example, studies in Bangladesh have shown that, due to gender norms, 'women have to weigh migration opportunities against higher social costs than men' (Evertsen & van der Geest, 2020, p. 20). Consequently, a larger climate-related risk may be needed before women perceive it as high enough to warrant action.

Best practice: Training and data on migration and HMCCC in Kiribati, Pacific

In Kiribati, 94% of households have been impacted by environmental hazards over the past 10 years, mostly caused by sea level rise, but also by droughts and floods due to climate change. A GIZ case study showed the im-portance of data collection on migration with context-specific age and gender dimensions. Insights into the vul-nerabilities and capacity of those on the move are essen-tial for developing effective responses. To ensure accurate representation in community assessments, household interviews should not only target the man, assuming he is the head of the household, but also include a female representative of the household. The same is true for any training provided. In Kiribati, the importance of training both male and female representatives was demonstrated. Shared knowledge saves lives in the absence of either of the family members (GIZ, 2020b).

In a similar vein, **power imbalances** in households or communities – often based on gender, but also on age and abilities – strongly influence climate-induced migration decisions. Many affected people are forced to follow the (often male) head of the family or community. This is rooted in women's and other social groups' **lack of land rights and social protection** and a consequent dependency on male breadwinners and heads of households (ECLAC & IOM, 2021; Sierra Club & UN Women, 2018).

Further, the dynamics of migration clearly reflect discrimination based on **status and economic means** between poor and rich, since not everybody is able to afford the costs of mobility and migration.
When searching for sustainable livelihoods in the context of climate change, **decent work** is often hard to find, especially for socially disadvantaged groups. Common destinations are **urban areas**, centres of commercial agriculture or mining sites, where **dire working conditions** await migrants (GIZ, 2021a). Additionally, many female migrants find themselves in **stereotypical jobs**, such as domestic and care work. This is especially apparent in the case of the **Philippines**, where almost 65% of female migrants are employed in domestic and care work. Additionally, if women are accompanying their spouse rather than choosing their own path, they are responsible for unpaid care and social work in households and communities (Pearson & Sweetman, 2019, p. 6). All these aspects demonstrate that women **face obligations and expectations** from the community in both the country of origin and destination, creating burdens and reinforcing the traditional roles they were trying to escape (Myrttinen, 2017).

As a result of seasonal migration by mostly male family members, other family members, such as girls and women and older people, who do not migrate are often more **strongly exposed** to climate-induced risks and additional stress factors (Pearson & Sweetman, 2019). This might include access to services, health impacts, the weight of existing gender norms that can expose women to additional risks, access to land tenure and labour protection. An example of this is Australia's and New

Zealand's Seasonal Worker Programme, which employs a mainly male seasonal workforce from the **Pacific** (Tonga and Vanuatu) in the agricultural sector. People staying behind often face hardship and neglect, as is explained in more detail in Chapter 6 on immobility and trapped populations (Pearson & Sweetman, 2019).

Gender-specific opportunities

Gender-specific opportunities of migration

Case studies on Mali, Nigeria, Tanzania and Viet Nam demonstrate that independent migration is on the increase among young women because they have limited land rights and few prospects at home and, in part, because there are more employment opportunities in urban centres. Young women also tend to move further than young men and for longer, and the sending of remittances to the parental household has contributed greatly to making young women's migration socially acceptable. For some women, migration is a way of negotiating or escaping from power relations and increasing personal independence while avoiding conflict over gender and generational norms (Evertsen & van der Geest, 2020).

Studies concerning climate change impacts often dismiss the **gendered opportunities of migration**. When focusing on the role of women, they follow the narrative of passivity and vulnerability, focusing strongly on women being impacted by climate change and staying behind when the husband migrates (Evertsen & van der Geest, 2020). Existing disaggregated data shows no significant increase in migration as a reaction to droughts over recent years. However, the **number of women migrating** has increased significantly, even for seasonal migration (IOM, 2021).

Migration can, in itself, be an opportunity for people and communities. It enables members of society to exercise **agency** in their personal decisions and **choose their own path** when facing climate-induced events or the consequent deterioration of their economic status. Affected people aim to diversify their source of income and/or pay remittances to their families, often because of climate-induced changes in their home environment that prevent them from carrying out their usual livelihood activities. Over the last few years, the share of women in rural-to-urban migration has increased immensely, and they now account for more than half of all rural-to-urban migrants (GIZ, 2020a). The increase is also attributed to shortages of land and new opportunities in urban areas (Evertsen & van der Geest, 2020). **Free movement and accessible migration pathways** are key to supporting them in their aspirations. More information on how and why women migrate and how their experience differs is essential, given the rise in climate-induced events and the increasing numbers of female migrants (ECLAC & IOM, 2021; Evertsen & van der Geest, 2020).

With the general and widespread loss of livestock and its repercussions on food security in **East Africa**, women play an important role in ensuring the survival of their families by engaging in a variety of non-livestock-related activities that provide the family with income and, consequently, a source of food. In addition, they keep small ruminants and camels which are considered better able to a**dapt to drought conditions** and can forage around the home (GIZ, 2022b).

Remittances and structural challenges of finance

The importance of the role of remittances in development cannot be overstated. In the context of HMCCC, it serves as disaster relief, as a means of financing adaptation and increasing resili-ence and as an enabler for mobility. However, social and gender aspects also influence who is sending/receiving the remittances and in what context. For women-headed households, remittances constitute important livelihood-preserving funds that they might not have received otherwise. In a study of remittances received in climate disaster-prone villages in Bangladesh, gender was also a factor in the sending of funds. Women who migrated due to climate change (e.g. because unstable crop yields led them to seek economic opportunities elsewhere) remitted larger propor-tions of their income than men did. In general, however, it should be kept in mind that the types of financial and remittance ser-vices offered often do not meet the financial needs of migrant women. For example, sending smaller sums more often costs more in transfer fees. This reveals a need to develop products and services that cater to the unique characteristics and needs of different target groups. Women generally also have less access to banking than men in developing countries, which presents struc-tural challenges in addition to social ones (GIZ, 2022a).

