

The Policy Brief Series has been produced under the Pacific Climate Change Migration and Human Security (PCCM-HS) programme and is a product of joint collaboration between UN agencies, members of academia and civil society actors who have been active in the climate mobility space. This policy brief series will seek to contribute to the evidence-base on good practices in responding to climate change and disaster-related migration, displacement and planned relocation with particular focus on the role of the human security framework.

PUB2022/083/R | April 2022



Namdrik Islanders walk into the water. © IOM 2018/ Muse MOHAMMED.

Navigating Human Security and Climate Mobility in the Pacific Sea of Islands

SUMMARY

Climate change is undermining human security in the Pacific and will inevitably worsen based on the current global trajectory. The implications of climate change for human mobility have become a clear and widely cited example of the impacts of climate change on the security of Pacific communities. The Boe Declaration Action Plan, adopted by Pacific Island Forum leaders in 2019, recognizes the need to better anticipate, understand and contextualize the impact of climate change on security in the region, including its interactions with human security and conflict. Pervasive security threats, such as climate change, require commitment and responses at multiple scales. It is therefore important to examine the relationship between human security and climate-related mobility in the Pacific in the overall context of climate security. Human security provides a people-centred way to understand the relationship between climate change and conflict. This policy brief seeks to help practitioners and policymakers better understand the value of the human security approach in addressing climate mobility challenges in the Pacific. It provides guidance on how to integrate this approach into policy, including with other workstreams related to climate security. These are complex questions that policymakers, practitioners and academics have been considering for some time but clearly must be understood and contextualized in the Pacific to help address the everyday challenges being faced by communities across the region.

¹ This Policy Brief was prepared by Tim Westbury (IOM Consultant) with guidance from Sabira Coelho (IOM PCCM-HS Project Manager) and overall supervision of Solomon Kantha (Chief of Mission, IOM Fiji). We are grateful to the following reviewers: Shane Antonio (and colleagues from UN Human Rights), Prof. Richard Bedford (Uni. of Waikato), Sharon Bhagwan-Rolls (GPPAC), Dr Volker Boeger (Toda Institute), Dr. Francesca Marzatico (Uni of Otago), Prof. Jane McAdam (UNSW/Kaldor Centre), Nina Pronin (and colleagues from the UN Human Security Unit), Angelica Neville (ILO), Chris Richter (IOM), Margaretha Wewerinke (Leiden University) and to Sargam Goundar (IOM) and Ebony Hogg (IOM) for editorial assistance.

1. INTRODUCTION

Climate change is undermining human rights and human security in the Pacific and will inevitably worsen² based on the current global trajectory and regional projections. Pacific leaders have recognized climate change as the “single greatest threat to the livelihoods, security and wellbeing of the peoples of the Pacific”.³ Climate change is threatening livelihoods, fresh water supplies and food security, causing adverse impacts on health and exacerbating poverty and inequality.

It is clear that climate change – and the human security and development challenges it brings – adds to the scale and complexity of human movement and displacement in the region and we must work together to find solutions for people whose homes, lands and livelihoods are, as we speak, being destroyed by rising sea levels and violent fluctuations in weather patterns in the region.

2018 Pacific Island Forum (PIF) Civil Society Organizations (CSO) Briefing Note on Climate Change and Human Security²

Some accounts of the relationship between climate change and security in the Pacific also point to increased likelihood of intrastate conflict and instability with consequences for regional security. Responding to these threats requires examination of the security challenges faced by Pacific Island communities and how security is understood and contextualized. Pacific Island governments have long recognized the need for an expanded conceptualization of security that encompasses a human security perspective, including in a number of leaders’ declarations. This reflects an acceptance that traditional security approaches that focus on conflict and threats to the nation–state are insufficient to address the security challenges faced in the Pacific. Challenges such as climate change cannot be considered in isolation from broader socioeconomic, development and security issues.

