

Journal: **PHILOSOPHICAL TRANSACTIONS OF THE ROYAL SOCIETY A**

Article id: **RSTA20100287**

Article Title: **Climate-induced population displacements in a 4°C+ world**

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Climate-induced population displacements in a 4°C+ world

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Massive population displacements are now regularly forecast as one of the most dramatic possible consequences of climate change. Current forecasts and projections show that regions that would be affected by such population movements are low-lying islands, coastal and delta regions, as well as sub-Saharan Africa. Such estimates, however, are usually based on a 2°C temperature rise. In the event of a 4°C+ warming, not only is it likely that climate-induced population movements will be more considerable, but their patterns could also be significantly different as people might react differently to temperature changes that would represent a threat to their very survival. This paper puts forward the hypothesis that a greater temperature change would not only affect the magnitude of the associated population movements, but also—and above all—the characteristics of these movements, and therefore the policy responses that can address them. The paper outlines the policy evolutions that climate-induced displacements in a 4°C+ world would require.

Keywords: migration; displacement; climate change; mobility; adaptation

1. Introduction

Massive population displacements are regularly forecast as one of the most dramatic possible consequences of climate change. In recent years, the concept of climate-induced migration has gained considerable currency, and ‘climate refugees’ are now a common feature in discourse on the human impact of climate change [1,2]. Works on this topic are rooted in an essentialist perspective which assumes that migration is a logical by-product of climate change. Most forecasts and estimations adopt a deterministic approach based on the number of people living in regions that will be affected by sea-level rise, and conclude that about 150–200 million people could be displaced by 2050 as a result of climate change [3–5]. Such forecasts, however, triggered wide controversy among the scholarly community, and were often criticized for being too environmentally deterministic and not sufficiently rooted in empirical evidence [6,7]. Indeed, such forecasts took little account of vulnerability patterns and demographic trends, and did not factor in the development of possible adaptation strategies.

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One contribution of 13 to a Theme Issue ‘Four degrees and beyond: the likelihood and implications of a global climate change of 4+ degrees’.

50 This paper contends that the nature and extent of migration flows associated
51 with the impacts of climate change depend not only on these impacts, but
52 also on a wide range of other factors, such as cultural, economic or political
53 conditions. This paper argues that the policy responses that will be implemented
54 to deal with these flows will be particularly important in that regard. Migration
55 policies, so far, have poorly accounted for environmental drivers of migration,
56 but the policy debate on adaptation is increasingly considering that migration
57 could be a way for populations to cope with environmental degradation,
58 rather than being seen as a failure to adapt [8–10]. The planning of future
59 adaptation policies that would address migration, however, is contingent upon
60 predictions and forecasts of future population movements. Current forecasts
61 and projections show that the regions that would be most affected by such
62 population movements are low-lying islands, coastal and delta regions, as well
63 as sub-Saharan Africa [5,11]. Such estimates, however, are usually based on a
64 2°C temperature rise. In the event of a 4°C+ average temperature rise, this
65 paper argues that the very nature of these migrations, rather than just their
66 magnitude, would change and would therefore call for different policy responses.
67 It puts forward the hypothesis that a greater temperature change would not only
68 affect the magnitude of associated population movements, but also—and more
69 importantly—the characteristics of these movements, and therefore the policy
70 responses that can address them.

71 Section 2 reviews the different impacts of climate change that could trigger
72 population displacements. Such impacts typically include sea-level rise, droughts
73 and land degradation, as well as extreme weather events. Predictions and
74 forecasts of population displacements related to these impacts, however, are
75 marred by a double uncertainty, which concerns both the local impacts of
76 climate change and the way people will respond to these changes. Despite these
77 uncertainties, §3 attempts to examine how a temperature rise of 4°C+ could affect
78 population displacements. Using past empirical evidence, the section suggests
79 that people might migrate very differently in a 4°C+ world than in a 2°C world.
80 Three expected changes in particular are highlighted, in a way that rebuts the
81 deterministic perspective that dominates discourse on ‘environmental migration’.
82 Finally, §§4 and 5 outline the policy implications of this rebuttal and elaborate on
83 some proposals for policy developments that could address the changing nature
84 of climate-induced displacements in a 4°C+ world.
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88 2. The impacts of climate change on migration