In addition to economic motives, many discriminated groups, including young people, women and especially members of the LGBTIQ* community, hope for a **change from the traditional gender roles** when they migrate to another country (ECLAC & IOM, 2021). Unfortunately, this is not always the case, as rights violations are a reality for all migrants, especially irregular migrants. All this underlines the importance of **adopting a gender-responsive or transformative approach** for both internal and international migration and the significance of international frameworks addressing these challenges and opportunities, which are not recognised in most countries. In this regard, it is necessary to identify and expand legal migration pathways that have been shown to increase opportunities and reduce vulnerabilities for women and their households while also bringing benefits to both sending and receiving communities (UNHCR & PIK, 2022).

4) Gender dimensions of climate change-induced dis-placement

Definition: Displacement is the term used to describe the (predominantly) forced movement of persons away from their home or place of residence. This dimension of human mobility is most often framed as a humanitarian concern, where displaced persons have immediate needs, including assistance and rights protection (Sierra Club & UN Women, 2018; IOM, 2022). Forced displacement is related to the increased severity and frequency of extreme weather events (IDMC, 2021; Nansen Initiative, 2015).

In the case of forced displacement due to extreme weather events, a gender perspective is highly relevant in all three phases of displacement processes, namely **preventive action, disaster relief and when enabling return.** Evidence shows that forced displacement is highly gendered, rooted in inequalities, and that policies need to address the specific requirements that affected groups and women have before, during and after being displaced. In general, it is essential to address basic socio-economic inequalities and provide all social groups with the same education. In this way, casualties can be reduced while also allowing diverse groups to rise to their own potential, which ultimately contributes to building the resilience of entire communities.

Preventive action

In order to avert displacement, preventive actions can be taken by individuals, communities, organisations and governments. They need to be integrated into daily life before displacement occurs and reflect **underlying structures** within our society. Understanding these societal structures and forms of discrimination is therefore key to understanding what preventive measures are needed and the gender dynamics behind them.

Training of border security officials in OECS Member States on cross-border displacement in disaster and climate change sce-narios

Populations displaced due to sudden weather events have experi-enced negative gender-related impacts in their interactions with civil servants during displacement. Inappropriate treatment in such in-stances can result in traumatising experiences. This has highlighted the need to increase the awareness and sensitisation of officials in the Caribbean, especially border security officials. For this purpose, an online training course for border officials in the OECS Member States was conducted in 2020, with the support of national and multilateral organisations. One of the course objectives was to improve under-standing of protection, gender and inclusion responses to cross-border movements following a disaster or climate-induced event (OECS & CARICOM, 2021).

Gender-specific challenges

Social norms and power distribution can generate a higher level of **vulnerability in affected** social groups, especially those facing additional obstacles due to **discrimination** based on race, sexuality, origin, family status, employment, religion, disability or age. This is reflected in lower levels of education and lower economic status due to the gender pay gap or employment in industries that are strongly affected by extreme weather events, such as tourism and agriculture (ECLAC & IOM, 2021; UNDP, 2019).

Gender aspects of financing mechanisms: Forecast-based financing

This financial support can be used to secure properties (houses, etc.) before a disaster hits in order to strengthen coping capacities and anticipatory action, which in turn helps to avoid displacement (GIZ, 2022a). In Bangladesh, World Food Programme (WFP) set up a scheme for anticipatory cash transfers that were delivered as early as four days before severe flood impacts (100 days earlier compared to WFP's flood response in 2019). It was concluded that anticipatory action in predictable crises effective in maintaining the food security of welfare costs of displacement (WFP, 2021). Funding can be allocated in such a way as to help promote positions of social and difnancial influence for woman and marginalized people. An example of this is the Hunger Safety Net Programme (HSNP) which is an unconditional cash transfer programme run by the Government of Kenya and financially supported by the United Kingdom Foreign, Commonwealth & Development Office (FCDO). There are also intersectional programmes: (1) Older Persons Cash Transfer; (2) Cash Transfers for Orphans and Vulnerable Children; and (3) Persons with Severe Disability Cash Transfer. In four poor and dry regions in northern Kenya, the programme provides more than 200,000 shock-responsive safety nets through bank accounts and cards to provide money to cushion beneficiaries against damage caused by drought and floods (SPaN, 2019).

Constructed inequalities, for example, also cause female-headed households to struggle when trying to **access prevention and relief services** once displaced, while in non-female-headed households they result in a lack of opportunity for women to influence **decision-making** on climate adaptation or preventive migration (UNHCR & PIK, 2022). One main finding from a gender lens analysis of HMCCC and disaster response in the Caribbean is that regional disaster agencies do not focus enough on human mobility, especially standard operating protocols and procedures. A stronger focus would require not only a broader perspective including intersectionality as a concept, but also detailed plans for the different aspects involved in mobility in disaster situations, each of them gendered in specific ways. One aspect frequently overlooked during disaster relief activities is the provision of psychosocial support for affected people. The delivery of such services for affected populations is made more difficult in the context of mobility by policy challenges related to social protection systems in different locations (OECS & CARICOM, 2021; GIZ, 2022a).

Gender-based inequalities and **dependencies** are only intensified by innovations failing to account for gender-specific needs. For example, for early warning systems to effectively reach affected groups, they must overcome the barriers some face in accessing certain technologies and information (UN Habitat et al., 2015). Additionally, intra-household vulnerabilities are often not assessed when creating vulnerability maps. New approaches that specifically focus on high-risk groups and their locations helped to create effective preventive measures in the Caribbean (ECLAC & IOM, 2021; UN Habitat et al., 2015). Many of the inequalities mentioned above are strongly related to, or originate in, **unpaid care and household work**, traditionally associated with female roles. These set gender roles not only cause financial and social de-pendency, but also become a burden once slow onset events reduce the availability and provision of water and food, often perceived as the responsibility of women (ECLAC & IOM, 2021).

In the case of sudden weather events, these inequalities also determine **who is displaced**.

Gender disparities are evident in the numbers of displaced people, as indicated by the data, one example being Hurricane Dorian which hit Grand Bahama. Studies have shown that **equal access to education and equal distribution of economic and social rights** can mitigate these gendered effects (ECLAC & IOM, 2021). The data available on gender-based differences in displacement reveals that **mortality rates** among women are higher than among men. The reasons are partly related to cultural norms that prevent women from leaving their homes in time, for example, because they have caring obligations or lack life-saving skills, such as the ability to swim (McLeman & Gemenne, 2018; Terry, 2009). Here, more **gender-disaggregated data** on who is displaced and for how long would additionally help to assess the concrete gender-based effects and gender disparities (ECLAC & IOM, 2021; GIZ, 2022a; Sierra Club & UN Women, 2018).