In 2012, United Nations Member States affirmed the universal value of human security in General Assembly resolution 66/290. Members States agree “that human security is an approach to assist Member States in identifying and addressing widespread and cross–cutting challenges to the survival, livelihood and dignity of their people.”⁴ The resolution also recognized “that while development, peace and security and human rights are the pillars of the United Nations and are interlinked and mutually reinforcing, achieving development is a central goal in itself and the advancement of human security should contribute to realizing sustainable development as well as the internationally agreed development goals.”⁵ At the Pacific regional level, the Boe Declaration, adopted by Pacific Island Forum Leaders in 2018, emphasized an expanded concept of security that includes human security and humanitarian assistance, environmental and resource security, transnational crime, and cybersecurity. The Boe Declaration Action Plan (2019) recognizes the need to better anticipate, understand and contextualize the impact of climate change on security in the region, including its interactions with human security and conflict.

Since the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) in 1990 noted that “the greatest single impact of climate change might be on human migration”,⁶ the impacts of climate change on mobility have become a clear and widely cited example of a risk to the human security of Pacific communities. Mobility is increasingly likely to become a response to climate change for individuals, households, communities and potentially, the population

2 CSO Briefing Note on Climate Change and Human Security, PIF (2018). [www.forumsec.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/09/Briefing-Note-on-Climate-Change-and-Human-Securit....pdf] accessed 21 May 2021.

3 Boe Declaration on Regional Security’ (2018), See: [www.forumsec.org/2018/09/05/boe-declaration-on-regional-security/].

4 General Assembly resolution 66/290 Follow–up to General Assembly resolution 66/290 on human security : report of the Secretary–General (23 December 2013), available from undocs.org/en/A/RES/66/290, Para 3.

5 Ibid, para 5.

6 IPCC (1990) First Assessment Report, “Policy Maker Summary of Working Group 2 (Potential Impacts of Climate Change)”, p. 103, para. 5.0.10.

of atoll islands and nations. The human security impacts of mobility will greatly depend on how it is framed and managed. Despite the legal inaccuracy, depictions of the “climate refugee” are prevalent in the global discourse on Pacific climate security challenges. But this characterization of climate mobility risks dehumanizing those who are affected by climate change and discounts the complexity of mobility in the Pacific and its long history as a strategy for livelihood diversification and environmental risk management. The impacts of climate change on human mobility are broad, complex and non-linear. Human mobility in this context includes internal and international migration, displacement, relocation, and short-term and circular migration.⁷

This policy brief seeks to contribute to greater understanding of the value of the human security approach in addressing climate mobility challenges in the Pacific. It provides guidance on how to integrate this approach into policy and highlights the importance of coherence across related areas such as sustainable development and national security. The brief starts with a background of human security and climate mobility in the Pacific region, and then addresses three fundamental questions:

- What is the “value added” of the human security approach in addressing climate mobility?
- How can the human security approach support climate security in the Pacific?
- How can the human security approach be mainstreamed into national and regional policies?

These are questions that policymakers, practitioners and academics have been considering for some time, but that as yet have not been fully understood and contextualized in the Pacific context. Yet, applying local knowledge and understanding is critical since, as Pacific scholar Steven Ratuva (2019) has highlighted, there are several dangers in applying concepts and theories simplistically in the Pacific. Ratuva (2019) emphasizes the need to recognize the inherent cultural, political, historical and economic diversity of Pacific island countries and communities, which is too often ignored in an effort to create a generic security narrative.⁸ Epeli Hau’ofa has similarly recognized this in his 1994 essay “Our Sea of Islands”, in which he noted the prominence of dominant narratives of the Pacific reproduced through regional and international diplomacy, stressing the need to avoid hegemonic views of the region.⁹ It is therefore critical to ensure that human security approaches to climate mobility are integrated into and strengthen regional processes in the Pacific. These include the “refreshing” of the Pacific Human Security Framework and regional discussions on how to address climate-related human mobility.

