



german
cooperation

DEUTSCHE ZUSAMMENARBEIT



Human Mobility, Climate Change and Gender in the Philippines

Compendium of Best Practices, Lessons Learnt and Tools for Philippine Practitioners

Ian Salvaña,
and Collective Plus Consultancy

COLLECTIVE+

Implemented by

giz Deutsche Gesellschaft
für Internationale
Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) GmbH

In cooperation with



Human Mobility, Climate Change and Gender in the Philippines

Compendium of Best Practices, Lessons Learnt
and Tools for Philippine Practitioners

Imprint

Published by the

Deutsche Gesellschaft für
Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) GmbH

Registered offices
Bonn and Eschborn, Germany

Global Programme Human Mobility in the Context of Climate Change - Philippines
GIZ Philippines Project Offices
10th Floor, Bank of Makati Building
Ayala Avenue Extension, Makati City 1209
Philippines
Phone +63 (2) 8651 5100
Email: andrea.teran@giz.de
<https://www.giz.de/en/worldwide/376.html>

Responsible

Dorothea Rischewski (GIZ Bonn)

Author/s

Ian Salvaña, and
Collective Plus Consultancy

As at

February 2022

Design

Ponci Soliongco

Photo credits

List of photographers in alphabetical order

Ferma, Jansel - p. 11

Dineros, Arjay - p. 33

Labay, Ralph - p. x

Paredes, Amor - p. 12, 36

Uy, Lenée p. 31, 34

Villarosa, Ben - Cover

Contact Person

Andrea Teran (GIZ Philippines)

On behalf of the

German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ)



Except where otherwise noted (e.g. photos), this publication is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-Non Commercial 4.0 International License. For more information see <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0>

Human Mobility, Climate Change and Gender in the Philippines

Compendium of Best Practices, Lessons Learnt
and Tools for Philippine Practitioners

Implemented by



In cooperation with



POPCOM
Empowering Filipino Families

COLLECTIVE+

Table of Contents

Terminologies	7
Introduction	11
CLIMATE CHANGE AND HUMAN MOBILITY	11
LOCAL CONTEXT: CLIMATE CHANGE AND HUMAN MOBILITY IN THE PHILIPPINES	12
THE ROLE OF GENDER IN CLIMATE CHANGE-INDUCED HUMAN MOBILITY	13
Gender Dimensions of Human Mobility due to Climate Change	14
INTERNAL MIGRATION	14
Case Study 1: Temporary/Seasonal Migration	14
Case Study 2: Permanent Internal/International Migration	18
DISPLACEMENT	21
Case Study 3: Displacement Due To Extreme Weather Events	21
Case Study 4: Displacement Due To Conflict And Violence	24
PLANNED RELOCATION	26
Case Study 5: Planned Relocation Due To Climate Impacts	26
IMMOBILITY	29
Case Study 6: Im/Mobility And “Trapped” Populations	29
Key Lessons and Concluding Remarks	32
ON SEASONAL MIGRATION	33
ON TEMPORARY MIGRATION	33
ON PERMANENT INTERNAL MIGRATION	34
ON DISPLACEMENT DUE TO EXTREME WEATHER EVENTS	34
ON DISPLACEMENT DUE TO CONFLICT AND VIOLENCE	35
ON PLANNED RELOCATION DUE TO CLIMATE IMPACTS	35
ON IMMOBILITY AMONG “TRAPPED” POPULATIONS	35
Bibliography	37

Terminologies¹

GENDER

Gender refers to the socially constructed roles and responsibilities of women and men (SPC et al. 2014).

SEX

Sex refers to biological differences between women and men. These differences exist for reproductive purposes and are essentially fixed (SPC et al. 2014).

GENDER AND SEX

‘Gender and sex are different but interlinked. Gender is a social attribute and sex is a biological attribute where individuals are almost always clearly male or female. Society shapes and normalizes different roles and behaviors based on people’s male or female sex and these socially determined roles and relationships are referred to as gender attributes. Sexual orientation also influences the roles and behaviors of individuals and different societies treat lesbian, gay, bisexual and transsexual people with differing degrees of expectations and discrimination.’ (UNDP, 2016)

LGBTQ

LGBTQ is an acronym for lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and queer. These terms are used to describe a person’s sexual orientation or gender identity.

GENDER ANALYSIS

(Applying A Gender Lens)

Gender analysis is a process of examining the roles, knowledge, capacity and assets of women and men, as the first step in planning efficient development strategies, programs and projects that address both men’s and women’s needs, and reduce the inequalities that exist between them (SPC et al. 2014)

Gender equality or equality between women and men refers to the equal enjoyment by men and women of all ages of rights, socially valued goods, opportunities, resources and rewards. Equality does not mean that men and women are the same but that their enjoyment of rights, opportunities and life chances are not governed or limited by whether they were born male or female (SPC et al. 2014)

GENDER MAINSTREAMING

Gender mainstreaming refers to the process whereby needs and interests of both women and men are taken into account systematically across all programs, projects and organizational structures (SPC et al. 2014).

GENDER INDICATORS

Indicators are measurable signs of performance or achievement. They are factors or variables that provide a way of measuring achievement or reflecting change. When monitoring or evaluating policies, strategies, programs, or projects, they are used to assess whether activities and processes were implemented as planned; (ii) whether a change was achieved or progress was made

¹ Source: GIZ (2019).

toward influencing a change—that is, whether objectives, outcomes, or other types of results were achieved; and (iii) whether there were any unintended impacts, results, or consequences. Indicators should reflect the goal, objectives, and expected results of a policy, program, project, or other type of initiative. The specific aspect measured by an indicator can be an input, an immediate or intermediate result or output, or a longer-term outcome. (Adapted from ADB Toolkit on Gender Equality Results and Indicators, 2013)

GENDER RESPONSIVE

Gender responsiveness refers to outcomes that reflect an understanding of gender roles and inequalities and which make an effort to encourage equal participation and equal and fair distribution of benefits. Gender responsiveness is accomplished through gender analysis and gender inclusiveness (adapted from UNDP Gender Responsive National Communications Toolkit, 2015)

GENDER NEUTRAL

‘Where a project or program is not concerned with human activities and has no effect on people, this is considered gender neutral’ (SPC et al., 2014).

ADAPTIVE CAPACITY

Adaptive capacity – ‘refers to attitude, behaviors, knowledge and skills that enables 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 capability to make informed decisions and choices; and fully apply their rights and utilize their skills and knowledge (SPC et al. 2014)

SEX DISAGGREGATED DATA

Data that provides a breakdown of men’s and women’s activities and perspectives by collecting separate data on men and women. Data can be disaggregated by age, location, ethnic group, education, income and other demographic variables to help understand the differences between groups and to effectively target interventions and solutions. (SPC et al., 2014)

Extreme events, or rapid onset events, refer to the risks and impacts of meteorological or hydrological hazards such as tropical cyclones; typhoons; hurricanes; tornadoes; blizzards; coastal floods; and mudflows (UNISDR, 2018)

Slow-onset events refer to the risks and impacts of the following events: increasing temperatures; desertification; loss of biodiversity; land and forest degradation; glacial retreat and related impacts; ocean acidification; sea level rise; and salinization (UNFCCC, 2018).

Disasters are linked to extreme or slow onset events and can seriously disrupt the functioning of a community or a society involving widespread human, material, economic, or environmental losses and impacts, which exceed the ability of the affected community or society to cope using its own resources (UNISDR, 2018).

HUMAN MOBILITY

While there are no universally agreed-upon terms, this discussion paper adopts the framing used in the UNFCCC process derived from the Cancun Adaptation Framework Paragraph 14(f), where “Human Mobility” is used as an umbrella term that encompasses displacement, migration, and planned relocation (UNFCCC, 2010).

Migration describes the (predominantly) voluntary movement of individuals away from their homes or places of residence, e.g. as an adaptation strategy. Migration can be a means to diversify household sources of income, as migrants may support families back home with remittances. Others move in order to avoid a situation of deteriorating environmental conditions that could result in future displacement (Sierra Club and UN Women, 2018).

Displacement describes the (predominantly) forced movement of persons away from their homes or places of residence. This dimension of human mobility is most often framed as a humanitarian concern, where displaced persons have immediate needs, including assistance and protection of rights (Nansen Initiative, 2015).

Planned relocation is 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 in anticipation of or in reaction to climate impacts. Depending on 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 (UNHCR, 2014).

Trapped populations are those who stay behind or are unable to move due to lack of financial and social resources. Significant physical and financial capital are required to move, and obstacles such as lack of financial means, cultural stigmas, or lack of supporting social networks can prevent people from utilizing 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 (Foresight: Migration and Global Environmental Change, 2011).



1

Introduction

CLIMATE CHANGE AND HUMAN MOBILITY¹

Climate change is projected to and is already demonstrating severe impacts on the environment and human lives. One of the largest challenges associated with the impacts of climate change will be its effects on human mobility (IPCC, 1990). It is anticipated that the movements of people in response to the impacts of climate change will increase from the tens of millions to 250 million people (Boano et al, 2008; Brown, 2007; Christian Aid, 2007). Migration occurs in response to multiple pressures, and it is difficult to isolate environmental pressures from ongoing economic ones. The effects of climate change however will increase the impetus for migration, forcing people to search for safer environments that can offer them reliable livelihoods, and household security (Black et al., 2008).

There are different migration pathways (*Figure 1*) that may result as responses to the different impacts associated with climate change. For instance, sudden-onset disasters – such as cyclones, in most cases result in the immediate displacement and not necessarily permanent displacement. Slow-onset disasters – such as sea level rise and drought, will have the impact of slowly displacing people and may eventually lead to the planned relocation (UNESCAP, 2017)

¹ Source: GIZ (2019).

FIGURE 1: TYPES OF HUMAN MOBILITY IN THE CONTEXT OF CLIMATE CHANGE

HUMAN MOBILITY		
Displacement	Migration	Planned Relocation
Situations where people are forced to leave their home or place of habitual residence. Displacement is usually associated with intensive risk, where the occurrence of a disaster event is the primary driver of movement. It can take place within or across national borders.	Movements which are, to some degree, voluntary. This is usually associated with extensive risk, and can take place within or across national borders. The decision to move is complex and often linked to multiple drivers, including but not limited to climate risk.	An organized relocation, typically instigated, supervised and carried out by the state with the aim of reducing (usually extensive) weather and climate risks. Ideally, planned relocation should be undertaken transparently and with the informed consent of, or upon the request of the community. It should also be accompanied by resettlement (the restoration of communities and socio-economic conditions) (McAdam and Ferris, 2015)

Source: (Advisory Group on Climate Change and Human Mobility, 2014; ODI, 2016)

LOCAL CONTEXT: CLIMATE CHANGE AND HUMAN MOBILITY IN THE PHILIPPINES

The Philippines is considered one of the places most vulnerable to climate change (Germanwatch, 2018). Its geographical location as a tropical archipelago on the western Pacific Rim, widely understood as the region most at risk to climate variability in the world, is exposed to various slow and sudden onset climatic and weather changes (Weinreb et al., 2020; GIZ, 2020a). These include sea level rise, coastal erosion, salinification and increase in temperature and rainfall (slow onset events) as well as stronger typhoons, landslides, floods and drought (sudden onset events), among others. The impacts of these hazards range from the destruction of ecosystems and the services they provide, to their influence on the growing population's livelihoods and well-being. Particularly vulnerable are ecosystem-dependent livelihoods in the agricultural sector, which accounts for 9.3% of the country's GDP and 24.3% of its employment in 2018 (Weinreb et al., 2020; PSA and UPPI, 2019).