Gender-specific opportunities

Best practice: Girls in risk reduction leadership in South Africa

This project by the African Centre for Disaster Studies, sup-ported by the World Bank, builds practical capacity to in-crease individual and community resilience to disasters. The training for girls in townships focuses on expertise in per-sonal and public health, fire safety, counselling and disaster planning. These measures are aimed at empowering wom-en, building their skills and complementing their traditional roles within the community. They also seek to support risk reduction teams and build resilience within the community (UN Habitat et al., 2015).

Including more diverse representatives in disaster and risk management could present an **opportunity to reduce casualties** when extreme weather events occur. The extent to which women are affected by such events and their role within the family might be the reason why they **estimate the risks** of such events more realistically than men, who often underestimate them, according to a study (Terry, 2009). Another clash of burden and opportunity arises when the head of the household, who is often a man, is absent when the crisis occurs due, for example, to earlier migration. Women then take on roles traditionally occupied by men. While this can bring **empowerment** and chal-lenge social barriers, the short-lived opportunity might cause a backlash once the head of the household returns and traditional roles are resumed (Myrttinen, 2017; UNDP, 2019). At the same time, **men in all their diversity also face vulnerabilities**. An example of this can be found in Chad. During droughts, men under pressure to pro-vide for their family had to stay behind to protect livestock and face the dangers posed by armed groups and the risk of being recruited by them (GIZ, 2022a; UNHCR & PIK, 2022).

Disaster relief

Gender-specific challenges

During climate-related disasters and displacement, there are **c**ore gender-specific challenges that arise from the structures and inequalities described above: safety and security, psychosocial needs, access to relief and other social services, and rights. As research underlines, it is essential that any disaster relief action consider these gen-der-specific needs not only during extreme weather disasters, but also immediately afterwards when people are seeking shelter and arriving at shelter facilities (ECLAC & IOM, 2021). Studies have found a heightened risk of sexual and gender-based violence (GBV) and trafficking while people are displaced, detained in (refugee) camps and not in their home environment (UNHCR & PIK, 2022). After Hurricane Katrina in the United States, the rate of GBV, mostly inflicted by intimate partners, showed a 3.5-fold increase (Sierra Club & UN Women, 2018). In

many contexts and cultures, such incidents are still seen as a private matter and disconnected from climate-induced stress, reducing the likelihood of them being reported and of victims receiving assistance (UNHCR & PIK, 2022). According to case studies in East Africa, for example, incidents of GBV may exist irrespective of climate change, although it is plausible that the scarcity of food and women's inability to carry the household care burden as a result of drought are fuelling GBV (GIZ, 2022b).

Additionally, the needs and safety of those affected are not taken into account at most relief shelters. The lack of separate sleeping quarters, separate toilets and medical care and expertise on specific medical conditions for women reflects a failure to recognise the importance of **sexual and reproductive health** for all women who are pregnant, breastfeeding or menstruating (GIZ, 2020a; IOM, 2021; Sierra Club & UN Women, 2018). This is com-pounded by the lack of insurance programmes and **social protection** for marginalised populations, financial sup-port to buy sanitary products and health care for chronic diseases that women are more likely to suffer from (ECLAC & IOM, 2021). **LGBTIQ*** people lack access in general or are afraid to access services because of discrimi-nation (UNHCR & PIK, 2022). Due to anxiety, post-traumatic stress and the pressure of fulfilling expectations as a caregiver, women have a **higher risk of mental health problems** after displacement. After Hurricane Katrina, women were four times more likely than men to be diagnosed as having acute stress disorder (Sierra Club & UN Women, 2018). One frequently overlooked aspect is the provision of psychosocial support for affected people (GIZ, 2022a).

Gender-specific opportunities

Despite these challenges, women create inspiring opportunities for themselves and their communities. They take on '**leadership roles** for their communities at all stages of climate-related mobility' (Sierra Club & UN Women, 2018, p. 7), for example, as community mobilisers, camp managers, providers of accommodation, food and supplies and caregivers.

Gender aspects of financing mecha-nisms: Microcredit

Microcredit granted after an event can help bridge liquidity gaps and be crucial in avoiding irreparable loss of livelihood. Microcredit can be designed to be gender-transformative to the extent that it considers local social norms, power structures and hierarchies. However, it can only be transformative if the institutions enabling it focus efforts on this aspect; granting microcredit will not automatically result in the empowerment of women (GIZ, 2022a). While not specifically designed for HMCCC, the GIZ **Women's Financial Toolkit** provides insights on how to design gender-responsive and transformative financial products for the empowerment of women in the long term. In unstable contexts, people having access to **mobile phone credit** can be crucial for reaching displaced and affected populations, as shown in the Vanuatu (Pacific) Gender & Protection Cluster (GIZ, 2020b).

They use their skills, traditional knowledge and social network to provide resources, address ine-qualities and create better outcomes for displaced people overall, ultimately **contributing to building the resili-ence of their communities** and effective coping strategies. An example of this is the knowledge on water conser-vation in refugee camps that women gained and put into practice (ECLAC & IOM, 2021; Sierra Club & UN Women, 2018; UN Habitat et al., 2015; UNHCR & PIK, 2020).

Gendered support networks in the Caribbean

In the Caribbean, the relatively high percentage of households headed by women, estimated at 35%, was a factor in the response to climate disasters, such as those caused by Hurricanes Irma and Maria in 2017, which displaced a large number of Domini-ca's inhabitants. As a result, gendered networks played an important role in support systems and in decisions to move. These mainly female support networks made travel arrangements, organised supplies and provided accommodation for displaced migrants (GIZ, 2022c).

Return

Gender-specific challenges

Even though women might take on leadership roles in certain instances, political frameworks can stand in their way to empowerment. Especially important is the lack of **land rights frameworks** enabling women to own, inherit and use land and other resources and assets. This, coupled with a **lack of employment opportunities** because they do not have the skills required in male-dominated industries that are particularly important when rebuilding, such as carpentry, means that women have a **slower rate of recovery and return**. They therefore often feel less safe than men after returning (ECLAC & IOM, 2021; IOM, 2021; Sierra Club & UN Women, 2018).