90 Climate change will affect societies through an extensive range of impacts. The
91 prediction of such impacts, however, remains marred by uncertainties, especially
92 at the regional and local levels [12,13]. Uncertainties are even greater when one
93 needs to factor in the wide range of possible human reactions to these impacts.
94 Empirical studies remain scarce [6], and experimentation is impossible, as is often
95 the case in social sciences. Thus an assessment of the impacts of climate change
96 on migration is, by nature, a daunting task. It nevertheless appears possible to
97 identify three types of impacts that seem most likely to have an effect on migration
98 patterns, although these effects are not certain [11,14].

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(a) *Extreme weather events*

Extreme weather events include heat waves, tropical cyclones, droughts and flooding. The latest IPCC report predicts, by the end of this century, a ‘*very likely* increase in hot extremes, heat waves and heavy precipitation’, a ‘*likely* increase in tropical cyclone activity’, with ‘less confidence in the decrease of tropical cyclones’, as well as ‘*very likely* precipitation increases in high latitudes and *likely* decreases in most subtropical land regions’ [15]. In addition, it is expected that annual run-off and precipitation will increase in high latitudes, whereas water resources will decrease in mid-latitudes and in the tropics, as well as in arid regions. The IPCC notes that both the increase in droughts and tropical cyclone activity present a potential for population migration [16].

The latter claim, however, can be disputed, as the impacts of extreme weather events on migration flows are diverse and sometimes controversial. Disasters can indeed result in highly diverse patterns of migration. For example, it is widely thought that disasters are more likely to induce temporary migration, allowing people to return home once the danger is gone. As a result of this assumption, people forced to flee to another country because of a disaster were often granted temporary protection status: for example, a temporary protection status in the USA was granted to the people of Montserrat displaced by a volcanic eruption in 1997, and to the people of Honduras and Nicaragua displaced by Hurricane Mitch in 1998. The experience of Hurricane Katrina, however, showed that people displaced by natural disasters were not always able to go home, as a significant proportion of the population of New Orleans has still not returned, and seems unlikely to do so in the future [17]. It is now increasingly acknowledged that disasters result in both temporary and permanent migration, as well as in both proactive and reactive migration.

It is likely that an increase in extreme weather events will result in an increase in the number of natural disasters [18]. This would reinforce the upward trend in the occurrence of disasters, identified since the start of their systematic recording in the early twentieth century [19]. Until now, this upward trend has been primarily explained by the increased vulnerability of the affected populations. A disaster occurs when natural risk meets vulnerability [20]: if the number of natural risks increases with a temperature rise, the number of disasters will consequently increase unless the vulnerability of populations can be reduced. Unless robust adaptation strategies are implemented, there is no sign that vulnerability might decrease in a near future. In a 4°C+ world, however, the main driver of natural disasters might shift from an increase in vulnerability to an increase in the number and severity of natural events. In addition, the characteristics of these events themselves might change, as different hazards could combine with each other in an unprecedented setting. This could affect both the location of disasters and the design and implementation of disaster-reduction policies.

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(b) *Sea-level rise*

The most obvious consequence of climate change with regard to environmental migration is probably the sea-level rise. Though sea-level rise will not be uniform across the globe, most studies agree that the rise will be about 1 m by the end of the century [21,22]. The IPCC notes that

148 Many millions more people are projected to be flooded every year due to sea-level rise by the
 149 2080s. Those densely-populated and low-lying areas where adaptive capacity is relatively low,
 150 and which already face other challenges such as tropical storms or local coastal subsidence, are
 151 especially at risk. The numbers affected will be largest in the mega-deltas of Asia and Africa
 152 while small islands are especially vulnerable. Intergovernmental Panel on climate change [23].