Climate impacts also exacerbate the effects of other socio-economic factors on millions of lives, including food security, health, access to quality education, and better livelihood and employment opportunities. This shows that the nexus of climate change and human mobility in the Philippines is mediated by livelihood and human security drivers. These drivers do not only urge many to migrate as a voluntary or involuntary adaptation strategy (GIZ, 2020a; IOM, 2021a), they also shape people's capabilities, chances and choices to move. This sustains a highly developed "culture of migration" situated within complex economic, political and social contexts, and which also perpetuates a culture of "escape" from areas affected by climate change, adding to the state of vulnerability arising from such contexts (Weinreb et al., 2020, p. 4). Climate-induced vulnerability, in turn, shapes different mobility pathways that affected communities use as response strategies. These pathways are delineated into three categories, which are migration, displacement and planned relocation (UNESCAP, 2017), all of



which present relevant cases in this Compendium. The multiple pressures present in each pathway show an important, continuous effort to assess the country's contemporary history of human mobility in the context of climate change as well as the intersectional issues of its present landscape.

THE ROLE OF GENDER IN CLIMATE CHANGE-INDUCED HUMAN MOBILITY²

Climate change induced human mobility is largely determined by people's exposure to environmental and climatic risks and their capacity to anticipate, cope with, adapt, and recover from the consequences of natural hazards and environmental degradation (IOM, 2014). Overall, people who are economically, politically, and socially marginalized within the communities are more likely to be affected by natural hazards and environmental degradation and thus experience the impacts of climate change more acutely than others. These marginalized groups who are often women, children, the elderly, people living with a disability and members of the LGBTQ community for example are also those who have the fewest opportunities to access information, decision-making process, to prepare for the impacts of climate change and disasters, as mobility requires economic and social capacities that are not available to everyone. Due to issues pertaining to opportunities and capabilities, marginalized groups face the full force of disasters and slow onset impacts of climate change.

Given that gender can have a major impact on an individuals' economic and social capacity it is undeniable that human mobility issues are inherently gendered. Issues associated with

human mobility such as pressure to migrate, risk perception, priorities, strategies, destination choices, employment prospects, access to integration or reintegration activities also vary by gender (IOM, 2014). Human mobility may also lead to shifts in gender roles that contribute to changing oppressive gender relations and provide new opportunities to improve women's and men's lives (IOM, 2014). However, it is important to underline that human mobility (displacement, migration, or relocation) can also exacerbate existing inequalities between women and men, expose them to new vulnerabilities, and intensify issues of poverty, discrimination, and socioeconomic inequality. Gender analysis and gender responsive action planning is therefore critically relevant to all pathways of mobility and is a crucial factor in understanding the causes and consequences of climate change induced human mobility. §

² Source: GIZ (2019).

2

Gender Dimensions of Human Mobility due to Climate Change

INTERNAL MIGRATION

CASE STUDY 1: TEMPORARY/SEASONAL MIGRATION

Well-being is at the heart of migration in the Philippines (GIZ, 2020a). Based on the 2018 National Migration Survey (NMS), the main decision-makers for internal movement—migrants themselves and their immediately family—consider migration beneficial towards accessing opportunities in employment, housing and education (PSA and UPPI, 2019). Given the decline in employment opportunities in the agricultural sector in recent decades, rural and agricultural poverty forced people to seek better employment prospects in urban areas (World Bank, 2018 in UNESCO et al., 2018; IOM, 2013; Quisumbing and McNiven, 2006). As a common livelihood strategy among poor farming households, migration helps smooth seasonal income fluctuations and meet other financial obligations (Paris et al., 2009; GIZ, 2020a).

In Cagayan Valley, migration is mainly considered to be of economic nature, wherein most migrants come to urban centres like Santiago City from rural areas within the region (Asis, 2011; GIZ, 2020a). In search of better livelihoods and wellbeing, people move with hopes of improving their and their families' lives, finding stable jobs with better income, gaining new experiences and learning new skills, or even fleeing insecurity, disaster or famine in the communities of origin (GIZ, 2021; Black, 2011a). Some of these people comprise temporary/seasonal migrants, who stay in one area for at least three months to less than five years (typically the duration of temporary migration), as well as transient populations, which include daytime commuters and "weekday" residents like workers and students (GIZ, 2020b).¹

Economic issues like poverty and unequal access to livelihood opportunities are also intertwined with social and political processes that influence those who move, including their places of destination, as well as those who stay behind (GIZ, 2021). In developing countries like the Philippines, these socio-economic and -political processes also expose migrants to different vulnerabilities

¹ There is no fixed duration of temporary or short-term migration as it depends on statistical definitions used by statistical authorities. Unless specified for reporting purposes, there is no official definition of temporary/short-term internal migrant in the Philippines at this time of writing.

like climate- and conflict-induced disasters that affect their adaptive capacities (Wisner et al., 2013). The direct and indirect negative impacts of climate change are expected to increase problems for the country's natural ecosystem and biodiversity, in turn severely affecting vulnerable communities whose livelihood and sustenance are highly dependent on ecosystem services (Cruz et al. 2017; GIZ, 2020a).

On seasonal and temporary migration, it is important to note that it is not easily captured through available data, since the 2018 NMS only allows migration to be defined based on a five-year difference in individuals' current and past residence preceding the survey (Weinreb et al., 2020). This is an increasing problem given that rural-urban migration corridors transform migration discourses more towards human mobility, thus having

TABLE 1. APPLYING A GENDER LENS TO CASE STUDY 1 - TEMPORARY/SEASONAL MIGRATION

GENDER DIMENSIONS	CASE STUDY EXAMPLE	LESSONS LEARNT (LT) OR BEST PRACTICE (BP)	SUGGESTED TOOLS OR RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ANALYSIS/ ASSESSMENT/ IMPLEMENTATION/ MONITORING
Non-gender-biased employment opportunities for people in urban areas in the context of temporary and seasonal migration are becoming a common livelihood strategy among poor farming households to aid them with consistent price fluctuations and other financial obligations (Paris et al., 2009; GIZ, 2020a).	<p>In Cagayan Valley, migration is mainly considered to be of economic nature, wherein most migrants come to urban centres like Santiago City from provinces within the region (Asis, 2011; GIZ, 2020a).</p> <p>Apart from this, in terms of the general gender gap and occupational placement in the Philippines, there is a 4.84% pay gap between male and female workers, which presents opportunities and challenges to address multidimensional issues of gender inequality (Engcong et al., 2019).</p>	Human movement is a global phenomenon driven primarily by unequal distribution of opportunities between and among countries or regions (UNDP, 2009). One key factor affecting opportunities is the issue of gender equality where its complexity and decisive advantages of women on basic pay, interests and occupational placement can mask the existence of a large pay gap in the country's labour force (Engcong et al., 2019). Such advantages of women are areas that can be explored in research and policy to better improve fair and gender-equal working conditions between female and male workers.	<p>Create and implement gender-mainstreamed policies and governance interventions that provide better capacities among women and men in participating in daily household and community activities. As such, both women and men can tap spaces well beyond gendered gaps and limits towards claiming well-being for their own and their families' lives.</p> <p>The OSCE (2009) emphasized common approaches used in implementing temporary labour migrant policies. One specific approach is the "human capital" model, which assesses prospective migrants based on criteria that the government considers as good predictors of long-term economic success. In the case of the Philippines, this approach can serve as a tool in opening gender-inclusive employment opportunities where skills, experience, and competence are valuable factors considered in the criteria.</p>

Table continued on the next page >

Table 1. Applying A Gender Lens To Case Study 1 - Temporary/Seasonal Migration (cont.)

GENDER DIMENSIONS	CASE STUDY EXAMPLE	LESSONS LEARNT (LT) OR BEST PRACTICE (BP)	SUGGESTED TOOLS OR RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ANALYSIS/ ASSESSMENT/ IMPLEMENTATION/ MONITORING
There is a lack of a defined basis on the study of temporary/seasonal migration, in particular, studies exploring the relationship of climate variabilities and migration, that is also grounded on gender-based employment opportunities for purposes of policymaking and outcomes.	<p>The 2018 NMS only allows migration to be defined based on a five-year difference in individuals' current and past residence preceding the census (Weinreb et al., 2020).</p> <p>On a larger scale, many censuses across the Asia-Pacific lack temporary/seasonal migration data that would otherwise be useful in policymaking.</p>	In pursuit of understanding the relationship of temporary/seasonal migration and climate-induced mobility, the government must not rely entirely on numerical data. Subjective evidence such as real-life narratives, particularly between women and men, should also be taken into consideration as it may compromise policy development (GIZ, 2020c; Weinreb et al., 2020).	<p>Conduct a thorough study on temporary and seasonal migration grounded on gender-based employment opportunities, along with a modified standard/basis for data interpretation, taking into consideration not only NMS data, but subjective accounts on the issue as well.</p> <p>A gender composition labour migration survey was conducted in Latin American countries in 2008 which identified signals of the feminization of migration in the said regions (OSCE, 2009). This can be adapted in the context of the Philippines, where a survey with focus on temporary migrants may be conducted as aid to policy development and implementations.</p>

Table continued on the next page >

important policy implications. Still, amid this data concern, subjective evidence establishes that, over the last decade, there has indeed been an increase in climate-induced migration, particularly short-distance and temporary migration (GIZ, 2020c; Weinreb et al., 2020).

Affected populations migrate to adapt to their needs in the face of environmental hazards like drought and flooding, intertwined with livelihood issues like poor harvest and decreasing income (Quisumbing and McNiven, 2010; GIZ, 2020a; IOM, 2021a). Some shift to more sustainable livelihoods to better adapt to climatic and economic insecurities. Some still return home to

continue their livelihood, risking their lives through in-situ adaptation strategies that may become maladaptive over time (GIZ, 2020a). This may be because the discourse of additional climate change adaptation capacities is "moot and unrealistic in the face of poverty and precarity" (GIZ, 2021, p. 34).

Given varied adaptation strategies to climate-induced livelihood vulnerabilities, traditionally held gender roles within and beyond the household become increasingly challenged in communities where women take up work traditionally done by men (and vice versa). GIZ (2020a) research interviews suggest that some women do not hold to these traditional roles any longer. "What a

Table 1. Applying A Gender Lens To Case Study 1 - Temporary/Seasonal Migration (cont.)