Gender-specific opportunities

These effects can be mitigated through active engagement in **natural resource management** and by providing women with **access to agricultural technology and finance** (McLeman & Gemenne, 2018). Here also, intersect-ing discrimination adds another burden. An example of this is **female-headed households of Haitian** descent in the Dominican Republic. The fear of deportation drove them to hide in the bush on their return and prevented them from accessing health care services and seeking help after suffering GBV (ECLAC & IOM, 2021). One fre-quently overlooked aspect is the provision of psychosocial support for people needing such services on their return. This is also associated with further-reaching policy challenges related to social protection systems (GIZ, 2022a).

5) Gender dimensions of climate change-induced relocation

Definition: The process through which communities are moved from their homes, settled in a new location and provided with the conditions for rebuilding their lives, often with the support of their government. This process can be in anticipation of, or as a response to, climate impacts. Depending on the circumstances, planned relocation can be a form of displacement or it can be a way to manage risks and prevent displacement related to future hazards (Sierra Club & UN Women, 2018; UNHCR, 2014).

With exacerbating climate impacts and, in particular, (predictable) slow onset weather events, (planned) relocation and resettlement have become an **option for reducing climate risks** for communities. However, climate adapta-tion strategies are often the preferred option. (Planned) relocations are often **the last resort** for both the commu-nities being relocated and the government officials relocating them, after other climate adaptation strategies have failed. Policy-makers should therefore bear in mind that (planned) relocation is a very sensitive issue and requires both transparency and the willingness of affected communities. In addition to the planning processes being costly and complex, the communities themselves are often understandably hesitant to leave their livelihoods behind. (Small) island states are especially prone to cyclones and sea level rise, extreme and slow onset events that are already leading to planned relocation in the **Pacific.** Although some good practices have been developed there, more than in other regions, studies confirm that there is still a gap in research explicitly addressing gendered vul-nerabilities in the context of climate-induced human mobility in the Pacific (GIZ, 2020a).

Best practice: Draft standard operating procedures for planned relocation in Fiji

Article 77(1)(e) of the 2021 Fiji Climate Change Act provides that relocation of at-risk communities can only take place with their full free and prior informed consent, following inclusive and gender-responsive consultation and participatory processes. To this end, standards operating principles are currently being drafted. They include guidelines specifying that, whenever a decision-making process is foreseen, voting and deliberation results are to be considered in a disaggregated manner for different stakeholder groups, with the adoption of a gender-sensitive and intersectional approach. Agreement from 60% of all consulted groups is required for decisions to be adopted (GIZ, 2020b).

Gender-specific challenges

To ensure that planned relocation is inclusive and gender-responsive, information sharing, consultation and partici-pation are essential. The biggest challenge to planned relocation is therefore **reconciling the different needs** and interests of communities arising from their place of origin and destination. Understanding the diverse needs of different communities and groups is crucial to ensuring sustainable solutions through a **gendered lens.** The litera-ture overwhelmingly points to a lack of gender-disaggregated data for planned relocation (GIZ, 2020b, 2021b). The first prerequisite is to assess the situation and the perceptions of the affected population through gender analysis and gender-disaggregated data to **inform relocation planning** early on.

While in many cases, whole communities relocate collectively, the different social groups within communities still **experience the process differently** due to social, cultural and gender norms. Inclusive relocation plans will need to consider the diversity of gender, age, physical abilities, economic status, rural/urban setting and the differing ability of the population to deal with the changes in their livelihood. For example, physical disabilities might hinder evacuation and relocation and need to be considered in the planning process (Bell et al., 2020).

Challenges that may arise during and after relocation processes can roughly be categorised under safety and security, psychosocial needs, access to relief and other social services, and rights to own, inherit and use land (Sierra Club & UN Women, 2018). Evidence from development-related relocation suggests that the **disruption of community structures** affects social groups differently. While there are relatively greater negative impacts for women, it is evident that older people might also find it very difficult to relocate to other livelihood and cultural settings, and this could have negative impacts on their wellbeing, mental health and cultural practices (Sierra Club & UN Women, 2018). Further, raising awareness on issues such as **systemic discrimination, GBV and sexual and reproductive health and rights** is important for all genders and identities (GIZ, 2021b).

It is also important to bear in mind that (planned) relocation may impact **work opportunities** that are often gen-dered (e.g. men fishing and women selling products at markets). Land for agricultural use is not often included in land agreements with hosts, which means that both men and women have to travel further to access agricultural plots. Changing work opportunities might mean that women have to shoulder even more burdens, in addition to their caregiving responsibilities (GIZ, 2020b). For instance, relocating **informal settlements** to remote areas where land is cheap is considered to be a solution by some cities, especially when disasters have destroyed fragile struc-tures. This could increase the difficulties women face in accessing formal jobs and might lead to the further exclu-sion of slum dwellers (UN Habitat et al., 2015)

Gender aspects of financing mechanisms: Budget contingency

Even though contingency budgets are still underused due to difficulties related to the inherent 'zero-sum' nature of national budgets, further use of this instrument is expected. Given its medium to long-term characteristics, such financing instruments can integrate a gender lens into planning and deliberation mechanisms. For example, plans can be drawn up in advance to ensure that funding is gender-transformative (GIZ, 2022a).

Gender-specific opportunities

Social norms mean that men tend to be better **represented in decision-making practices** (e.g. village meetings or Bose Vanua, an arm of governance in village settings in Fiji) and make decisions on the use of land. Similarly, men normally make decisions concerning (planned) relocation, house design and infrastructure rehabilitation (GIZ, 2020b). It is clear that all social groups have **traditional and historical knowledge** that is important in commu-nity preparedness and response. Failure to respect the rights and needs of all community members might contrib-ute to widening existing gender gaps and inequalities (CARE International, 2020; GIZ, 2021b; UNHCR & PIK, 2022).

The reviewed literature also shows that **participatory relocation processes** are crucial in achieving equitable outcomes, especially for relocations that are government-led. Understanding a community's needs and considering it as a participatory agent can lead to better relocation strategies that effectively protect people from permanent loss of land and livelihoods and can even improve

livelihood outcomes (CARE International, 2020). Bottom-up pro-cesses also prevent certain parts of the population that are more included and prioritised from being given their **status and power dynamics**. An example of good practice for **inclusive participation in relocation processes** can be found in Fiji (see box above). Other examples from the Philippines, Papua New Guinea and Guatemala show that women have **taken leadership roles** in their communities and played an **essential part** in (planned) relocation and mobilising communities, undertaking 'what were traditionally considered male tasks' (Sierra Club & UN Women, 2018, p. 7), for example, ensuring livelihoods and a reliable stream of income. This demonstrates that while (planned) relocation is a challenge in terms of existing vulnerabilities, it can also lead to better outcomes and opportunities.