Q2

153 Unlike extreme weather events, sea-level rise is more predictable if longer
 154 term, and populations at risk can be more easily identified, thus facilitating
 155 the implementation of adaptation plans. Given that coastal and delta areas are
 156 usually very densely populated, the potential for large numbers of migrants is
 157 particularly high [24,25].

159 The projection of a 1 m sea-level rise is usually based on a 2°C average
 160 temperature increase. In a world with a 4°C+ temperature increase, sea-level
 161 rise would be higher, especially with the increased probability of the deglaciation
 162 of the Greenland and West Antarctic ice sheets [26]. Sea-level rise would also
 163 induce greater coastal erosion, as well as bigger storm surges. The El Niño-
 164 Southern Oscillation could also be affected, magnifying the differences in local
 165 sea-level rises. It is especially important to understand and forecast local sea-
 166 level rises, as the migration potential associated with this rise depends on the
 167 local rather than the average sea-level rise. In that regard, a 4°C+ temperature
 168 increase would not only increase the average sea-level rise, but also—and probably
 169 more importantly—the uncertainties associated with the migration potential. For
 170 example, population retreat from the coasts might be increasingly considered as
 171 an alternative to migration.

172 (c) *Water stress*

175 Water stress will be caused by a series of cumulative factors: droughts,
 176 salt water intrusion owing to sea-level rise, and also the melting of mountain
 177 glaciers in the long run. The IPCC forecasts that ‘freshwater availability in
 178 Central, South, East and southeast Asia, particularly in large river basins,
 179 is projected to decrease due to climate change which, along with population
 180 growth and increasing demand arising from higher standards of living, could
 181 adversely affect more than a billion people by the 2050s’ [23]. The water
 182 supplies stored in glaciers and snow cover are also expected to decline, reducing
 183 freshwater availability in regions supplied by melt-water from mountain ranges.
 184 The situation is expected to be most difficult in Africa, where an estimated 75
 185 million to 250 million people will be at risk of water stress owing to climate
 186 change by 2020. Given that this water stress will be associated with higher
 187 demand, especially in big cities, water-related problems are very likely to be
 188 exacerbated [27].

189 The effects of water stress on migration patterns remain heavily contested:
 190 some authors argue that droughts and desertification are a major push factor
 191 for migration [28,29],¹ while others contend that people affected by droughts

193 ¹Hammer [28] argues that one million people were displaced as a result of the 1985 drought in
 194 Niger, and that ‘hundreds of thousands of people from rural Sahel regions are displaced every year
 195 as a consequence of environmental change and desertification’; Leighton [29] makes a similar case
 196 for Northeast Brazil.

197 have a choice between different coping strategies, including migration, and
198 note that international migration actually decreases during these periods [6].
199 In a recent review of empirical case studies conducted in Africa, Jonsson
200 asserts that ‘environmental stressors such as droughts do not necessarily lead
201 to migration’ [30]. In any case, the nexus between drought and migration is
202 not straightforward and depends on a wide range of factors [31]. Findings
203 from the EACH-FOR project,² for example, confirm that water stress can
204 affect migration patterns in different directions: Van der Geest [32] found that
205 contemporary North–South migration in Ghana was environmentally motivated,
206 but decreased during the worst droughts; Afifi [33] also identified droughts as an
207 important push factor that influences both internal and international migration
208 in Niger.

209 Here again, a larger temperature increase towards 4°C would further exacerbate
210 problems of water stress, and would also increase uncertainties: the impact
211 of aggravated water stress on human mobility remains unclear and poorly
212 documented. According to the case and the wider context, it could result in
213 different mobility patterns, with an increase in some regions and a decrease
214 in others. In the Sahel, Jonsson observes that ‘whether and how people migrate
215 in response to environmental change depends largely upon the role that mobility
216 already plays in their lives and livelihoods’ [30].

217 The impacts of climate change in a 4°C+ world are difficult to translate
218 into migration forecasts: increased temperatures might have different effects on
219 migration flows, and it is impossible to conduct experimentation in this field to
220 adjust the forecasts.