GENDER DIMENSIONS	CASE STUDY EXAMPLE	LESSONS LEARNT (LT) OR BEST PRACTICE (BP)	SUGGESTED TOOLS OR RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ANALYSIS/ ASSESSMENT/ IMPLEMENTATION/ MONITORING
In places prone to the effects of climate change such as drought and flooding, people are induced to migrate to other provinces to seek better livelihood (IOM, 2021). Agrarian communities, in particular, are constantly threatened by forced migration because of the loss of livelihood, financial assets, and agricultural yield and debt (Chandra et al., 2017). Though both men and women suffer from the impacts of climate change, women are more disadvantaged than men given the nature of their usual work environment such as farming in smaller plots, working shorter hours, or limiting themselves to cash crops (Chandra et al., 2017).	In the Philippines, female migration has become very prevalent most especially in rural-urban movement. For instance, rural areas in Mindanao are being migrated to by females comprising 56.3% of the out-migrant (regional/provincial migrant) population (Quisumbing and McNiven, 2006).	The predominance of women among rural-urban migrants can be explained by their relative lack of education and skills, particularly in relation to agriculture. They are motivated to move to cities to seek opportunities as a result (UN Habitat, 2003).	Implement sustainable livelihood skills training development for rural migrants, especially women, to create better employment or livelihood opportunities for them in urbanized environments. The “reach-benefit-empower framework” may be used to evaluate projects and policies supporting women amidst rural revitalization (Quisumbing and McNiven, 2006; Quisumbing, Meinzen-Dick and Malapit, 2019). This can be adapted in the context of the Philippines, where female migration has become prevalent, given that there is a need for policies empowering women and amplifying their voices, engagement and participation in formal governance structures.

man does, a woman can do, too,” where in some instances, women harvest sugarcane and drive motorcycles while men do manicures, among others (GIZ, 2020a, p. 49). In the advent of climate-induced economic adaptation and temporary/seasonal migration, these “reversed” roles present opportunities for gender-mainstreamed policy and governance interventions that provide better capacities among women and men in participating in daily household and community activities. As such, both women and men can tap spaces well beyond gendered gaps and limits towards claiming well-being for their and their families’ lives.

CASE STUDY 2: PERMANENT INTERNAL/ INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

The 2018 National Migration Survey reveals that around four in ten Filipinos are lifetime migrants (PSA and UPPI, 2019). Additionally, Filipino migrants usually move from one region to another or from one city/municipality to another within the same province. These trends reflect the country's internal migration flows, which are mainly interprovincial, largely rural to urban and rural to rural, and commonly carried out by women and youth (Gultiano and Xenos 2004; Quisumbing and McNiven 2005; GIZ, 2020a).

Considering migration as a common livelihood strategy, especially among poor farming households, urban centres like the National Capital Region (NCR) and surrounding areas become prime destinations for long-term migration (Paris et al., 2009; Quisumbing and McNiven 2005; GIZ, 2020a). In Baguio, being the centre of the Cordillera Administrative Region (CAR), migrants consider some pull factors like road networks, social networks supporting them and facilitating their relocation, as well as opportunities in employment, education and health benefits, among others, in deciding to stay in the city (GIZ, 2020b).

Additionally, those who move shape demographic transitions that are not only economic in nature, but also induced by climatic hazards. The relationship between climate change and migration is also part of a complex backdrop of movement among large youth populations, particularly from rural areas, as well as employment and livelihood opportunities continually reshaped by processes of structural and rural transformation (Weinreb et al., 2020). Families from rural areas facing economic challenges, exacerbated by

natural disasters, migrate on assumptions of improvement in livelihood amid misgivings and concerns of safety and well-being while working in cities like Manila (Weinreb et al., 2020; GIZ, 2021).

Destination areas for Filipino migrants also include moving abroad, making up one of the world's largest international migration sources and shaping the country's long-standing culture of migration (ADB, 2012). However, international migration data, particularly census data in the Asia-Pacific, face many issues, which may obscure the real lived experiences of migrants abroad (Huguet 2008; ADB 2012; Weinreb et al., 2020). This is especially true for the lack of data on international migration with direct links to climate change and yet the greater focus of international policy discourses discussing their links despite evidence claiming that most migrants stay within their country of origin (Cundill et al., 2021; Bettini, Nash and Gioli, 2017; Boas, 2019; McLeman, 2019; Kaczan and Orgill-Meyer, 2020).

There is, therefore, a need to shift perspectives on migration flows and highlight issues of climate-induced internal migration, lasting from temporary to permanent. Since households across the country employ adaptive strategies like permanent and circular/seasonal migration to manage vulnerabilities, understanding the broader context of rural development and climate adaptation policies affecting human mobility in different parts of the country may not just protect livelihoods, provide employment opportunities and ensure food security and disaster preparedness. Rather than a necessity, it may also establish migration as a choice, especially for spouses with changing traditional gender roles (Weinreb et al., 2020). Some men experience difficulties in balancing working and taking care of children left behind

TABLE 2. APPLYING A GENDER LENS TO CASE STUDY 2 - PERMANENT INTERNAL/INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

GENDER DIMENSIONS	CASE STUDY EXAMPLE	LESSONS LEARNT (LT) OR BEST PRACTICE (BP)	SUGGESTED TOOLS OR RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ANALYSIS/ ASSESSMENT/ IMPLEMENTATION/ MONITORING
<p>Demographic transitions are not only economic in nature but are also induced by climatic hazards. Women are more affected by climate impacts than men: 80% of people displaced by the climate emergency are women (IOM, 2021a).</p> <p>Additionally, a 1°C increase in minimum temperature during summer months results in reduction in rice yields and increase in the number of female domestic workers overseas (Bordey et al., 2014).</p>	<p>In 2015-2016, Northern Mindanao endured a strong El Niño event which resulted in Php 15.2 billion worth of damages and losses (Agence France-Presse, 2016). The intense increase of temperature brought by El Niño resulted in extensive failure of harvest, pushing farmers to migrate to nearby rural or urban areas to seek livelihood opportunities (CDRC, 2016).</p> <p>There were a number of undocumented women who migrated into nearby cities to support their families, reversing productive and reproductive roles with their husbands (Oxfam, 2017; Chandran, 2018).</p>	<p>Filipinos' voluntary adaptive strategies to manage vulnerabilities include community organizing supported by the Filipino diaspora and foreign aid. Affected populations may also engage in permanent and circular, internal and international migration (IOM, 2021a).</p> <p>Between 2005-2010, skilled agricultural workers were left with little to no choice but to engage in internal migration because of drought (Weinreb et al., 2020). Considering the context of farming being a male-dominant livelihood sector, this case alone might have gendered migration implications since women bear heavier domestic responsibilities on top of being farmers (Chandra et al., 2017).</p> <p>Apart from this, on international migration since the 1980s, there had been a significant increase in the number of women working outside the Philippines. As of 2007, women had accounted 70% of the overseas Filipino workers. International migration has kept unemployment and underemployment rates in the Philippines at tolerable levels (Garchitorena, 2017). This is due to the feminization of migration as one of the significant changes in the Filipino pattern of migration.</p>	<p>Organize policy discussions on climate-induced mobility and engage multi-sector agency actors towards shifting perspectives on migration flows, particularly focusing on issues of climate-induced internal migration lasting from temporary to permanent to develop gender-inclusive policies or strategies in addressing this issue.</p> <p>The "Farmer's Field School" methodology, implemented in 2011 in countries across East, West, and South Africa and Asia, integrated a gender-transformative capacity-building model for food and nutrition security (FAO, IFAD and WFP, 2020). This approach consists of a comprehensive program with components dealing with agriculture, markets, nutrition, and women's empowerment. This methodology can be adapted by the Philippine government, considering the country's vulnerability to natural calamities. Integrating a gender-transformative approach for food security and capacity-building would help address vulnerabilities of women and men facing permanent internal/ international migration.</p>

Table continued on the next page >

Table 2. Applying A Gender Lens To Case Study 2 - Permanent Internal/International Migration (*Cont.*)

GENDER DIMENSIONS	CASE STUDY EXAMPLE	LESSONS LEARNT (LT) OR BEST PRACTICE (BP)	SUGGESTED TOOLS OR RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ANALYSIS/ ASSESSMENT/ IMPLEMENTATION/ MONITORING
<p>The unpredictable changes in the agricultural sector, particularly during planting season, depreciate livelihood value for farmers, leaving them with little to no choice but to sell their lands and permanently move into urban areas for livelihood (IOM, 2021a).</p> <p>Some men experience difficulties in balancing working and taking care of children left behind by their spouses who left for better-paying jobs. Some women who earn for their families, on the other hand, experience mental and physical abuse like being starved and deprived of salary by their employers (Weinreb et al., 2020).</p>	<p>In Mindanao, women bear more losses than men, considering that women have additional domestic tasks on top of their role as farmers (Chandra et al., 2017). Women farmers also described how biological factors (i.e. their additional responsibilities for reproductive, aside from productive, labour) have limited their participation in agricultural activities, and misunderstandings about this have systemic effects on pay inequality between genders.</p>	<p>With households employing adaptive strategies such as permanent and seasonal migration, understanding the broader context of rural development and climate adaptation policies affecting human mobility in different parts of the country may strengthen the protection of livelihoods, provision of employment opportunities and insurance of food security and disaster preparedness (Weinreb et al., 2020).</p> <p>Migration-as-adaptation processes, especially gendered migration in response to climatic vulnerabilities, can also redraw traditional gender roles helpful in informing gender-sensitive policies.</p>	<p>Create policies grounded from a gender reframing of internal migration designed to respond to the needs and interests of people who were forced to migrate because of economic and climatic stress.</p> <p>The “Journey of Transformation/ Engaging men as Allies in Women’s Economic Empowerment” methodology, implemented by Promundo in countries within the regions of East and South Africa and Asia in 2011, aimed to promote gender justice and prevent violence by engaging boys in partnership with women, girls, and people of all gender identities (FAO, IFAD and WFP, 2020). The gender-transformative curricula implemented by Promundo through this method stimulates engagement for men and their partners, understanding the positive effects of shifting gender roles around earning power. This challenges unequitable gender norms and power dynamics that exist in a community, particularly those that hamper women’s participation, benefits, and opportunities. Further, the method addresses the following core issues: (i) promoting shared household decision making; (ii) addressing unpaid care work and promotion of men’s caregiving; and (iii) preventing intimate partner violence. Given the context provided in the case, this method would create a transformative impact in Filipino communities.</p>

by their spouses, who have left for better-paying jobs. On the other hand, some women who earn for their families experience mental and physical abuse like being starved and deprived of salary by their employers (Weinreb et al., 2020). A gendered

reframing of internal migration might also help to inform policy designs that respond to the needs and interests of people left without options but to move due to economic and climatic stress.