6) Gender dimensions of immobility and trapped popu-lations

Definition: Trapped populations are those who stay behind or are unable to move, for example, due to a lack of financial and social resources. Significant physical and financial capital is required to move, and obstacles such as a lack of financial means, cultural stigmas or a lack of supporting social networks can prevent people from utilising migration as an adaptation or risk reduction strategy. These groups and individuals may be the most vulnerable over time as climate impacts and other stressors increase (Sierra Club & UN Women, 2018).

The reviewed documents also show that trapped populations face a '**double set of risks**' by being both unable to move away from environmental threats and vulnerable to their impacts, especially in low-income countries that are particularly susceptible to environmental change (McLeman & Gemenne, 2018, p. 37). Therefore, only focusing on people who move might make people and communities who are immobile, trapped and left behind **invisible** (McLeman & Gemenne, 2018). To grasp the full picture of gender and HMCCC, it is therefore crucial to **capture both mobility and immobility** and understand the gendered reasons and implications behind them. In contrast to migration and displacement, choosing to stay can be 'a desirable human mobility outcome, in that it represents the exercise of free choice by affected populations' (Foresight, 2011, p. 118). However, contrary to the other forms of mobility, there is very little evidence of gender-specific opportunities arising from immobility and trapped popula-tions. For this reason, the following chapter **focuses on challenges** only.

Gender-specific challenges

The reviewed documents point to the fact that, across regions, populations and specific social groups find them-selves immobile and trapped. This is often due to a **lack of resources and social and gender norms** and to having limited agency and being vulnerable when immobile and trapped. **Social norms, gender roles and eco-nomic capital** influence who moves, but an intersectional analysis of who stays and why people are trapped is also needed (GIZ, 2020b, 2021c). The following paragraphs explain the gendered reasons why populations are immobile or trapped.

COVID-19 pandemic, immobility and trapped populations in the Caribbean

The global COVID-19 pandemic, together with its mitigation measures, has added another layer of immobility for many people worldwide, leaving populations trapped in situations where they faced compounded challenges. There are several examples that show how the pandemic has further exacerbated disaster relief in response to extreme weather events. The case of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines in 2020 and 2021 is a striking example; volcanic eruptions compounded by heavy rainfall, severe flooding and the COVID-19 pandemic created a unique set of circumstances that led to people being trapped. While some people did not want to go to shelters in the first place for fear of contracting COVID-19, many shelters were overcrowded and struggled to provide adequate sanitary and hygienic facilities to displaced people while adhering to social distancing requirements (GIZ, 2021c).

The reviewed literature largely indicates that a **lack of resources** often results in climate-related immobility that prevents people from moving (GIZ, 2021b). This is true for both slow onset climate events and extreme weather events, such as hurricanes. Therefore, '**vulnerability** to extreme environmental events is widely recognised to be inversely correlated with wealth' (McLeman & Gemenne, 2018, p. 76). Past evacuations in the Caribbean after sudden extreme weather events have shown that, with a weak government, there were only commercial transport options available. **People unable to pay** were trapped, and many ultimately suffered from long-term psychologi-cal challenges (GIZ, 2020a).

Besides discrimination based on economic status, there also appear to be s**ocial barriers to adaptation**. The literature describes how norms and values may cause people to decide against what might be objectively viewed as the optimal course of action for adaptation (McLeman & Gemenne, 2018). Furthermore, not all people facing situations of livelihood stress migrate. Despite economic constraints, **individual factors** also come into play. There are factors such as **cultural place attachment, gender roles, conflict or the social status accorded to suc-cessful migrants** that may '"override" the environmental migration driver' (McLeman & Gemenne, 2018, p. 78). A community may, for example, aspire for its children and women to remain behind while men are expected, and more valued, as migrants in the face of slow onset change.

However, some parts of the population might also be immobile and trapped at home due to **cultural factors** (Evertsen & van der Geest, 2020). A model for Nigeria demonstrates that households are more inclined to send men out of the village to reduce the risk and retain women in the household in response to ex post covariate shocks, thus as risk management (McLeman & Gemenne, 2018). This is in line with findings from East Africa that men are often traditionally responsible for **scouting for new livelihoods** and places to migrate or relocate to. This suggests that their families, including children and women, might be at least temporarily left behind (GIZ, 2021a). Older people and women are often left behind when men migrate for economic opportunities. By staying behind, they shoulder the **burden of caregiving, head-of-household responsibilities and child socialisation**, as shown in a study carried out in **East Africa** (GIZ, 2022b).

For indigenous communities, losing land can mean losing lives

The decision to stay behind may also be a choice in decision-making by groups: 'For many communities, especially indigenous peoples, land is a locus of identity and culture as much as an economic resource. Displace-ment disrupts community structures and traditions and means the loss of sacred and cultural sites' (Notess, 2018, p. 4) These intangibles can be irreplaceable. In Peru, a resettlement town for an indigenous community was built, including paved streets, indoor plumbing and electricity. 'But three years later, residents complained of a lack of meaningful work and a loss of traditions. Rates of alcoholism rose, and in one year, four resi-dents killed themselves by taking farming chemicals. According to one former farmer, the residents felt they were trapped "in a cage where little animals are kept"' (Notess, 2018, p. 4). In the Philippines, Bohol Island residents are hesitant to permanently relocate from the coast to the mainland, away from their homes and their main source of livelihood, which is the sea and fishing. The role of women in small-scale fisheries and its importance for the food and nutrition security of marginalised coastal communities is not to be ignored (GIZ, 2021b).

In addition to financial and social resources limiting the ability to migrate, **demographic**

variables are often cited to explain who goes or stays within a given household or community. The current knowledge aligns with main-stream migration literature in that, generally speaking, poor(er) groups, the low-skilled, women, older people and children are less likely to migrate. In the event of displacement, they are more likely to become trapped in transit. **Age structure** is influential in that older cohorts are less likely to be mobile than their younger counterparts. **Physical disabilities** are also a constraining factor for affected populations. However, while the physical ability to move certainly plays a role, so does the capacity to work (and to be hired), since much of environmental migration, particularly in slow onset situations, is simultaneously **economic including rural-urban dynamics** (McLeman & Ge-menne, 2018). At the same time, research suggests that while for some groups 'migration could be considered a "normal" response', they remain in place. The study of immobility should therefore also investigate 'What "traps" them as opposed to their cohort?' (McLeman & Gemenne, 2018, p. 77).