221 Historically, migration models have done a very poor job of accounting for
222 environmental factors in the migration decision [34], and it is only recently that
223 migration research has started to consider environmental changes as possible
224 migration drivers. Hence, it is not possible to refer to explanatory models in order
225 to predict the nature and the extent of the migratory movements that could be
226 associated with climate change impacts.

227 We are thus faced with a double level of uncertainty: the first level deals with
228 uncertainties related to climate impacts on local and regional scales; whereas
229 the second level concerns the way humans will react to environmental changes.
230 Such uncertainties are even greater in the event where the average global
231 temperature would rise by 4°C and beyond. The first level of uncertainty can
232 be reduced with more precise climate models, but the second level cannot yet
233 be reduced because current migration models do not account for environmental
234 drivers. The only tool we have at our disposal is to look at how environmental
235 changes have affected migration behaviours in the past. This does not imply
236 that humans will react in the same way to future environmental changes: these
237 changes will be accompanied by other social, cultural and economic changes and
238 transformations that will also influence migration behaviours. Past empirical
239 evidence is not especially helpful in predicting future migration flows, but can
240 nevertheless be used to show some trends that are likely to occur under a 4°C+
241 global warming.

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243 ²EACH-FOR stands for Environmental Change and Forced Migration Scenarios, an empirical
244 research project funded by the European Commission between 2007 and 2009. See
245 <http://www.each-for.eu> for more details.

3. Implications for a 4°C+ world

Given that the uncertainties associated with a 2°C temperature rise, an assessment of climate-induced displacements in a 4°C+ world is a very tricky task. Though empirical evidence cannot predict future population displacements, it suggests that in a 4°C+ world, people might move in a very different way than in a 2°C world: the very nature of the displacements might be affected more than just their magnitude. Three changes in particular can be expected.

As shown in §2, a 4°C+ world could result in increased environmental pressure on migration. Empirical research shows that mobility is often one possible option among different coping strategies to deal with environmental disruption. Over the years, people have developed traditional mobility patterns that allow them to cope with environmental changes, especially when these changes affect agricultural yields or livestock herds. For some people, mobility is an integral part of their livelihood, which allows them to increase, diversify or secure their incomes. Such traditional coping strategies are jeopardized by increased environmental pressure owing to climate change [35,36]. As environmental disruptions would be exacerbated with a 4°C+ temperature increase, mobility might become a less-viable coping strategy.

For example, Van der Geest [36] observes that traditional nomadic patterns, which were used by pastoralists to cope with droughts, have been modified owing to rapidly changing environmental and socio-economic conditions. A similar phenomenon is observed in Bangladesh, where the traditional movement of people from *char* to *char*³ is disrupted by flash floods that are more violent and frequent than they used to be [37]. Thus, it appears that if the impacts of climate change become more severe, they could disrupt traditional patterns of mobility and people might need to leave their usual place of residence. Migration options would become more limited. In that case, it is expected that the movement would most likely be a long-term or permanent migration instead of a temporary displacement—a trend that has been observed by the EACH-FOR project in different countries of southeast Asia and sub-Saharan Africa (most notably Ghana, Vietnam and Bangladesh). In Vietnam, for example, rice farmers usually undertake seasonal labour migration to urban centres during the flooding season, in order to increase and diversify their incomes. Successive floods, however, leading to the destruction of crops, have prompted farmers to migrate permanently in search of a new livelihood [38,39].

Permanent dislocation affects the ability of migrants to cope and adapt in the destination region, but might also affect the rights and protection they are entitled to, especially in the case of forced migration abroad, as no international protection regime exists for those displaced by environmental changes. Though the distinction between forced and voluntary migration is increasingly blurred [40] and probably no longer fit to describe the realities of contemporary migration, it remains a defining element of migration policies and law.

Climate change is expected to further blur this distinction, as environmental changes not only threaten the lives of people, but also their livelihoods [41]. Hence, people moving as a result of climate change impacts might do so both because their life is at risk and because they can no longer sustain their

³A *char* is a temporary sandy island that forms in the bed of a river.