DISPLACEMENT

CASE STUDY 3: DISPLACEMENT DUE TO EXTREME WEATHER EVENTS

According to the 2021 Global Report on Internal Displacement (GRID), the Philippines ranked as one of the highest in the world in terms of new displacements by conflict and disasters in 2020 (IDMC, 2021). Out of the total new global displacements of 40.5 million, the Philippines recorded around 4.6 million, second only to China which exceeded the 5-million mark of new displacements. Out of such record, the Philippines had around 4 million internally displaced people due to disasters, while around 100,000 had been tallied as internally displaced due to conflict and violence. The convergence of disaster and conflict leads people to experience chronic displacement, with vulnerability as its prolonged feature (IDMC, 2021). As for disaster alone, the consequences of displacement are already massive—over three times more displacements than conflict and violence.

In the Philippines, sudden onset weather-related events, including intense typhoons and flooding in densely populated areas, have posed extreme challenges to the adaptive capacities of different communities. Tropical storms and typhoons like Sendong (Washi) in 2011, Pablo (Bopha) in 2012, and Yolanda (Haiyan) in 2013 especially threaten vulnerable communities living within 50km of coastal areas in the country (GIZ, 2020a; Board, 2020). These communities, which also face the growing issue of sea level rise, account for about 80% of the country's total population (Board, 2020).

Given the frequent occurrence of destructive typhoons over the past few years, owing to increased climate variability in recent decades, displacement and its impacts become inevitable for many. In October 2020, Super Typhoon Rolly (Goni) left in its wake storm surges and mudslides around Luzon, brought about by heavy rainfall and violent winds. Roughly two weeks later, Typhoon Ulysses (Vamco) destroyed temporary housing which sheltered evacuees affected by Super

© Jansel Ferma | Pexels



TABLE 3. APPLYING A GENDER LENS TO CASE STUDY 3 - DISPLACEMENT DUE TO EXTREME WEATHER EVENTS

GENDER DIMENSIONS	CASE STUDY EXAMPLE	LESSONS LEARNT (LT) OR BEST PRACTICE (BP)	SUGGESTED TOOLS OR RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ANALYSIS/ ASSESSMENT/ IMPLEMENTATION/ MONITORING
<p>In the Philippines, sudden onset weather-related events, including intense typhoons and flooding in densely populated areas, continue to pose extreme challenges to the adaptive capacities of different communities.</p> <p>During humanitarian emergencies such as calamities, women's and girls' risk of exposure to multiple forms of gender-based violence is heightened. Approximately one in five refugees or displaced women experience sexual violence (What Works to Prevent Violence, 2015).</p>	<p>In 2013, Eastern Visayas was hit by Super Typhoon Yolanda (Haiyan), which devastated 11.3 million people and displaced 80,000 (Quick, 2013). Among these, one of the most vulnerable populations were women. Nearly 300,000 pregnant women and new mothers were affected, having to seek aid for food, while approximately one million children lived in the hardest-hit area, almost 200,000 of which were adolescent girls. Additionally, roughly 80% of the fatalities from the super typhoon were women and girls (Quick, 2013).</p>	<p>Women are disproportionately affected by natural disasters because discrimination exists. Discrimination before a crisis undermines women's economic and social status, limiting their survival skills and ability to receive warnings and save themselves from harm. Furthermore, women who survive disasters often face overwhelming challenges such as shock, displacement, sexual violence and exploitation, disruptions in health services, and loss of financial security (Quick, 2013).</p>	<p>Conduct gender-inclusive assessment on disaster risk management and safety evacuation plans to better understand the specific needs of various groups (men, women, children, PWD, LGBTQ) in situations where calamity-induced displacement takes place.</p> <p>Create and implement protective policies on evacuation centres based on the assessments made on existing disaster risk management practices and evacuation plans.</p> <p>The Hyogo Framework for Action is a gender-centered blueprint for disaster risk management policies, plans and decision making that puts emphasis on the development of disaster risk and risk management policies should integrate gender perspectives where risk management includes early warning, information, management, and education training accessible and inclusive to all genders (ISDR, 2005).</p> <p>The Philippine Gender Joint Country Assessment in 2007 revealed that despite the efforts of developing a favourable policy environment, the legal and policy framework has not delivered the intended benefits for women as extensively and effectively as hoped (ADB et al., 2008). Hence the Hyogo Framework can be adapted in the Philippines with much concentration in involving women in disaster risk management and normalizing it (ISDR, 2005).</p>

Table continued on the next page >

Table 3. Applying A Gender Lens To Case Study 3 - Displacement Due To Extreme Weather Events (*Cont.*)

GENDER DIMENSIONS	CASE STUDY EXAMPLE	LESSONS LEARNT (LT) OR BEST PRACTICE (BP)	SUGGESTED TOOLS OR RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ANALYSIS/ ASSESSMENT/ IMPLEMENTATION/ MONITORING
<p>Impacts of climate change cascade on various aspects of an individual's life, including health, material and immaterial costs, damaged shelters, and education, among others. Filipinos have adapted involuntary strategies, including distress migration and systemic relocation to manage vulnerabilities (IOM, 2021a).</p> <p>However, Filipino women not only face challenges brought by systemic relocation or displacement. In situations like these, women become more vulnerable to sexual violence and exploitation (Quick, 2013).</p>	<p>The 2013 disaster brought by Super Typhoon Yolanda (Haiyan) in Eastern Visayas, affected 300,00 pregnant women and new mothers and 200,000 adolescent girls (Quick, 2013).</p>	<p>On women and children's vulnerability during disasters, children born from pregnancies during Superstorm Sandy in the US have distinct cognitive, neurobehavioral, psychosocial, and physiological profiles. These children are "more reactive, anxious, fearful, and more likely to be aggressive" (Meyers 2019). Additionally, children affected by natural disasters tend to experience increased problems regarding physical and mental health and even in learning (Lai and La Greca, 2020).</p> <p>In comparison, Filipino women and children may endure more difficult struggles when it comes to natural calamities, given the lack of disaster response health resources such as psychological health-focused centres. The Department of Education's (DepEd) climate change education, launched last April 2021, attempts to provide education resources to children in need, but these are only accessible to few, given that DepEd's microsite and materials are fully online.</p>	<p>Government agencies should ensure the provision of psychological and psycho-social support for men, women, children, and other vulnerable groups affected by calamity-induced displacement to secure victims' mental well-being.</p> <p>Psychological First Aid (PFA) is a tool that could be promoted or implemented across the Philippines given its geographical vulnerabilities. It is a humane, supportive response to people affected by a traumatic natural disaster and/or terrorism designed to reduce initial distress caused by traumatic events and foster immediate and long-term adaptive functioning and coping mechanisms (Singaravelu, 2012).</p>

Typhoon Rolly in southern Luzon and caused major flooding in Metro Manila (IDMC, 2021; Board, 2020). Affected areas needed immediate response, including food assistance, cash/food for work, and shelter repair kits (UN News, 2020).

Typhoon survivors also needed varying support, from repairing water and sanitation (WASH) facilities and distributing hygiene kits to restoring power and communication facilities as well as providing psychosocial support and protection

(UN News, 2020). Often, the experience of displacement due to extreme weather events like typhoons is also mired by issues such as poor basic services and infrastructure, lack of livelihood/employment opportunities and low social integration and cohesion in and with host/destination areas (GIZ, 2020a). These make displacement even more challenging, particularly among the most vulnerable segments within displaced populations in the country, including children, the elderly, women and members of

the LGBTQ community. As for the differentiated impacts of internal displacement due to extreme weather events among women and men, women and girls tend to experience disproportionate effects, including gender-based violence, sexual abuse and trafficking, among others (IDMC, 2021). These are all on top of differentiated biological needs, especially for those living with disabilities, as well as expectations of female gender roles inside and outside the household, including heading the household, rearing children and working to feed the family.

CASE STUDY 4: DISPLACEMENT DUE TO CONFLICT AND VIOLENCE

Conflict continually brings instability in people's lives. This is evident in some parts of Mindanao in southern Philippines where conflict presents problems in social cohesion (GIZ, 2020a). This is due, in part, to a long history of transitional injustice rooted in colonial aggressions, ethno-religious conflicts and land ownership issues. Over time, these issues also brought more urgent problems like clan feuds, militarization of ancestral lands, inter-communal tensions, and the proliferation of ISIS-linked groups, secessionist movements and the Communist rebel group, among others (GIZ, 2020a; IOM, 2021b).

Conflict also forces people to flee their homes, many of whom end up displaced. As of April 2021, in Maguindanao, the Displacement Tracking Matrix (DTM) reported more than 12,700 displaced households across 13 affected towns hosting 63 displacement sites (IOM, 2021b). Like these households, many more displaced across Mindanao experience socio-political issues like discrimination, underrepresentation and exclusion, as well as socio-economic challenges like incremental losses in their livelihoods, particularly in agriculture (GIZ, 2020a; Chandra et al., 2017).

The impacts of conflict and displacement are also exacerbated by multiple environmental stresses. Beyond religious- and ethnic-related tensions, conflicts across central Mindanao are fuelled by climate-related events like the increase of rain, flooding, drought, crop loss, insect infestation and resource scarcity, giving seasonal rise in the recruitment of rebel groups (Chandra et al., 2017; IOM, 2021a).

With the co-occurrence of climate- and conflict-induced events, the quality of livelihood and level of security among vulnerable communities are perennially at stake (IOM, 2021a; IDMC, 2021). Imbalance and scarcity in resources also force communities to move. Especially if they have the means, individuals and whole families consider migration as a common livelihood strategy to adapt to climate and conflict disasters and escape displacement (IOM, 2021a; GIZ, 2020a; Quisumbing and McNiven, 2010).

In conflict-prone agrarian communities, vulnerability due to climate and conflict issues is significantly pronounced among smallholder farmers. Women and men farmers suffer from loss of livelihoods, financial assets, agricultural yield and increasing debt (Chandra et al., 2017). Due to uncertainties in productivity and sustainability of smallholder farming, communities dependent on this economic practice are constantly threatened by forced migration, loss and damage, resource poverty and food insecurity, among others.

Since women usually tend to farm in smaller plots, work shorter hours or limit farming to cash crops, they are more exposed to these threats than men (Chandra et al., 2017). Women are thus more disadvantaged than men, owing to changing farming patterns and coping strategies, and resulting in differentiated effects of climate and conflict vulnerability and increased gender inequality (Chandra et al., 2017).