Given that climate-related mobility might cross borders and territories, another constraining factor for affected people is their **legal status** and government policies (GIZ, 2021b). Unclear resident status, statelessness and discriminatory laws against **indigenous and LGBTIQ*** groups may result in people being trapped and unable to move. As some countries do not legally recognise same-sex marriage, laws and attitudes may affect the safety and legal protection of **LGBTIQ* people** on account of their sexual orientation. One example is the Bahamas, where nationality laws have a disproportionate impact on women because Bahamian women with foreign spouses are denied the **right** to confer nationality on their children (ECLAC & IOM, 2021).

Once people find themselves trapped, the impacts are also gendered. Various factors, such as socio-cultural norms, restricted livelihood options and limited access to formalised safety nets, technologies and information, tend to reduce the adaptive capacities of displaced women (UNHCR & PIK, 2020).

Gender aspects of financing mechanisms: Remittances

Remittances can also be used to enable further mobility, for ex-ample, to pay for another household member to migrate, reduc-ing the risk of them being trapped. Remittances can therefore support in situ adaptation and enable migration as an adaptation strategy. On the receiving end, for example, following extreme weath¬er in India's Upper Assam region, all-female households were worse-off com¬pared to households with a younger male head of household because, culturally, men are typ¬ically 'custodi-ans of a household's social capital', which affords them better access to recovery funds and supplies (GIZ, 2022c, p. 35).

Women in trapped and displaced situations may also face problems accessing **housing and land and exercising property rights**. Lack of property ownership, which leads to difficulties in relocations, evictions and displacements, may be especially problematic for women (GIZ, 2021b; UNHCR & PIK, 2022). Social impacts on trapped people and their families can be significant, with **families left behind** suffering the consequences of separation or **mental stress** (UN ESCAP, 2018). Studies from Haiti have shown that women and girls are at particular risk of **GBV and have more limited access to justice** due to fears of mistreatment and possible deportation (ECLAC & IOM, 2021; Tänzler, Bernstein, 2022).

7) Policy recommendations

The review leads to conclusions and recommendations on different levels. Firstly, it reveals general and overarching principles, such as the lack of disaggregated data, which proved relevant across all human mobility pathways. Sec-ondly, the analysis points to the potential to scale up current HMCCC priorities in gender and intersectional anal-yses and to new fields of action and innovative approaches.

7.1 General and overarching principles

Across all the human mobility pathways, a number of **general and overarching principles** came up repeatedly. By moving beyond a sole focus on vulnerabilities faced by women and other social groups, development coopera-tion actors can contribute to more effective policies and implementation of HMCCC frameworks. To do this, the skills and needs of all social groups, including the most marginalised populations, must be actively considered and addressed. In the context of Germany's feminist development policy, the 3Rs approach (rights, resources, represen-tation) can serve as an analytical tool and requires appropriate awareness, capacities, analysis, meaningful partici-pation of marginalised groups in decision-making and funding (BMZ, 2022). In unravelling the factors that enable interventions to unfold gender-transformative and intersectional approaches, the review points to the need to apply the following principles.

Moving beyond women and integrating a gender and intersectional perspective on HMCCC

The findings of the study underline that the drivers and impacts of HMCCC are inherently gendered and differ radically when various forms of discrimination intersect. It is therefore important for policies to not only incorporate the perspectives of women, but also move beyond a binary view and include diverse perspectives of gender identi-ty, sexual orientation, age, disability and economic status (CFFP, 2021, p. 6). This also involves taking into account local and indigenous perspectives. It is not possible to address the perspective of society as a whole unless devel-opment cooperation actors systematically mainstream an intersectional perspective in decision-making, strategies and programming.

Collecting and using gender/intersectional disaggregated data on HMCCC

It is important to stress that intersectional disaggregated data and analysis are integral to understanding different realities in order to take appropriate action and monitor effective (gender) HMCCC policy. The lack of data has been stressed in almost all the reviewed publications. The way that data is currently collected and used often leads to those at greatest risk of marginalisation, such as women and girls in all their diversity and LGBTIQ* people, be-ing obscured, excluded or discriminated against (IOM, 2021, p. 27). Collaboration between local, national, regional and global stakeholders in collecting, analysing and using gender-specific information is crucial to avoid blind spots, such as internal migration (ECLAC & IOM, 2021, p. 34). Therefore, collecting and using disaggregated data is es-sential to inform policy in the context of HMCCC. However, data on gender can be highly sensitive, and information on sexual orientation and gender identities must be protected and treated with care. It is vital to ensure the bene-fits of such data, especially for the target groups themselves. Standards on anonymity and protection are crucial.

Enabling representation and participation in decision-making

As highlighted across all the thematic areas analysed, women and marginalised social groups remain underrepre-sented in public life, which means that public policies do not take their needs and priorities adequately into account (UN Women, 2023). Full, equal and meaningful participation by women and other social groups in decision-making related to HMCCC can be enhanced by increasing their access to information. This also includes access to gender-responsive early warning systems and weather forecasting services. It is important to promote the social groups' agency and opportunities, underscoring the usefulness of their knowledge of sustainable natural resources man-agement in responses to disasters and other climate-related crises and their leadership in sustainable practices at the household, community, national and global levels (Sierra Club & UN Women, 2018). This makes for more inclu-sive and effective responses that take into account the realities of diverse groups.

Ensuring access to and control over resources

Throughout this review, it has been highlighted that resources and economic means largely determine if, when and how people move and who stays and adapts. Indeed, adaptive capacity strongly depends on access to and control over resources, including reliable income and financial resources, natural resources, infrastructure and services such as energy, water and sanitation. Ensuring equal access to, control over and ownership of land and other resources is necessary for gender-responsive policies and practices on climate-related mobility. The landscape of financing options to address HMCCC also provides an opportunity for such instruments to serve as a 'vehicle for gender transformative action' (GIZ, 2022c, p. 7). Removing obstacles to the access of women and other marginalised groups to natural resources, financial services and land ownership is critical to their ability to participate in all deci-sion-making related to displacement, migration and planned relocation (UN Habitat et al., 2015). However, re-sources can refer not only to economic and physical infrastructure, but also to available information, knowledge and skills relating to climate risks, relationships within the community and social support (Sierra Club & UN Wom-en, 2018).