295 household. In a 4°C+ world, where environmental pressure to migrate could be
296 higher, traditional patterns of mobility might be deeply affected: an increasing
297 number of people could be deprived of the choice to leave or to stay and feel
298 *forced to move*.

299 However, not everyone moves when confronted with environmental changes.
300 Another consequence of a temperature rise of 4°C+ might be, paradoxically
301 and in some cases, a decrease in the number of people on the move. Numerous
302 studies show that migration flows tend to decrease when environmental crises
303 peak. This is especially true in the case of droughts, as people tend to allocate
304 their income primarily to meet their household's basic needs rather than to
305 moving [6,36]. People will move only if they have the resources that allow them
306 to do so: this includes financial resources—moving is a costly process—but also
307 access to social networks facilitating mobility. Furthermore, empirical evidence
308 shows that the most vulnerable are often unable to move when faced with an
309 environmental crisis. For example, prior to Hurricane Katrina, about 60 000
310 people were unable to leave the city of New Orleans: evacuation required money
311 for food, gas and lodging, and many poor families were unable to afford the
312 expense. Furthermore, the hurricane struck at the end of the month: many of the
313 poorest residents were awaiting paychecks, leaving even fewer resources available
314 for their evacuation [42].

315 If vulnerability and poverty increase in some regions, as has been the case in
316 recent decades,⁴ one might expect that the number of people who would find
317 themselves unable to move in the event of an environmental crisis would also be
318 on the rise. An increasing number of people might thus find themselves *forced*
319 *to stay*.

320 Finally, climate change-induced migration in a 4°C+ world is not expected
321 to become more international, as often assumed. Apart from some specific
322 cases of migration from small island states, discussed in §4, movements are
323 expected to remain confined within the borders of states affected by the
324 impacts of climate change, unless significant policy changes occur. No empirical
325 evidence suggests that the distance of migration increases in relation to the
326 magnitude of environmental disruption. Empirical findings from the EACH-FOR
327 project reveal that the overwhelming majority of migration flows observed in
328 relation to environmental changes are internal movements, often over very short
329 distances [38].

330 Furthermore, international migration requires considerable financial resources
331 for the migrants: unless significant financial transfers are made or developing
332 countries undergo rapid economic development, these resources are unlikely to be
333 available. In addition, policy developments with regard to international migration
334 since the late 1970s point towards a restriction of international mobility, rather
335 than an opening of borders. This trend is observed in both the North and the
336 South, as exemplified by the recent building of a security barrier at the border
337 between India and Bangladesh [37]. The barrier is supposed to protect India
338 against intrusion by Islamist militants from Bangladesh, as well as smuggling
339 and illegal immigration. Bangladesh also ranks among the countries that are
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341 ⁴Research dealing with the increase in natural disasters over the past few decades suggests that
342 the key driving force behind this rise is the increased vulnerability of populations, rather than a
343 higher number of natural hazards [24].

344 the most vulnerable to climate change impacts. In the event of climate-induced
345 displacements from Bangladesh, the barrier would also, most likely, serve as a
346 deterrent to prevent these migrants from entering India.

347 In a nutshell, the effects of a 4°C+ temperature rise on migration flows remain
348 difficult to assess. The linkages between environmental changes and mobility
349 cannot be explained through a linear, deterministic relationship, though many
350 discourses on this issue remain rooted in an essentialist perspective. Empirical
351 research has shown that responses to environmental changes vary according to
352 a wide set of factors and are context-specific: this makes it difficult—if not
353 impossible—to design a general predictive model of climate-induced displacement.
354 Furthermore, a global warming of 4°C+ will bring unprecedented changes, which
355 will make them difficult to compare with changes experienced by populations in
356 the past. These changes will also, most likely, be accompanied by other changes
357 and transformations of societies. These economic, cultural, technological or
358 political changes might translate into opportunities or constraints for migration,
359 and are in any case expected to affect mobility patterns. We should not assume,
360 however, that climate change impacts will simply act as ‘push’ factors of
361 migration. Migration theories have widely rebutted the ‘push and pull’ model as
362 unfit to account for contemporary migration, and have shown the complex and
363 nonlinear processes governing migration dynamics [43–45]. Climate change will
364 most probably be an increasingly important element of these migration dynamics,
365 but should not be considered independently of other changes and variables,
366 as is too often the case in deterministic arguments linking climate change and
367 migration in a direct, causal relationship.