2. CLIMATE MOBILITY IN THE PACIFIC

This policy brief uses the term “human mobility” in the context of climate change to refer to a broad range of movement, recognizing that all migration takes place on spectrum between forced and voluntary, including:

- Migration undertaken voluntarily, for example movement in search of employment or better access to services, internally or across borders.
- Displacement, or forced movement, where people are compelled to move, either within a country or across borders; and
- Planned relocation of communities or individuals, through the shifting of communities and their assets to another location.¹⁰

7 Farbotko, C. (2018). Climate change and national security: an agenda for geography. *Australian Geographer*, 49(2): 247. doi: 10.1080/00049182.2017.1385119.

8 Ratuva, S. (2019). *Contested terrain : reconceptualising security in the Pacific*. Acton, Australian Capital Territory: Australian National University Press.

9 Hauofa (1994) “Our Sea of Islands (Reprinted from new Oceania – Rediscovering our sea of islands”, *The Contemporary Pacific*, 6(1): 147–161.

10 Coelho, S.(2020). “Background Paper: Pacific Regional Policy Dialogue on Climate Mobility”. See: <https://environmentalmigration.iom.int/sites/g/files/tmzbd11411/files/documents/PCCMHS%20Background%20Paper-Web.pdf>.

The Pacific has a very long history of migration. Mobility has always been used in the Pacific to diversify livelihoods and as a response to environmental risk. For example, in 2019, remittances accounted for at least 10 per cent of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in four countries in this region, including 37.6 per cent in Tonga, which is the highest of any country in the world.¹¹ Pacific island migration patterns include diverse temporal dimensions, ranging from permanent to short-term as well as varied degrees of voluntariness. The exact nature of the movement occurring in the context of climate change will depend on numerous factors, including access to human rights, existing inequalities and socioeconomic vulnerabilities. Mobility decisions are multi-causal and can be influenced by issues including levels of poverty and inequalities such as access to land and capital, gender inequality and access to services. Economic and social factors, including access to knowledge, will also influence the extent to which mobility is forced or voluntary, or indeed whether people move at all. Cultural attachment to place is also an important factor that contributes to people voluntarily choosing to stay.¹² For other people affected by climate change, especially those in the most vulnerable situations, these economic and social factors may mean that they are unable to move, even if they wanted to. Ensuring that the insecurities faced by immobile people (including “trapped populations”) are recognized in policy responses to human mobility in the context of climate change is therefore important. Efforts should therefore not only focus on people on the move. There is also a need to better understand the relationship between mobility and adaptation to discern how and when forms of human mobility are positive or negative for those who move and for communities of origin and destination. Determining how mobility contributes to addressing insecurities and realizing human rights for those who move and for communities of origin and destination is key to optimizing the benefits of mobility that is enabled by choice rather than dire need.¹³

There is a clear need for all countries in the Pacific to adopt measures to avoid the worst impacts of unplanned and unchosen movement. Disaster displacement is already one of the region’s most significant humanitarian and sustainable development challenges, and climate change is expected to have profound consequences for these diverse mobility patterns. Aside from the risk of displacement, environmental factors linked to climate change are already increasing the vulnerability of affected populations and are drivers of migration. These include regular exposure to flooding, increasing scarcity of potable water and declining land productivity. Socioeconomic threats and vulnerabilities that contribute to displacement or poorly planned relocation can exacerbate and lead to other vulnerable situations, such as movement to informal urban and peri-urban settlements, disaster-prone areas or areas with few livelihood opportunities.¹⁴

There is documented experience in the Pacific of population relocation. Cases involving internal relocation (such as the resettlement of communities from the Carteret Islands in Papua New Guinea), and regionally (such as resettlement of the population of Banaba Island to Rabi Island) reinforce the need for legal protection for migrants as part of overall social, economic and cultural responses, and the importance of integrated land use planning in receiving communities to prevent conflict.¹⁵ Responding to these challenges requires careful policy attention as even with legal protection intergenerational issues of deprivation and inequity can persist.¹⁶

11 World Bank (2021), Migration and Remittances Data’ See: www.worldbank.org/en/topic/migrationremittancesdiasporaissues/brief/migration-remittances-data.