Transforming norms and roles

Across the different mobility pathways, traditional gender norms in society have been found to impact who moves and who stays and largely determine mobility pathways themselves. An intersectional gender-transformative ap-proach is necessary to see beyond the gender binary and address these norms and stereotypes. Existing trans-formative and intersectional approaches include engaging men and boys and traditional leaders and working with communities. At the same time, it should be taken into account that underlying cultural and gender norms differ to some extent from one context to another.

Putting gender and HMCCC on the agenda (of Germany's feminist development policy)

Germany's feminist development policy provides an opportunity to position the interface of gender and HMCCC in the national and international development discourse. This review was able to show that the 3Rs – rights, re-sources and representation – run across all mobility pathways and the regions covered. Thematic overlaps are dismantling power structures, advancing climate justice, global food systems and enabling mobility, while intersec-tionality and the 3Rs approach are important commonalities and provide points of cooperation. This review argues that mainstreaming aspects of human mobility into gender equality discourses is therefore equally as important as mainstreaming gender into discussions of HMCCC. This includes both

local and high-level national, regional and international discourse, where vice versa gender mainstreaming should be fostered. It also includes promoting gender-related opportunities (e.g. equal consultation and participation, leadership opportunities, access to capacity building and education, and empowerment of women) in forums and committees in international processes, such as the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), in climate-related forums, such as the Women and Gender Constituency of the UNFCCC and Gender at COPs, and in migration discourses, such as the GCM.

Realise rights

- Legal empowerment of women, LGBTIQ* and indigenous people and other marginalised groups in international frameworks
- Everybody should be able to fully exercise their rights when migrating, being displaced internally or across borders and when remaining immobile
- Ensuring universal safety/security, including the protection of human rights and climate activists
- Rights should be respected during relocation processes
- Rights to own, inherit and use land for all

Equitable access to resources

- Ensuring universal access to financial resources and financing
- Ensuring universal access to relief and other social services
- Increasing resources for organisations and projects promoting gender equality in HMCCC

Improve repre-sentation

- Improve representation in migration, displacement and (planned) relocation planning processes
- Increase the participation of all social groups, including marginalised groups, in all levels of decision-making
- Increase the participation of all social groups, including marginalised groups, in interna-tional negotiations, government agreements, the development of new strategies and the conception of new projects

7.2 Approaches and recommendations for German development cooperation

The review found that responses that address gender aspects and intersectional discrimination comprehensively across all forms of human mobility are lacking. Consequently, all mobility pathways constitute important fields of action for development cooperation in Germany and beyond, in which the principles listed above should be applied. The analysis identifies areas and approaches that are existing HMCCC priorities but require scaling up in terms of gender and intersectional adaptation and indicates new fields of action, in which approaches with transformative potential should be pursued. The recommendations are presented below according to the different forms of mo-bility and related topics and the main target audiences (political and technical stakeholders).

Migration

Raising awareness on the gendered dimension of climate-induced migration

Recommendations for technical stakeholders

- Identify labour mobility opportunities that take into account the skills and interests of disadvantaged population groups, including women, youth and outer island residents.
- Conduct a gender analysis or gender-sen-

sitive assessment that helps to determine how the existing liveli-hood skills of different groups in the relocated and host community can be supported and maintained in a new location. Provide follow-up support and monitoring to track the progress of livelihood activities for re-located and host communities.

- Develop targeted government information campaigns on available schemes for disadvantaged groups and support them in meeting eligibility criteria for labour mobility schemes through access to training.

- Support research projects, programmes and case studies designed and conducted with a focus on gender issues. Develop gender-sensitive environmental migration materials to be used in training by women's, environmental and migration organisations so that both men and women can play a part as key environ-mental actors in natural disaster management.

- Conduct household assessments with both male and female representatives of the household (ensure that assessment teams include male and female members when conducting interviews). Training targeted at households should include representatives of different genders, ages, abilities, etc.

Recommendations for political stakeholders

- Organise policy discussions on climate-induced mobility and engage multi-sector agencies in shifting per-spectives on migration flows, focusing particularly on issues relating to temporary and permanent climate-induced internal migration to develop gender-inclusive policies and strategies aimed at addressing this is-sue.

- Ensure gender-diverse groups in all settings, such as working groups and committees.

- Appoint gender focal points in institutions.

Promoting awareness about gender roles, relations and inequalities in climate-induced migration

Recommendations for technical stakeholders

- Create awareness on how gender roles can be shared, challenged and changed in context-specific situa-tions. Support young people, women and men in all their diversity, LGBTIQ* and indigenous people and people with disabilities to understand ways in which they can better support each other in order to cope with the additional burden imposed by displacement and migration.

- Promote gender-transformative approaches that stimulate the positive effects of shifting gender roles around earning power, also engaging men and partners. This challenges inequitable gender norms and power dynamics that exist in a community, in particular, those that hamper the participation of women and limit benefits and opportunities. One example is the methodology Engaging Men as Allies in Women's Economic Empowerment, implemented by Promundo since 2011 (FAO, IFAD and WFP, 2020).

- Create and implement gender-mainstreamed policies and governance interventions that improve the ca-pacities of women and men to participate in daily household and community activities. Both women and men can tap into spaces well beyond gendered gaps and limits to secure their own and their family's wellbeing.

- Implement sustainable livelihood skills development training for rural migrants, especially women, to cre-ate better employment and livelihood opportunities for them in urban environments.

Recommendations for political stakeholders

- Change the discourse and recognise the true value of all migrants, including women, in terms of both paid employment and the unpaid work that underlies family,

community and national life in the global econo-my.

- Address barriers to equal participation and engagement in community and household decision-making processes.

Learning more about the gendered dimensions of temporary migration

Recommendations for technical stakeholders

- Conduct a thorough study on temporary and seasonal migration looking at gen-der-based employment opportunities and using a modified standard/basis for data interpretation.
- Take into consideration not only quanti-tative national migration survey data, but also subjective qualitative accounts relating to the issue.