368 So far, no migration theory has properly accounted for the effects of climate
369 change, let alone a 4°C+ warming. Yet, some likely trends can be identified
370 through a comparative assessment of empirical evidence. Traditional patterns
371 of mobility could be disrupted, and an increasing number of migrants might
372 feel deprived of a choice in their migration decision. At the same time, some
373 people, especially the most vulnerable, might find themselves unable to move,
374 lacking the resources to do so. Population movements associated with climate
375 change impacts are expected to take place mostly at the internal domestic
376 level, over short distances, and eventually on a permanent basis. Overall, it
377 appears that the most significant impact of a 4°C+ warming on migration
378 would be to reduce populations’ ability to move on their own terms, as many
379 people would no longer have the choice to stay or to leave when confronted
380 with environmental changes. This ability, or ‘right to choose’, however, will be
381 highly dependent upon the policy responses that will be designed to address
382 climate-induced displacements.

383 384 385 **4. Policy implications**

387 Historically, migration policies have often neglected environmental factors as
388 drivers of migration. Environmental policies, on the other hand, have usually
389 considered migration as a humanitarian issue resulting from natural disasters
390 or other environmental disruptions [46]. Current debates on future policy
391 developments tend to rely on the deterministic assumptions outlined in §2:
392 migration is considered as a dramatic and unavoidable consequence of climate

393 change impacts, with little account of people's agency and ability to respond. As a
394 result, most policy discussions revolve around issues of protection and security
395 rather than of governance and mobility.

396 As no international regime exists to assist those displaced by climate change,
397 many policy proposals have recommended that a new convention or treaty be
398 drafted to fill in this gap in international law [47,48]. Most of the debates
399 have focused on the international status that could be granted to the displaced,
400 with many authors lamenting that the 1951 Geneva Convention Relating to the
401 Status of Refugees does not apply to those displaced by environmental events
402 [47,49]. An international status, however, would be inapplicable in most cases
403 of climate-induced displacements, as these are primarily internal movements,
404 beyond the reach of an international status. Despite this fact, various legislative
405 proposals have been made in different parliaments, including those of Australia
406 and Belgium, with the aim of establishing an international status for 'climate
407 change refugees'. Overall, the issue remains framed in either a security agenda or
408 a humanitarian one.

409 As described earlier, in a 4°C+ world, the adaptive capacities of many
410 regions are likely to be overwhelmed by the impacts of climate change. Policy
411 responses would therefore be crucial to enhance the migration options of those
412 affected by the impacts. Yet, it appears that the current policy directions
413 and development proposals remain rooted in a deterministic and international
414 perspective, and take little account of empirical evidence. These policies would
415 therefore be inadequate in the face of the greater and different migratory pressures
416 in a 4°C+ world. In particular, this paper contends that policies should be
417 more focused on assisting migration, both internal and cross-border, rather
418 than on its limitation. In order to achieve this goal, we would need different
419 policy agendas.