12 Farbotko, C. McMichael, O. Dun, H. Ransan-Cooper, K.E. McNamara and F. Thornton (2018). Transformative mobilities in the Pacific: Promoting adaptation and development in a changing climate. *Asia & the Pacific policy studies*, 5(3): 393–407. doi: 10.1002/app5.254.

13 Warner, K., Kalin, W., Martin, S., & Nassef, Y. (2015). National Adaptation Plans and human mobility. *Forced Migration Review*(49): 8.

14 R. Islam and N. A. Khan (2018). “Threats, vulnerability, resilience and displacement among the climate change and natural disaster-affected people in South-East Asia: an overview” *Journal of the Asia Pacific Economy*, 23(2): 297–323.

15 See, for example, Lieber (1977) and Tabe (2019).

16 McAdam, J. (2016) Under Two Jurisdictions: Immigration, Citizenship, and Self-Governance in Cross-Border Community Relocations. *34 Law and History Review* 34: 281–333.

Policy approaches to climate mobility

Pacific governments have acknowledged that climate change may contribute to “climate mobility”, which may include migration, displacement, and planned relocation.¹⁷ Currently, however, there is no clear consensus on how climate-related mobility should be framed or addressed in the Pacific, though governments in the region are considering the development of a dedicated regional framework. There is broad support for principles set out in instruments such as the Guiding Principles in Internal Displacement, the Nansen Initiative Protection Agenda¹⁸ and the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration. At the regional level, the Framework for Resilient Development in the Pacific (FRDP)¹⁹ aims to guide and promote coordinated and integrated priorities and approaches for regional, national and community levels. It promotes voluntary commitments on migration, recommending for example that countries and development partners:

- Integrate human mobility aspects, where appropriate, including strengthening the capacity of governments and administrations to protect individuals and communities that are vulnerable to climate change and disaster displacement and migration, through targeted national policies and actions, including relocation and labour migration policies (priority action 1(p)).
- Anticipate and prepare for future displacement by integrating human mobility issues within disaster preparedness, response and recovery programmes and actions (Priority action 1(k)); and
- Support increasing the protection of individuals and communities most vulnerable to climate change and post-disaster displacement and migration through targeted national and regional policies and regional labour migration schemes (Priority action 4(t)).

There is increasing attention being given to different dimensions of climate mobility across a number of policy domains, including climate change and disaster risk management, national development planning and labour migration.²⁰ There are also important emerging dedicated policy instruments addressing climate mobility in planned relocation (Fiji’s *Planned Relocation Guidelines: A Framework to Undertake Climate Change Related Relocation*)²¹ and displacement (Fiji’s *Displacement Guidelines – In the Context of Climate Change and Disasters*²² and Vanuatu’s *National Policy on Climate Change and Disaster-induced Displacement*²³).

17 PCCM-HS (2020). ‘Regional Policy Dialogue – Summary Report’. See: www.unescap.org/sites/default/d8files/2021-03/PCCM-HS_Regional_Policy_Dialogue_Report.pdf].

18 Nansen Initiative (2013), Outcome Report – Nansen Initiative Regional Consultation. See: <https://disasterdisplacement.org/portfolio-item/pacific-outcome-report/>].

19 Framework for Resilient Development in the Pacific (FRDP). See: www.forumsec.org/the-framework-for-resilient-development-in-the-pacific/].

20 IOM. (2021). Policy Developments and Options to Address Human Mobility in the Context of Climate Risk in the Pacific Islands Region. Policy Brief Series.

21 Government of Fiji. (2018). Planned Relocation Guidelines: A framework to undertake climate change related relocation. See: <https://cop23.com.fj/wp-content/uploads/2018/12/CC-PRG-BOOKLET-22-1.pdf>.

22 Government of Fiji. (2019). Displacement Guidelines: In the context of climate change and disasters. See: www.adaptationcommunity.net/wp-content/uploads/2020/03/Displacement-Guidelines-Fiji-2019.pdf.

23 IOM. (2018). Vanuatu National Policy on Climate Change and Disaster-Induced Displacement. See: www.iom.int/sites/g/files/tmzbd1486/files/press_release/file/iom-vanuatu-policy-climate-change-disaster-induced-displacement-2018.pdf.