TABLE 4. APPLYING A GENDER LENS TO CASE STUDY 4 - DISPLACEMENT/ MIGRATION DUE TO CONFLICT AND VIOLENCE

GENDER DIMENSIONS	CASE STUDY EXAMPLE	LESSONS LEARNT (LT) OR BEST PRACTICE (BP)	SUGGESTED TOOLS OR RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ANALYSIS/ ASSESSMENT/ IMPLEMENTATION/ MONITORING
<p>In conflict-prone agrarian communities, vulnerability due to climate and conflict issues is significantly pronounced among smallholder farmers. Women and men farmers suffer from loss of livelihoods, financial assets, agricultural yield and increasing debt (Chandra et al., 2017).</p> <p>Due to uncertainties in productivity and sustainability, communities dependent on smallholder farming are constantly threatened by forced migration, loss and damage, resource poverty and food insecurity, among others.</p> <p>Since women usually tend to farm in smaller plots, work shorter hours or limit farming to cash crops, they are more exposed to these threats than men (Chandra et al., 2017).</p> <p>Women are thus more disadvantaged than men, owing to changing farming patterns and coping strategies, and resulting in differentiated effects of climate and conflict vulnerability and increased gender inequality (Chandra et al., 2017).</p>	<p>In 2008, farmers from Bagobilas village in Aleosan, North Cotabato were attacked by armed men while they were out in the field tilling their lands. The community saw armed men shooting both men and women, burning their homes and seizing all of their farming implements, harvests and even farm animals, leaving them behind with nothing (WFP, 2011).</p> <p>After the incident, the community of Bagobilas were left with no choice but to move into the nearby province of Maguindanao where they settled in camps set up by the government for internally displaced persons (IDPs). Afraid to return home due to conflict, they settled in these camps for two years relying on the World Food Program (WFP) and other agencies and NGOs operating in the area for their food assistance and basic social services.</p>	<p>Women and girls are increasingly vulnerable to gender-based violence most especially during conflict which often leads to displacement. This is rooted from the pre-existing gender inequality, breakdown of community networks and structures, and lack of protection mechanisms for women. Struggles faced during displacement, specifically overcrowding, lack of privacy, limited access to food, clean water supply, and hygiene facilities in evacuation or temporary shelters, increase the risk of women, girls, and other groups to gender-based violence, sexual exploitation, and abuse (UNOCHA, n.d.).</p>	<p>Develop and implement policies prioritizing protection mechanisms for displaced women and girls in evacuation centres and/or temporary shelters, particularly ensuring their safety from gender-based violence, abuse, and sexual exploitation.</p> <p>The RHRC Consortium (2004) suggested several tools in hopes of resolving or at least alleviating issues and situations related to gender-based violence (GBV). The first tool that the government could adapt is the Situation Analysis Guidelines, which will enable the government to collect and analyse complex data, specifically in organizing broad categories and information on the target community to pave way for a systematic and multisectoral investigation of GBV issues and programming in a particular community. Further, Focus Group Discussions (FGD) is also considered a valuable tool in a GBV-related study as it enables moderating institutions to obtain in-depth information and narratives of its participants, it also stimulates discourse on GBV with the participants which are considered valuable components of participatory planning and programming (RHRC Consortium, 2004).</p>

Table continued on the next page >

Table 4. Applying A Gender Lens To Case Study 4 - Displacement/Migration Due To Conflict And Violence (*Cont.*)

GENDER DIMENSIONS	CASE STUDY EXAMPLE	LESSONS LEARNT (LT) OR BEST PRACTICE (BP)	SUGGESTED TOOLS OR RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ANALYSIS/ ASSESSMENT/ IMPLEMENTATION/ MONITORING
<p>There is a gap in providing gender-disaggregated data from local community surveys and other data gathering strategies.</p> <p>Displacement monitoring organizations conducting surveys often focus on the general demographics. This limits the study on women and the impacts of conflict and displacement have on them and ignores vulnerabilities of other genders.</p>	<p>The conflict between government forces and non-state armed groups in Marawi City, which started in May 2017, forced over 350,000 people to flee to neighbouring municipalities to seek shelter with host communities and evacuation centres. The armed confrontation lasted more than six months and left much of the urban and cultural centre in ruins, with buildings either burned to the ground or damaged in firefights.</p> <p>Among the most vulnerable were women and girls. However, organizations/ institutions conducting displacement monitoring over the months/years are only focused on general data.</p>	<p>A rapid assessment of gender-based violence (GBV) and child protection concerns undertaken in October 2017 revealed that girls and young women are facing increased risk to GBV, including sexual abuse, exploitation, and early/ forced marriage.</p> <p>Forty-five per cent (45%) of conflict-affected sites assessed reported that girls were the most affected by sexual violence. The complex interplay of religious, cultural, political and economic factors perpetuates the culture of silence around the issue of GBV. Further, the assessment showed that survivors are discouraged from speaking out and accessing support because they are stigmatized and rejected by their families and communities. Marrying off the survivor to the perpetrator is a usual form of 'amicable settlement' purportedly to avoid rido or clan feuds (UNOCHA, n.d.).</p>	<p>Conduct gender inclusive reports and monitoring for displaced communities to open spaces for gender-based studies and approaches to address issues or alleviate situations of certain groups vulnerable to gender-based violence, exploitation, and abuse. This is to track their condition and provide aid for their necessities after being displaced by conflict and violence.</p> <p>In monitoring Filipino communities who are prone to or have experienced GBV, the "Output and Effect Indicators" activity is a tool recommended by the RHRC Consortium (2004) in monitoring GBV programs. It follows a multisectoral framework which suggests that programs should identify indicators for response, coordination and prevention.</p>

PLANNED RELOCATION

CASE STUDY 5: PLANNED RELOCATION DUE TO CLIMATE IMPACTS

Planned relocation due to risks of climate-induced vulnerability is a retreat response usually led by governments to protect and ensure the safety and well-being of communities in need (UN, 2020; CARE, 2020). Given compounding and cascading climatic hazards, like constant flooding

due to stronger typhoons, storm surges and land inundation due to sea level rise, planned relocation is seen to become more prevalent in the future (CARE, 2020; GIZ, 2020a). Rapid-onset climate events, intertwined with slow onset ones, have led local governments across the country to conduct a wide range of programs focused on coastal engineering, urban planning and mobility (relocation) for disaster-threatened populations (IOM, 2021a; GIZ, 2020a; Jamero et al., 2019).

TABLE 5. APPLYING A GENDER LENS TO CASE STUDY 5 – PLANNED RELOCATION DUE TO CLIMATE IMPACTS

GENDER DIMENSIONS	CASE STUDY EXAMPLE	LESSONS LEARNT (LT) OR BEST PRACTICE (BP)	SUGGESTED TOOLS OR RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ANALYSIS/ ASSESSMENT/ IMPLEMENTATION/ MONITORING
<p>Government-led planned relocation that does not take into consideration affected communities' knowledge, perception and preferences of adaptation strategies may fail at respecting, protecting and fulfilling the rights of people who are on the move, have already moved, do not want to move and/or unable to move. This contributes to existing gender gaps and gender inequalities (CARE, 2020).</p>	<p>In many relocation projects, there are several factors that are not considered, such as livelihood, access to basic services, and risks that expose women and children to more vulnerabilities, like being raped or becoming beggars (IOM, 2021a).</p>	<p>Chances of a successful relocation also rest on adaptation strategies that respect, protect and fulfil people's rights, wherein relocation must not also be maladaptive to leading the lives people want, especially those whose vulnerabilities are exacerbated by climatic hazards like extreme weather events (CARE, 2020).</p>	<p>Planned relocation programs must consider affected communities as participants in the processes of relocation. Georgetown University, UNHCR and IOM (2017) developed a toolbox that suggests strategies for countries and relevant actors who are planning to relocate communities to protect them from extreme weather events. Policymakers and practitioners can incorporate five cross-cutting, interconnected elements, which are relevant to all planned relocations: legal framework; needs and impacts; information, consultation and participation; land; monitoring, evaluation and accountability. These elements may prove useful during key stages of the planned relocation process: deciding to relocate a group or community; pre-moving planning; and implementing the relocation plan (pending, during and after relocation). Following these may give opportunities towards bridging gender gaps and addressing gender inequalities on the ground.</p>
<p>The lack of gender-disaggregated data from community surveys, focus group discussions and other data-gathering strategies may hinder a successful planned relocation based on in-situ community-based adaptation strategies, where opportunities for women to contribute to collective decision-making may be limited or absent.</p>	<p>Women usually tend to be regarded as secondary decision makers when it comes to relocation decisions (CARE, 2020).</p>	<p>Participatory and well-planned government-led adaptation programs have the opportunity to build stronger in-situ ecosystem- and community-based adaptation strategies that may capacitate communities to transition to planned relocation in the long run (Jamero et al., 2019).</p>	<p>Collect gender-disaggregated data and provide gender impact analysis towards assessing the importance of relocation.</p> <p>Conduct community participatory workshops and other activities towards mapping gendered gaps and opportunities when it comes to collective decision-making in in-situ community-based strategies and relocation prospects.</p>

However, challenges to planned relocation, such as reconciling the different needs and interests of vulnerable communities arising from their origin and destination sites, may undermine planned relocation's potential effectiveness, advantages and benefits. These challenges may also open up questions of state capacity in providing populations in need with climate adaptation strategies based on their contexts and constraints (CARE, 2020; IOM, 2021a).

People's decision to relocate is based on different factors, such as the stability of their livelihoods, access to improved services, like health, education and housing, and attachment to place and a sense of pride linked with belonging to a community, among others (Jamero et al., 2017; Barnett and O'Neill, 2012; Black et al., 2011b; Adger et al., 2013). Rushed and poorly designed relocation projects might compromise communities' needs and interests, making people hesitant to resettle in new sites (Jamero et al., 2019; GIZ, 2020a).

Understanding communities' needs and considering them as participatory agents can lead to better relocation strategies that effectively protect people from permanent loss of land and livelihoods and even improve their livelihood outcomes (CARE, 2020). In the low-lying islands of Tubigon, Bohol, this may mean a better grasp of why communities generally prefer in-situ adaptation than relocation to the mainland. Additionally, this may lead to approaching climate vulnerability with a well-informed approach to adaptation that includes coastal engineering, ecosystem-based adaptation and community-based adaptation. Ecosystem-based adaptation may include coral reef protection and mangrove plantation to reduce flooding in coastal areas, while community-based adaptation may include

hard (e.g. stilted houses and raised floors) and soft measures (e.g. elevating belongings and vigilance during disasters) (Jamero et al., 2019).

Participatory and well-planned government-led adaptation programs have the opportunity to build stronger in-situ ecosystem- and community-based adaptation strategies that may capacitate communities to transition to planned relocation in the long run (Jamero et al., 2019). Chances of a successful relocation also rest on adaptation strategies that respect, protect and fulfil people's rights, wherein relocation must not be maladaptive to the lives people want, especially those whose vulnerabilities are exacerbated by climatic hazards like extreme weather events (CARE, 2020).