420 421 422 (a) *Fostering the right to mobility*

423 As adaptation strategies will be a key element of the fight against climate
424 change in a 4°C+ world, policy responses would need, in particular, to promote
425 the right to mobility, as migration can be an efficient adaptation strategy
426 and traditional patterns of mobility in relation to environmental changes will
427 most probably be deeply disrupted. Migration, in many cases, would need
428 to be encouraged rather than avoided. Migration would have to become a
429 core element of the affected populations' adaptive capacity, rather than a
430 symptom of adaptation failure. This would also imply that the current security
431 agenda be replaced by an adaptation agenda with regard to mobility. From a
432 policy viewpoint, fostering the right to mobility with regard to climate change
433 impacts means two things. First, barriers to migration remain considerable in
434 many parts of the world, including at the internal level. These barriers would
435 need to be lifted for migration to unleash its full potential as an adaptation
436 strategy. Second, the most vulnerable often lack the resources to migrate. As
437 environmental crises will become more frequent and more severe, it is likely
438 that households' resources will not be available for migration, but would be
439 used instead to meet the households' primary needs. Transfers of resources
440 will therefore be needed in order to foster the right to mobility for the most
441 vulnerable. The financial burden of migration could be met through adaptation

442 funding, provided this funding includes a provision for migration. In a 4°C+
443 world, if the most vulnerable are not enabled to move to safer places, they
444 will find themselves directly at risk of climate change impacts with tragic
445 humanitarian implications.

446 In that regard, the issue of proactive displacements is not an easy one. Some
447 governments, such as those of China and Mozambique, have started displacing
448 their populations in anticipation of climate change impacts. These populations
449 need to be provided with adequate compensation, and human rights, including
450 the right to choose one's destination, should be a policy priority. In any case,
451 people should not be displaced against their will, and education and information
452 about climate change impacts need to be improved.

453
454 (b) *Adaptation in the destination regions*

455 Adaptation remains largely envisioned as a way to prevent displacement
456 in the regions of origin. Adaptation will also be needed, however, in the
457 regions of destination. These regions will be faced with additional influxes of
458 population. They will therefore need to adapt to both climate change impacts
459 and higher demographic pressures, especially if they are already highly populated.
460 If adaptation policies are not also directed at destination regions, these regions
461 might find themselves unable to meet the needs of their populations. Normal
462 emergency humanitarian aid will be insufficient to meet these requirements, as
463 migrants will also need to be provided with jobs, housing, schools, etc. After
464 Hurricane Katrina, the city of Houston welcomed an estimated 150 000–200 000
465 displaced residents from Louisiana. They were provided with emergency supplies
466 and housing, as the authorities of Houston expected them to return home within
467 a couple of weeks. It took several months, however, before residents could return
468 to New Orleans, and many decided to resettle in Houston and in the region. The
469 city of Houston, however, experienced a surge in crime, drug use and racism
470 as a result of its inability to provide many of the displaced with jobs and
471 long-term housing.

472 The humanitarian agenda will therefore need to shift towards a development
473 agenda, as population movements are expected to become increasingly long-
474 term and permanent displacements. Migrants should not be considered as
475 resourceless victims, but should be empowered in order to develop their adaptive
476 capacities once in the destination region. The current deterministic perspective,
477 however, continues to envision them as 'refugees', a label that could hinder
478 their resilience and resourcefulness, ultimately impeding their resettlement in the
479 destination region.

480
481 (c) *Protection and assistance*

482 As noted earlier, those displaced by climate change are not entitled to any kind
483 of international protection or assistance. No international organization or UN
484 agency has a mandate to deal with environmental displacement, though both the
485 United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and the International
486 Organization for Migration (IOM) now intervene regularly in situations of natural
487 disasters to provide humanitarian assistance to the displaced. As forced migration
488 worldwide would most probably increase as a result of a 4°C+ temperature
489 increase, adequate mechanisms of protection and assistance will be needed to
490

491 assist those forcibly displaced. Such mechanisms are already required today—the
 492 need for them would only be further reinforced in a 4°C+ world—as discussed by
 493 other authors [47,50].
 494