Mobility responses in Fiji: Fiji has played a key leadership role in climate change advocacy globally, including as President of the 23rd UNFCCC Conference of Parties (COP23), UN General Assembly Presidency for the 71st Session (2016-17) and Chair of the UN Human Rights Council (2021). According to Fiji Prime Minister Voreqe Bainimarama, “climate change threatens us all, and we must work together to respond to this greatest of tests to our national security”. Fiji also plays a key role in the Pacific region in supporting efforts to protect communities displaced by climate change and disasters, with the Prime Minister offering to host the populations of Tuvalu and Kiribati if the need arises on numerous occasions in international media. In 2018 the Fiji Government issued its National Climate Change Policy (2018–2030) and Planned Relocation Guidelines and a Climate Change Act was approved by parliament in September 2021. It includes reference to climate migration and displacement, including proposing to establish a “Fiji Taskforce on Relocation of Communities Vulnerable to the Impact of Climate Change” and recognizes the need to protect human rights in the context of planned relocation. In early 2019, Fiji issued *Displacement Guidelines in the Context of Climate Change and Disasters*, to complement its earlier Relocation Guidelines. The Government of Fiji has also set up a *Climate Relocation and Displaced People’s Trust Fund* (launched at the UN General Assembly in 2019), which is the world’s first relocation fund for people who are displaced or who relocate in the context of climate change. Fiji became the Chair of the Platform on Disaster Displacement (PDD) from January 2021 till June 2022.

3. HUMAN SECURITY

3.1 BACKGROUND

The concept of human security emerged from a recognition that the security of the nation–state does not necessarily ensure the security of individuals or groups within that state. It has evolved in a complementary way with human development and human rights, and builds on a basic needs approach to development and human dignity, and the capabilities and freedoms approaches championed by Amartya Sen.²⁴ Human security has challenged conventional assumptions and traditional approaches to security, contributing to a shift towards human agency and human centred conceptions of security in policy and academic debates.²⁵

Defining Human Security at the UN General Assembly

In 2012 UN Member States affirmed the universal value of human security in General Assembly resolution 66/290. Members States agreed:

“that human security is an approach to assist Member States in identifying and addressing widespread and cross-cutting challenges to the survival, livelihood and dignity of their people.” [para 3]

And recognized:

“that while development, peace and security and human rights are the pillars of the United Nations and are interlinked and mutually reinforcing, achieving development is a central goal in itself and the advancement of human security should contribute to realizing sustainable development as well as the internationally agreed development goals”. [para 5]

Despite achieving broad acceptance and legitimacy in the United Nations system and at the regional level in the Pacific, human security has been subject to a range of interpretations. Human security is often defined through a commitment to freedom from want which includes safety from threats such as hunger, disease,

24 Sen, A. (2001). “Development as Freedom” Oxford Press.

25 Newman, E. (2016). Human Security: Reconciling Critical Aspirations With Political ‘Realities’. *British Journal Of Criminology*. 56(6): 1165–1183. doi: 10.1093/bjc/azw016.

repression and harmful disruptions to daily life (sometimes referred to as structural violence) and freedom from fear which refers to the protection of individuals from armed conflict, violence, genocide and displacement. A distinction is also drawn between a “broad” focus on both *freedom from want* and *freedom from fear*, and a narrower focus on *freedom from fear*.²⁶ The 1994 UNDP Human Development Report (HDR) adopted the more expansive definition and outlined seven different dimensions of human security. These are: economic, food, health, environmental, personal, community and political security (see Table 1 for examples). Food security, health security, environmental security and economic security have become distinct policy areas that have attracted significant attention and resources. In contrast, personal, political and community security have received relatively less attention,²⁷ but have been integrated into the women, peace and security (WPS) agenda and other programmes of work related to reducing gender-based violence and community peace and “do no harm” approaches.