When it comes to bridging gender gaps and addressing gender inequalities, taking advantage of in-situ strategies employed on the ground can be an opportunity for the government to develop gender-differentiated approaches to adaptation. Such approaches may include gathering gender-disaggregated data (versus only sex-disaggregated data) and conducting gender impact analyses that can be used to ensure women's participation in relocation decisions, as well as raising awareness on issues such as systemic discrimination, gender-based violence and sexual reproductive health and rights, among others, relevant to advancing the quality of their life and their dignity (CARE, 2020; UNHCR, 2020).

IMMOBILITY

CASE STUDY 6: IM/MOBILITY AND “TRAPPED” POPULATIONS

Mobility is not an option for everyone. Some households that are wealthier and better-connected with their social networks are more able and likely to migrate than others

(Kaczan and Orgill-Meyer, 2020). On the other hand, households with less financial and social ability are less or unable, or even unwilling, to move, rendering them as trapped populations and making immobility a significant issue to understand and respond to (Cundill et al., 2021; Kothari, 2003; Ayeb-Karlsson, 2020).

TABLE 6. APPLYING A GENDER LENS TO CASE STUDY 6 - IM/MOBILITY AND “TRAPPED” POPULATIONS

GENDER DIMENSIONS	CASE STUDY EXAMPLE	LESSONS LEARNT (LT) OR BEST PRACTICE (BP)	SUGGESTED TOOLS OR RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ANALYSIS/ ASSESSMENT/ IMPLEMENTATION/ MONITORING
<p>Climate change increasingly impacts ecosystem-dependent livelihood sector, especially among farmers and fisherfolk (IOM, 2021a).</p> <p>In the Philippines, fishing is a dominant industry, given the geography of the country. Women are known to participate in many small-scale fisheries throughout the archipelago (Siar, 2003).</p>	<p>In Tubigon, Bohol, where there have been more women fishers in the past years (Santos, Pador and De la Torre, 2003), island residents are hesitant to permanently relocate to the mainland, away from their homes and their main source of livelihood (Jamero et al., 2017). This hesitance makes them shy away from participating in existing government-led relocation activities, and instead engage in in-situ community-based strategies that adapt to sea level rise and other extreme weather events (Jamero et al., 2017 and 2019).</p>	<p>Women in trapped and displaced communities face gender-disaggregated vulnerabilities brought by various factors, such as socio-cultural norms, restricted livelihood options, limited access to formalized safety nets as well as technologies and information, the adaptive capacities of displaced women usually tend to be limited (UNHCR, 2020).</p> <p>Further, women in trapped and displaced situations may also face problems when accessing durable solutions to migration in destination areas, especially if these solutions are hindered by issues of housing, land and property rights. Lack of property ownership, which leads to problems in relocations, evictions and displacements (UN, 2020), may be especially difficult for women who lack the resources and freedom to move and who may become trapped in high-risk areas to environmental disasters (UNHCR, 2020).</p>	<p>A gender analysis or gender-sensitive assessment should be conducted to determine whether existing livelihood skills possessed by relocated groups of people can be supported and maintained in a new location.</p> <p>Progress monitoring could also be conducted to further track and assess the progress of relocated communities in their livelihood activities.</p> <p>The “gravity model”, a paradigm for understanding gross migration flows between regions, was used in a climate change and migration study conducted in 2000 and 2010, which revealed that the association between adverse climate conditions and migration is positive only for wealthy migrant-sending districts in Zambia while poor districts are characterized by climate-related immobility (Nawrotzki and DeWaard, 2018). This model can be adapted in the context of immobility or trapped migration in the Philippines to better gauge the situation of affected communities (Poot et al., 2016).</p>

Table continued on the next page >

Table 6. Applying A Gender Lens To Case Study 6 - Im/Mobility And “Trapped” Populations (Cont.)

GENDER DIMENSIONS	CASE STUDY EXAMPLE	LESSONS LEARNT (LT) OR BEST PRACTICE (BP)	SUGGESTED TOOLS OR RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ANALYSIS/ ASSESSMENT/ IMPLEMENTATION/ MONITORING
There is a lack of gender-focused research on community livelihood affected by climate-induced mobility.	In Southeast Asia and small Pacific Island countries, the issue of gender equity has long been prevailing (Johannes 1981; Chapman 1987; Takeda 2001), where the role of women in artisanal fisheries is often undervalued (Dye, 1983; Kronen, 2002) or overlooked (Matthews, 1993).	Ignoring the role of women in small-scale fisheries largely underestimates fishing effort and production (Kleiber et al., 2014) and can lead to poor governance of nearshore resources that are vital to food and nutrient security of marginalized coastal communities. Although several works describe women’s participation in subsistence fisheries in the Philippines (Savina and White 1986; McManus 1989; Cabanban, Tajonera and Palomares, 2014), quantification of their contribution to fishing effort, production, and supplemental family income is rarely carried out (Kleiber et al., 2014; De Guzman et al., 2016).	Encourage gender-disaggregated data collection to provide opportunities for gender-based studies and analysis to take place. Results of such studies will lead to promoting or imposing the inclusion of women, people living with disabilities and other vulnerable groups in decision-making processes on climate change adaptation, disaster preparedness, disaster response and relocation. Examine government processes for decision making and communication process for information dissemination to identify entry points for improving resilience. Gendered analysis of livelihood impacts of disasters and the formulation and implementation of appropriate response actions.

People’s ability to move is influenced by their social, economic and political capital, which may also be limited by state policies that prevent them from moving (Black et al., 2011b; Tebboth, Conway and Adger, 2019). There are some communities which also consider climate change as just one of the many problems they face relating to disaster and development (Kelman, 2014). In Tubigon, Bohol, island residents are hesitant to permanently relocate to the mainland, away from their homes and their main source of livelihood, which is fishing (Jamero et al., 2017). This hesitance makes them shy away from participating in existing government-led relocation activities, and instead

engage in in-situ community-based strategies that adapt to sea level rise and other extreme weather events (Jamero et al., 2017 and 2019).

Choosing not to move, however, may bring more vulnerabilities to communities, especially if their in-situ strategies remain maladaptive in the long run. In the short-term, communities may suffer from the disruption of their food and water supplies through tidal flooding, salt-water intrusion and drought. Incidence of environmental stresses like these may limit people’s capacities in providing support to their communities, possibly ending up in trapped and/or displaced situations (Jamero et al., 2019; Keener, 2013).

In situations where trapped populations due to immobility are displaced or forced to move in the face of environmental disasters, they may face further disadvantages in destination areas. Although destination areas may offer better access to opportunities for arriving populations in terms of social services, education, employment and business, more often than not, vulnerable households are exposed to further marginalization. When moving to cities, poor populations usually reside in informal and peripheral settlements, which are still exposed to climatic hazards (GIZ, 2020a).

Communities that are trapped due to immobility and displaced due to disasters also face challenges to their mobility flow and intention of returning to their homes. These challenges include the lack of livelihood/income-generating activities, food assistance, information on current disaster risk situations and rehabilitation support, among others (IOM, 2021b).

Women in trapped and displaced communities also face gender-disaggregated vulnerabilities. Due to various factors, such as socio-cultural norms, restricted livelihood options, limited access to formalized safety nets as well as technologies and information, the adaptive capacities of displaced women usually tend to be limited (UNHCR, 2020). Women in trapped and displaced situations may also face problems when accessing durable solutions to migration in destination areas, especially if these solutions are hindered by issues of housing, land and property rights. Lack of property ownership, which leads to problems in relocations, evictions and displacements (UN, 2020), may be especially difficult for women who lack the resources and freedom to move and who may become trapped in high-risk areas to environmental disasters (UNHCR, 2020). §

© Lenée Uy | GIZ



3

Key Lessons and Concluding Remarks

Climate change shapes mobility. Its impacts on the environment have consequentially affected the flow of movement among people in response to multiple pressures, specifically environmental and economic, rooted from it (McMichael, 2020). Hence, it is expected that climate change-induced mobility will increase from the tens of millions to 250 million people around the world as it escalates the impetus for migration, with people seeking safer environments with sustainable and reliable livelihood and household security (Boano, Zetter and Morris, 2008; Brown, 2007; Christian Aid, 2007).

In understanding mobility, there are pathways that are considered responses to climate change-related influences and these are delineated in three categories: displacement, migration and planned relocation (UNESCAP, 2017). First, displacement refers to mobility primarily driven by an occurrence of a disastrous event where people are forced to leave their habitual residences in pursuit of safer homes where it can happen within or across national borders. On the other hand, migration is a movement that could also happen within and outside national borders that is associated with extensive risk of which movements are to some degree, voluntary because the decision to move is complex and often influenced by multiple drivers, including but not limited to climate risk. Lastly, planned relocation is a government-instigated and supervised movement anchored towards reducing weather and climate risks that are usually extensive. Ideally, a government-administered planned relocation should be ethical and transparent which comes with informed consent and resettlement (McAdam and Ferris, 2015).

However human mobility is not only limited to the categories presented above. In some cases, responses to climate change may involve two or more categories, specifically ones who may have a consequential effect to another. Thus, the experience of climate-induced migration is multidimensional and may sometimes be nonlinear. Nevertheless, based on the case studies discussed in this Compendium, relevant actors may intervene on the following issues to provide support to migrants affected by climate- and conflict-induced disasters:



© Arjay Dineros | GIZ

ON SEASONAL MIGRATION

Communities consider migration as a strategy to access better opportunities in livelihood, housing and/or education. The above case study discussions revealed that the lack of education and skills (especially in agriculture) explains the predominance of women in rural-urban migrant populations. Hence, in policy development, the government must not only rely on numerical data since subjective evidence is vital in gender-inclusive policies. Further, “reversed” gender roles present opportunities for the government to develop gender-mainstreamed policies and interventions that would provide better opportunities and capacities among women and men, go beyond gender gaps and limits and engage in a climate-induced economic adaptation for better quality of life.

ON TEMPORARY MIGRATION

People of all genders tend to seek places that could offer a safer environment for their households. For the predominance of women in rural-urban migrant populations, because of the lack of education and skills, they are motivated to move to cities in hopes of better employment or livelihood opportunities. However, economic, social, and political challenges that migrants face sometimes intertwine with environmental stresses, affecting their abilities to adapt to and even transcend beyond daily household and community problems. Policies and governance interventions are at best useful when they provide structural opportunities for migrants in need and capacitate them to increase and strengthen their adaptation strategies.

ON PERMANENT INTERNAL MIGRATION

Internal migration flows in the Philippines are mainly interprovincial, largely urban to rural and rural to rural, and commonly carried out by women and youth. The case study discussions noted that Filipinos' adaptive strategies to manage vulnerabilities include community organization, with support from the Filipino diaspora and foreign aid. For instance, in year 2005-2010, agricultural workers resorted to internal migration in which women experienced gendered migration implications, particularly bearing domestic responsibilities on top of being farmers, considering that farming is a male-dominant livelihood. Thus, understanding internal migration flows may provide significant knowledge on migration corridors and relationships between people, places, and events relevant to research, policy and governance interventions on other issues of human mobility. This may also be relevant in providing a better picture on international migration, given a lack in data, through establishing its linkages to internal migration.