495 (d) *Statelessness*

496 Statelessness, defined by the UNHCR as the condition of a person not
 497 considered as a national by any state under the operation of its law, could also
 498 become an important policy issue in a 4°C+ world. It is understood that low-lying
 499 small island states are especially vulnerable to the effects of climate change, and
 500 to sea-level rise and extreme weather events in particular. The sea-level rise that
 501 will be induced by a 4°C+ temperature change is expected to make some island
 502 states uninhabitable, and their governments might then have no other option than
 503 to organize the resettlement of their population abroad [51]. There are currently
 504 38 small island states that have acquired full independence. Among them, the
 505 existence of at least six states, representing about one million people, would be
 506 directly at risk in the case of a temperature rise of 4°C+ degrees: Bahamas,
 507 Kiribati, Maldives, Marshall Islands, Nauru and Tuvalu. These island states are
 508 all of very low elevation, with a highest point situated below 100 m above sea
 509 level.⁵ Though adaptation strategies in low-lying island states are usually limited
 510 and costly, they are not necessarily doomed to fail and one should not jump too
 511 quickly to describing islanders as stateless citizens in the making. Indeed, such
 512 rhetoric might just jeopardize the adaptation efforts of these countries [52].
 513

514 In the event of 4°C+ world, in some cases migration of the whole population
 515 might become the only viable option. It should be carefully planned and
 516 organized, with the interests of the migrants as paramount, at both the
 517 individual and collective levels. In particular, their political rights, citizenship
 518 and collective identity should be preserved. Some authors have pointed out that
 519 the migrants would in this case fall under the 1961 Convention for the Reduction
 520 of Statelessness, and could avail themselves of the Convention's protection. An
 521 alternative view is that these migrants should not be considered as stateless
 522 citizens, and that these states continue to exist, even uninhabited. The continued
 523 existence of these states is a guarantee that the citizenship and political rights of
 524 their people be maintained—if they were to disappear as independent states, the
 525 irony would be that the very states that disappear into the sea because of climate
 526 change would also lose their seat at the UN table of negotiations. Furthermore,
 527 even in the case where the islands disappear, territorial waters would continue to
 528 exist and could provide an anchor for these states' political existence. This would
 529 probably also imply reconceptualizing the notion of citizenship.
 530

531 5. Conclusion

532 As Danish physicist Niels Bohr famously put it, 'prediction is very difficult,
 533 especially about the future'. A 4°C+ world would bring unprecedented changes
 534 to the environment, likely to affect human mobility in different ways. How human
 535 societies could respond to these changes is highly uncertain, and will depend on a
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537
 538 ⁵Maldives, 2 m above sea level; Tuvalu, 5 m; Marshall Islands, 10 m; Bahamas, 63 m; Nauru, 71 m
 539 and Kiribati, 81 m.

540 wide set of factors, with many of them not relating to environmental conditions.
 541 Despite the lack of explanatory theoretical models, or possibly because of it,
 542 the assessment of how a 4°C+ world would affect migration patterns remains
 543 dominated by an essentialist, deterministic perspective. This view sees climate-
 544 induced displacement conceptualized as a failure of adaptation, a humanitarian
 545 catastrophe in the making. In this paper, I show how and why such deterministic
 546 assumptions do not match current empirical evidence, and how policy may be
 547 out of touch with the reality of future migration movements. The relationship
 548 between environmental changes and migration is highly complex and depends
 549 upon many variables and specific contexts. It cannot be reduced to a direct causal
 550 relationship. Thus, the impacts associated with a 4°C+ warming might not only
 551 affect the magnitude of the induced population movements, but also, and above
 552 all, their very nature.

553 Among the factors that will also influence the nature and magnitude of
 554 migration flows, policy is especially important. For now, discussions on future
 555 policy developments in this regard remain rooted in a deterministic perspective,
 556 unlikely to provide an adequate policy framework to address climate-induced
 557 displacements in a warmer world. Both migration and adaptation policies would
 558 need to evolve significantly, and move away from the security and humanitarian
 559 agendas they are currently framed in. Climate-induced migration should not
 560 only be addressed within the framework of climate change, but also within the
 561 discussions on the global governance of migration. In many cases, migration does
 562 not have to be envisioned as a humanitarian catastrophe, but can also be a
 563 solution to environmental disruption, which would allow people to relocate in
 564 safer areas and to cope better with climate change impacts.

565 The author is grateful to the three anonymous reviewers, whose comments have greatly helped him
 566 improve this paper.
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