Displacement

Integrating gender needs and per-spectives into preventive action

Recommendations for technical stakeholders

- Conduct gendered analysis of the liveli-hood impacts of disasters and the formu-lation and implementation of appropriate response action and determine how the existing livelihood skills of different groups in the relocated and host community can be supported and maintained in a new location. Provide follow-up support and monitoring to track the progress of live-lihood activities for relocated and host communities.
- Create and implement protective policies on evacuation centres, based on assess-ments of existing disas-ter risk manage-ment practices and evacuation plans.
- Ensure the inclusion of a gender equality and social inclusion expert in humanitarian clusters to inform as-sessment and action planning.
- Set up communication processes for the dissemination of information to improve resilience.
- Ensure that steps are taken to consult with all affected people and that the dangers and advantages of evacuation are communicat-ed and understood by all members of the community.
- Ensure women and people with disabilities are represented on the community disaster committee so that their needs are reflected in consultations.
- Work with young people as agents of change on gender-responsive disaster risk reduction (DRR). DRR is a priority for many cities exposed to climate hazards. The close involvement of vulnerable citizens is advi-sa-ble to ensure that the activities under-taken are effective. Some existing projects have worked with young people as agents of change.
- Establish adaptation and disaster capacity actions and associated skills in communi-ties for future disasters. Having a disaster plan or some other document that records people's movements in and out of the com-munity can also help to keep track of skills associated with adaptive and disaster capacity. This is particu-larly important for female-headed households and households with members who are older or living with disabilities.
- Ensure a system of policy development that recognises the essential role of centralised guidance to build DRR policy and practice, incorporating LGBTIQ* people, and that also accommodates local-level, grassroots implementation of gender and sexual mi-nority inclusion.

Recommendations for political stakeholders

- Conduct gender-inclusive assessment of disaster risk management and safety evacuation plans to better understand the specific needs of different groups (men, girls and women, children, people with disabilities, LGBTIQ* people) in situations where climate-induced displacement takes place.

Tackling gendered challenges in disaster relief

Recommendations for technical stakeholders

- Install gender and protection points at evacuation centres.
- Ensure the provision of psychosocial support for men, women, children and other affected groups at evac-uation centres and in affected communities to ensure the mental wellbeing of victims. Psychological first aid is a tool that could be promoted and implemented globally. It is a humane, supportive response to people affected by a traumatic natural disaster and/or terrorism designed to reduce the initial distress caused by traumatic events and foster immediate and long-term adaptive functioning and coping mecha-nisms.
- Conduct protection monitoring to assess the safety and security of people at evacuation centres (formal and informal).
- Develop and implement policies prioritising protection mechanisms for displaced women and girls at evac-uation centres and/or temporary shelters, ensuring, in particular, that they are safe from GBV, abuse and sexual exploitation.

Recommendations for political stakeholders

- Champion a human rights-based approach to disaster risk reduction, preparedness and response. A per-son's sexual or gender identity must not be not a barrier to receiving the assistance and opportunities needed to recover from a disaster.

Paying attention to gendered needs upon return

Recommendations for technical stakeholders

- Conduct post-disaster needs assessments taking into account all social groups.
- Ensure access to financial resources to rebuild livelihoods without discrimination based on gender, sexual orientation, age, etc.
- Provide gender-inclusive reports and monitoring for displaced communities in order to open up spaces for gender-based studies and approaches to address issues and situations affecting certain groups vulnerable to GBV, exploitation and abuse. The aim is to track their situation and provide aid to meet their necessi-ties after being displaced by conflict and violence.

(Planned) relocation

Integrating gender and social inclusion into relocation planning

Recommendations for technical stakeholders

- Include a local gender and social inclusion specialist in the (planned) relocation team to support discus-sions around the need for inclusive decision-making processes and participation in the formulation of community plans, such as early warning plans. Ensure that the designs and technologies introduced are sensitive to the needs and abilities of all users.
- Involve local civil society organisations with gender and social inclusion experience to support discussions with communities around the importance of inclusion.
- Promote the inclusion of host communities to ensure mutual understanding among all stakeholders and to support the safety and security of the relocated community.

Recommendations for political stakeholders

- Ensure that gender and social inclusion specialists are included in assessment teams from the initial stag-es of planning. Ensure that participatory tools and meth-ods to be used in assessments are reviewed by a gender and social inclusion expert.
- Collect gender-disaggregated data and pro-vide gender impact analysis to assess the importance of (planned) relocation.

Promoting gender throughout the (planned) relocation process

Recommendations for technical stakeholders

- Planned relocation programmes must con-sider affected communities as participants in the relocation pro-cesses before, during and after the event.
- Policy-makers and practitioners should mainstream gender-responsive aspects into the different elements of the process: legal framework; needs and impacts; informa-tion, consultation and participation; land; and monitoring, evaluation and accounta-bility (Toolbox).
- Conduct participatory community work-shops and other activities aimed at map-ping gendered gaps and opportunities for collective decision-making in situ on community-based strategies and (planned) reloca-tion prospects.

Immobility and trapped populations

Recommendations for political stakeholders

- Collect gender-disaggregated data on trapped, limited and immobile populations.

Recommendations for technical stakeholders

- Community assessments should be sensi-tive to people wishing to stay.
- Community assessments should be sensi-tive to migration patterns and their effects on trapped popula-tions, in particular, the most vulnerable.
- Collect narratives on immobility and trapped populations with a gender lens. Include people of all genders.

Key takeaways for gender and HMCCC

√ The above recommendations demonstrate that **approaches and knowledge on gender and HMCCC are already** in place and can be implemented. However, binary gender views are still predominant in them and need to be broadened.

√ While the literature on the four regions covered – Pacific, Caribbean, Philippines, and East Africa – has revealed context-specific approaches and recommendations, it should be noted that cer-tain approaches came up repeatedly and may be adjusted and applied to other c**ontexts**.

√ Context-specific gender dimensions can be portrayed not only in terms of countries or geograph-ical regions, but also in terms of their close interrelationship with many other factors, such as form of **mobility and social, political**, and **economic factors**. Case studies should therefore be regarded with a degree of caution, as findings cannot always be extrapolated to other cases and should not be generalised.

√ The review has highlighted that the most important insights are that HMCCC activities should be planned and implemented in a **transparent, participatory,** and **inclusive** manner.

√ **Mainstreaming** gender into discussions of HMCCC is equally as important as main-streaming aspects of human mobility into gender equity discourses. This includes both local and high-level national, regional, and international discourse, where vice versa mainstreaming should be fos-tered and better placed in forums and committees in international processes.

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