ON DISPLACEMENT DUE TO EXTREME WEATHER EVENTS

In recent years, the Philippines continues to experience intensified sudden-onset weather-related events, including typhoons and flooding in densely populated areas. In these areas, women are among the most vulnerable. The existence of discrimination even before natural calamities had undermined women's economic and social status, limiting them from accessing information to protect themselves from harm such as gender-based violence. As such, extreme weather events have proved challenging to the adaptive capacities of different communities experiencing displacement and needing varying support. Interventions can tackle displacement and migrants' adaptive capacities along the lines of providing basic services, infrastructure, livelihood opportunities, as well as social cohesion in and with destination areas.

© Lenée Uy | GIZ



ON DISPLACEMENT DUE TO CONFLICT AND VIOLENCE

Conflict, particularly in parts of Mindanao, force people to flee their homes and end up displaced. In cases like this, women and girls are highly vulnerable to gender-based violence (GBV) rooted from pre-existing gender inequality and lack of protection mechanisms for women. Additionally, the impacts of conflict and displacement are also exacerbated by multiple environmental stresses. With the co-occurrence of climate- and conflict-induced events, the quality of livelihood and level of security among vulnerable communities are constantly at stake, which eventually force people to move. Apart from these, the nexus of climate change and conflict is also understudied, and given its increasing impact, particularly in the Philippines, there are ample ways for research, policy and governance interventions to develop support based on the lived experiences of communities caught in the midst of climate- and conflict-induced disasters.

ON PLANNED RELOCATION DUE TO CLIMATE IMPACTS

It is considered a retreat response taken by the government to protect and ensure communities' safety and well-being. However, planned relocation's potential effectiveness, advantages and benefits are sometimes hindered by the difficulty to meet communities' different needs and interests. People's decision to relocate is based on different factors, such as opportunities in livelihood, education, housing and health services, sometimes forcing them to stay in in-situ adaptation strategies that may be maladaptive over time. In addition, women usually tend to be regarded as secondary decision makers when it

comes to relocation decisions. It is thus important to note that successful planned relocation rests on the adaptation of strategies that protect, respect and fulfil people's rights. Further, it must therefore prevent huge impacts of environmental hazards without compromising too much of communities' needs and interests in the process of moving.

ON IMMOBILITY AMONG "TRAPPED" POPULATIONS

People's ability to move is influenced by their social, economic and political capital operating under current state policies that enable or prevent them to move. In situations where trapped populations due to immobility are displaced or forced to move when faced by environmental disasters, they may face further disadvantages in their destination areas. Especially among women, many who are trapped in displaced situations face gender-disaggregated vulnerabilities brought by socio-cultural, restrictive livelihood, access to technology and adaptive strategy issues. Hence, relevant actors may intervene by focusing on populations' capacities, chances and options of staying or moving and their effects thereafter.

In all of these issues, including their accompanying interventions, this Compendium underscores the importance of understanding gender issues within human mobility in the context of climate change in the Philippines. Given the overall objectives of this Compendium, the case studies provided an overview of gender issues within, as well as identified and described gender-responsive approaches to, human mobility in the context of climate change. Issues of climate-induced mobility are inherently gendered and impacts of disasters affect women and men differently. The case studies showed that women and men



experience varying household and community roles and undergo a variety of vulnerabilities that sometimes perpetuate existing gender gaps and inequalities. Gender-based violence is present and affects women most. During processes of migration and displacement, women are more likely to experience mental and physical abuse and systemic discrimination, as well as less likely to access spaces for participation and opportunities to capacitate their mobility adaptation strategies.

Given differentiated needs between women and men experiencing climate-induced migration, displacement and relocation, this Compendium presents opportunities for researchers, policymakers and grassroots practitioners to explore the values of gender-mainstreamed approaches to interventions on issues of human mobility in the context of climate change. By providing relevant lessons, best practices, tools, recommendations and resources to actors who will benefit from this Compendium, the values of gender-mainstreamed approaches will cultivate gender-sensitivity in tackling the lack of support to traditionally understood vulnerable sectors of society, such as women, as well as in enhancing the sustainable management of human mobility in the context of climate change. §



Bibliography

ADB. (2012). Addressing Climate Change and Migration in Asia and the Pacific. Mandaluyong City, Philippines: Asian Development Bank.

ADB, et al. (2008). Paradox and Promise in the Philippines: A Joint Country Gender Assessment. <https://www.adb.org/sites/default/files/institutional-document/32239/cga-phi-2008.pdf>

Adger, N., et al. (2009). Are there social limits to adaptation to climate change? *Climatic Change*, 93, 335–354.

Agence France-Presse. (2016, December 14). Oxfam: Expect 2016 drought in Philippines amid 'super' El Niño. ABS-CBN News. <https://news.abs-cbn.com/focus/12/14/15/oxfam-expect-2016-drought-in-philippines-amid-super-el-nio>

Asis, M.M. (2011). Minding the gaps: Migration, development and governance in the Philippines. Quezon City: Scalabrini Migration Center.

Ayeb-Karlsson, S. (2020). When the disaster strikes: Gendered (im)mobility in Bangladesh. *Climate Risk Management*, 29. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.crm.2020.100237>

Barnett, J., & O'Neill, S. (2012). Islands, resettlement and adaptation. *Nature Climate Change*, 2, 8–10.

Bettini, G., Nash, S.L., & Gioli, G. (2017). One step forward, two steps back? The fading contours of (in)justice in competing discourses on climate migration. *The Geographical Journal*, 183(4), 348–358. <https://doi.org/10.1111/geoj.12192>

Black, R., et al. (2011a). The effect of environmental change on human migration. *Global Environmental Change* 21S S3–S11.

Black, R., et al. (2011b). Climate change: migration as adaptation. *Nature*, 478(7370), 447–449.

Boano, C. Zetter, R., & Morris, T. (2008). *Environmentally Displaced People: Understanding the Linkages between Environmental Change, Livelihoods and Forced Migration*. Forced Migration Policy Briefing 1. Oxford, UK: Refugee Studies Centre, University of Oxford.

Board, J. (2020, November 14). 21 typhoons have hit the Philippines this year with increased intensity, foreshadowing a 'really scary' future. Channel News Asia. <https://www.channelnewsasia.com/news/sustainability/philippines-typhoon-climate-change-haiyan-goni-vamco-13525650>

Boas, I., et al. (2019). FOCUS | comment |. *Nature Climate Change*, 9, 901–903. <https://orbi.uliege.be/bitstream/2268/243102/1/s41558-019-0633-3%281%29.pdf>

Bordey, F., et al. (2014). Linking climate change, rice yield and migration. Los Baños: World Fish – Economy and Environment Program for Southeast Asia.

Brown, O. (2007). *Climate Change and Forced Migration: Observations, Projections and Implications*. Human Development Report Office Occasional Paper. Geneva: United Nations Development Programme.

Cabanban, A.S., Tajonera, I.J., & Palomares, M.L.D. (2014). A short history of gleaning in Negros and Panay Islands, Visayas, Philippines. In M.L.D. Palomares, & D. Pauly (Eds.), *Philippine*

- Marine Fisheries Catches: A Bottom-up Reconstruction, 1950 to 2010 (p. 105–117). Fisheries Centre Research Report, 22(1). Vancouver, Canada: Fisheries Centre, University of British Columbia.
- CARE. (2020, July). Evicted by climate change: Confronting the gendered impacts of climate-induced displacement.
- CDRC. (2016, April 18). Farming communities affected by El Niño (drought): situation report. http://www.cdrc-phil.com/wp-content/uploads/2016/05/SitRep_Drought_041816.pdf
- Chandra, A., et al. (2017). Gendered vulnerabilities of smallholder farmers to climate change in conflict-prone areas: A case study from Mindanao, Philippines. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 50, 45-59.
- Chandran, R. (2018, March 30). As climate change worsens, more Filipino women migrate. *The Christian Science Monitor*. <https://www.csmonitor.com/World/AsiaPacific/2018/0330/As-climate-change-worsens-more-Filipino-women-migrate>
- Chapman, M.D. (1987). Women's fishing in Oceania. *Human Ecology*, 15(3), 267–288.
- Christian Aid. (2007). *Human Tide: The Real Migration Crisis*. London: Christian Aid.
- Cruz, R.V.O., et al. (2017). 2017 Philippine climate change assessment: Impacts, vulnerabilities and adaptation. Pasig City: The Oscar M. Lopez Center for Climate Change Adaptation and Disaster Risk Management Foundation, Inc. and Climate Change Commission.
- Cundill, G., et al. (2021). Toward a climate mobilities research agenda: Intersectionality, immobility, and policy responses. *Global Environmental Change*, 69(102315), 1-7.
- De Guzman, et al. (2016). Economics of reef gleaning in the Philippines: Impact on the coastal environment, household economy and nutrition. EEPSEA 2016-RRG1. WorldFish (ICLARM) –Economy and Environment Program for Southeast Asia.
- Dye, T. (1983). Fish and fishing on Niutoputapu. *Oceania*, 53(3), 242–271.
- Engcong, G., et al. (2019). On the Gender Pay Gap in the Philippines and the Occupational Placement and Educational Attainment Levels of Men and Women in the Labor Force. Paper presented at the 14th National Convention on Statistics. Manila, 1-3 October 2019.
- FAO, IFAD, & WFP. (2020). Gender transformative approaches for food security, improved nutrition and sustainable agriculture – A compendium of fifteen good practices. Rome, Italy: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. <https://www.fao.org/documents/card/en/c/cb1331en/>
- Georgetown University, UNHCR, & IOM. (2017). *A Toolbox: Planning Relocations to Protect People from Disasters and Environmental Change*.
- Germanwatch. (2018). *Global climate risk index 2018*. Bonn.
- GLZ. (2019). *Human Mobility, Climate Change and Gender Compendium of best practices, lessons learnt and tools for Pacific practitioners*. <https://www.adaptationcommunity.net/wp-content/uploads/2020/03/HMCCC-Gender-Compendium-2019.pdf>
- GLZ. (2020a). *Internal Migration in the Philippines: Adaptation to Climate change (IMPACT)*.

Bibliography

- GIZ. (2020b). A City in Motion: Migration, Climate Change, and Governance in Baguio City.
- GIZ. (2020c). Home Lands Island and Archipelagic States' Policymaking for Human Mobility in the Context of Climate Change.
- GIZ. (2021). Balik Probinsiya: A Phenomenological Case Study of Pandemic-related Reverse Migration from Metro Manila to Leyte Province, Philippines.
- Gultiano, S., & Xenos, P. (2004). Age structure and urban migration of youth in the Philippines. In *Age-Structural Transitions: Challenges for Development*. Ed. I. Pool, L. Wong and E. Vilquin. Committee for International Cooperation in National Research in Demography.
- Huguet, J. W., ed. (2008). Special Issue: International Migration Data and Sources in Asia. *Asia and Pacific Migration Journal*, 17, 3–4.
- IDMC. (2021). Global Report on Internal Displacement 2021.
- IOM. (2013). Country Migration Report: The Philippines 2013. Makati City, Philippines.
- IOM. (2021a). Framing the Human Narrative of Migration in the Context of Climate Change: A Preliminary Review of Existing Evidence in the Philippines. <http://philippines.iom.int/>
- IOM. (2021b). Displacement tracking due to disasters during Covid-19 (16 June 2021 presentation).
- ISDR. (2005). Hyogo Framework for Action 2005-2015: Building the Resilience of Nations and Communities to Disasters. <https://www.unisdr.org/2005/wcdr/intergover/official-doc/L-docs/Hyogo-framework-for-action-english.pdf>
- Jamero, M.L., et al. (2017). Small-island communities in the Philippines prefer local measures to relocation in response to sea-level rise. *Nature Climate Change*, 7(8).
- Jamero, M.L., et al. (2019). In-situ adaptation against climate change can enable relocation of impoverished small islands. *Marine Policy* 108(103614), 1-8.
- Johannes, R.E. (1981). Words of the Lagoon: Fishing and Marine Lore in the Palau District of Micronesia. University of California Press.
- Kaczan, D.J., & Orgill-Meyer, J. (2020). The impact of climate change on migration: a synthesis of recent empirical insights. *Climate Change*, 158(3), 281–300. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10584-019-02560-0>
- Keener, V. (2013). Climate Change and Pacific Islands: Indicators and Impacts: Report for the 2012 Pacific Islands Regional Climate Assessment. Island Press.
- Kelman, I. (2014). No change from climate change: vulnerability and small island developing states, *The Geographical Journal*, 180(2), 120–129. <https://doi.org/10.1111/geoj.12019>
- Kleiber, D., Harris, L.M., & Vincent, A.C.J. (2014). Improving fisheries estimates by including women's catch in the Central Philippines. *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences*, 71, 1–9.
- Kothari, U. (2003). Staying put and staying poor? *Journal of Internal Development*, 15(5). <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1002/jid.1022>
- Kronen, M. (2002). Women's fishing in Tonga: Case studies from Ha'apai and Vava'u islands. Socioeconomic status of fisherwomen. *SPC Women in Fisheries Information Bulletin*, 11, 17–22

- Lai, B., & Greca, A. (2020). Understanding the Impacts of Natural Disasters on Children. Society for Research in Child Development. <https://www.srcd.org/research/understanding-impacts-natural-disasters-children>
- Matthews, E. (1993). Women and fishing in traditional Pacific island cultures. In Workshop on People, Society and Pacific Islands Fisheries Development and Management, Selected Papers (pp. 29-34). Inshore Fisheries Resources Project Technical Document No. 5. Noumea, New Caledonia: South Pacific Commission.
- McAdam, J., & Ferris, E. (2015). Planned Relocations in the Context of Climate Change: Unpacking the Legal and Conceptual Issues. *Cambridge Journal of International and Comparative Law*, 4(1), 137-166. <https://doi.org/10.7574/cjicl.04.01.137>
- McLeman, R. (2019). International migration and climate adaptation in an era of hardening borders. *Nature Climate Change*, 9(12), 911-918. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41558-019-0634-2>
- McManus, L.T. (1989). The gleaners of northwest Lingayen Gulf, Philippines. *Naga, The ICLARM Quarterly*, 12(2), 3. <https://hdl.handle.net/20.500.12348/3306>
- McMichael, C. (2020). Human mobility, climate change, and health: unpacking the connections. *The Lancet Planetary Health*, 4(6), E217-E218. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2542-5196\(20\)30125-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2542-5196(20)30125-X)
- Meyers, T. (2019, December 23). Pregnant Women are Particularly Vulnerable to Disasters. Direct Relief. <https://www.directrelief.org/2019/12/pregnant-women-are-particularly-vulnerable-to-disasters/>
- Nawrotzki, R., & DeWaard, J. (2018). Putting trapped populations into place: Climate change and inter-district migration flows in Zambia. *Regional Environmental Change*, 18(2), 533-546. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10113-017-1224-3>
- OSCE. (2009). Guide on Gender-Sensitive Labour Migration Policies. <https://www.osce.org/secretariat/37228>
- Oxfam. (2017). A climate of difficult choices. https://cng-cdn.oxfam.org/philippines.oxfam.org/s3fs-public/file_attachments/Oxfam%20Philippines%20Climate%20Finance_September%202017_final.pdf
- Paris, T.R., et al. (2009). Labour out migration on rice farming households and gender roles: synthesis of findings in Thailand, the Philippines and Vietnam. Paper presented at the FAO-IFAD-ILO Workshop on Gaps, trends and current research in gender dimensions of agricultural and rural employment: differentiated pathways out of poverty. Rome, 31 March - 2 April 2009.
- Poot, J., et al. (2016, October). The Gravity Model of Migration: The Successful Comeback of an Ageing Superstar in Regional Science. Discussion Paper 10329. Bonn, Germany: Forschungsinstitut zur Zukunft der Arbeit. <https://www.iza.org/publications/dp/10329/the-gravity-model-of-migration-the-successful-comeback-of-an-ageing-superstar-in-regional-science>
- PSA. (2017). PSA Board Resolution No. 8, Series of 2017: Approving and Adopting the Official Concepts and Definitions on Internal and International Migration for Statistical Purposes. Philippines Statistics Authority Board. <https://psa.gov.ph/sites/default/files/scan0126.pdf>

Bibliography

PSA, & UPPI. (2019). 2018 National Migration Survey. Quezon City.

Quick, D. (2013). Women, children and persons with disabilities most vulnerable to typhoon Haiyan. Women's Refugee Commission. <https://reliefweb.int/report/philippines/women-children-and-persons-disabilities-most-vulnerable-typhoon-haiyan>

Quisumbing, A., & McNiven, S. (2005). Migration and the Rural-Urban Continuum: Evidence from the Rural Philippines. FCND Discussion Paper 197.

Quisumbing, A., & McNiven, S. (2006). Migration and the Rural-Urban Continuum: Evidence from Bukidnon. *Philippine Journal of Development*, 33(1-2). <https://dirp4.pids.gov.ph/ris/pjd/pidspjd06migration.pdf>

Quisumbing, A., & McNiven, S. (2010). Moving Forward, Looking Back: The Impact of Migration and Remittances on Assets, Consumption, and Credit Constraints in the Rural Philippines. *The Journal of Development Studies*, 46(1), 91-113. <http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/00220380903197960>

Quisumbing, A., Meinzen-Dick, R.S., & Malapit, H. (2019). Gender equality: Women's empowerment for rural revitalization. In 2019 Global Food Policy Report. Washington, DC: International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI). https://doi.org/10.2499/9780896293502_05

RHRC Consortium. (2004). Gender-based Violence Tools Manual – For Assessment & Program Design, Monitoring & Evaluation in Conflict-Affected Settings. <https://reliefweb.int/report/world/gender-based-violence-tools-manual-assessment-program-design-monitoring-evaluation>

Santos, R., Pador, E., & De la Torre, M. (2003). Improving coastal livelihoods through sustainable aquaculture practices – the case of Tubigon, Bohol, Philippines. In *Improving coastal livelihoods through sustainable aquaculture practices* (pp. 193–257). Support to Regional Aquatic Resources Management (STREAM).

Savina, G.C., & White A.T. (1986). Reef fish yields and non-reef catch of Pamilacan Island, Bohol, Philippines. p. 497–500. In J. L. MacLean, L. B. Dizon, & L. V. Hosillos (Eds.), *The First Asian Fisheries Forum* (pp. 497–500). Manila: Asian Fisheries Society.

Siar, S.V. (2003). Knowledge, gender, and resources in smallscale fishing: The case of Honda Bay, Palawan, Philippines. *Envi. Management*, 31(5), 569-580.

Singaravelu, V. (2012). Psychological First Aid: Field Worker's Guide. <https://disaster-relief.org/pdf/psychological-first-aid.pdf>

Takeda, J. (2001). Fishing-gleaning activities on reef flats and/or reef margins in the coral ecosystem in Yap, Federated States of Micronesia (FSM). *Occasional papers* (34), 117-127. Kagoshima University Research Center for the Pacific Islands.

Tebboth, M., et al. (2018). Mobility is an inherent dynamic among vulnerable populations: An ASSAR cross-regional insight. Collaborative Adaptation Research Initiative in Africa and Asia: Cape Town. http://www.assar.uct.ac.za/sites/default/files/image_tool/images/138/Legacy_chapters/ASSARs%20work%20on%20mobility.pdf

UN. (1998). Recommendations on Statistics of International Migration Revision 1. https://unstats.un.org/unsd/publication/seriesm/seriesm_58rev1e.pdf

UN. (2020). Report of the Special Rapporteur on the human rights of internally displaced persons. Geneva: United Nations.

UN Habitat. (2003). The Challenges of Slums: Global Report on Human Settlements 2003. <https://www.un.org/ruleoflaw/files/Challenge%20of%20Slums.pdf>

UN News. (2020, November 6). Long-term displacement worries for families hit hard by 'super typhoon' Goni. <https://news.un.org/en/story/2020/11/1077062>

UNDP. (2009). Human development report 2009: overcoming barriers: human mobility and development. New York: United Nations Development Program. http://hdr.undp.org/sites/default/files/reports/269/hdr_2009_en_complete.pdf

UNESCAP. (2017). Migration and climate change in Asia and the Pacific. Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific Asia-Pacific Regional Preparatory Meeting for the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration. Bangkok, 6-8 November 2017. https://www.unescap.org/sites/default/files/GCMPREP_5E.PDF

UNESCO, et al. (2018). Overview of Internal Migration in Philippines.

UNHCR. (2020, July). Fact Sheet on Gender, Displacement and Climate Change.

UNOCHA. (n.d.). Gender Based Violence. <https://www.humanitarianresponse.info/en/operations/philippines/gender-based-violence>

What Works to Prevent Violence. (2015, November). Responding to Typhoon Haiyan: women and girls left behind. <https://globalwomensinstitute.gwu.edu/sites/g/files/zaxdzs1356/f/downloads/REPORT%20Responding%20to%20Typhoon%20Haiyan%20-%20women%20and%20girls%20left%20behind.pdf>

Weinreb, A., et al. (2020). Impact of Climate Variability on Internal Migration in the Philippines during 2005-2010. Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) GmbH.

WFP. (2011, September 12). Farmers Return To Their Fields After Years Of Displacement. <https://reliefweb.int/report/philippines/farmers-return-their-fields-after-years-displacement>

Wisner, B., et al. (2013). At Risk: Natural hazards, people's vulnerability and disasters. 2nd Ed. London and New York: Routledge.

§