Equally important are the core principles promoted through the human security approach. *Prevention* is the core objective of human security and seeks to address the root causes of vulnerabilities by focusing attention on emerging risks and emphasizes early action.²⁸ Localization and the importance of leaving no one behind (a core commitment of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development) is also a central concern of human security. Human security also emphasizes integrated actions across a network of stakeholders, including the United Nations system, governments, private sector, civil society and local communities. Empowerment and protection are the two broad strategies proposed by the UN Commission on Human Security to achieve human security. Human security can strengthen the nexus between development and security.²⁹ Critics of human security, and particularly the broad approach, point to the difficulty of delimiting the boundaries of human security, and differentiating it from human development which seeks to address many of the same people-centred challenges. It is therefore important to clarify the relationship between human security and human development and identify a clear value addition of human security by defining its scope and role in the policy process. While human security has normative value in establishing the conditions for human dignity and survival (as opposed to human development which is a process), human security also helps identify risks that threaten the maintenance of these conditions. Human security provides an analytical framework to understand security based on people’s perceptions of what makes them secure or insecure in a particular “everyday” context.³⁰

Human security and human development:

“Human security as an idea fruitfully supplements the expansionist perspective of human development by directly paying attention to what are sometimes called “downside risks”. The insecurities that threaten human survival or the safety of daily life, or imperil the natural dignity of men and women, or expose human beings to the uncertainty of disease and pestilence, or subject vulnerable people to abrupt penury related to economic downturns demand that special attention be paid to the dangers of sudden deprivation. Human security demands protection from these dangers and the empowerment of people so that they can cope with and, when possible, overcome these hazards.”
Amartya Sen (2003)

26 Norway and Canada have been strong advocates for the narrow focus on freedom from fear, which contributed to the 2001 Report of the International Commission on Intervention and State Sovereignty, which established the doctrine of the responsibility to protect or R2P. See: [<https://idl-bnc-idrc.dspacedirect.org/bitstream/handle/10625/18432/IDL-18432.pdf?sequence=6&isAllowed=y>].

27 Breslin, S., & Christou, G. (2015). Has the human security agenda come of age? Definitions, discourses and debates. *Contemporary Politics: Human Security at 21: A Concept that’s Come of Age?*, 21(1): 1–10. doi: 10.1080/13569775.2014.993904.

28 United Nations Trust Fund for Human Security. What is human security. See: www.un.org/humansecurity/what-is-human-security/.

29 de Simone, S. (2020) Beyond normativity and benchmarking: applying a human security approach to refugee-hosting areas in Africa. *Third World Quarterly*, 41(1):168–183. doi: doi.org/10.1080/01436597.2019.1660635.

30 Ibid.

The approach dissects vulnerability and places threats in the context of deprivations and exclusions. It focuses on strengthening local capacities to build resilience and promotes solutions that enhance social cohesion and advance respect for human rights and dignity. An expanded conceptualization of security from a human security perspective highlights climate change and other challenges as critical to security of the state *and* communities. In this way, human security provides a preventative framework for strengthening resilience. It provides a valuable analytical framework that can be used in policy planning and in prioritizing interventions, particularly in contexts where a state–centric (and boundary reinforcing) security approaches may otherwise be pursued. The value of human security becomes more evident when it is operationalized in a manner that clarifies how it differs from (and advances) other policy approaches and frameworks that have compatible goals.

Table 1 – Dimensions of human security and climate threats

Dimension of human security	Examples of climate-related threats
Economic	Threats to livelihoods, persistent poverty, unemployment, lack of access to credit, financial services and other economic opportunities
Food	Declining agricultural and inshore fisheries productivity, hunger, sudden spikes in food prices
Water	Water security, particularly the availability of fresh water for consumption and suitable water for irrigation is challenged by increasing saltwater intrusion.
Health	Epidemics, malnutrition, poor sanitation, limited access to basic health care, non-communicable disease
Environmental	Environmental degradation, resource depletion, natural disasters
Personal	Conflict and physical violence in all its forms including gender-based violence, human trafficking
Community	Tensions with host communities, religious and other identity-based tensions, increased crime
Political	Political repression, human rights violations, lack of rule of law and justice

3.2 HUMAN SECURITY IN PACIFIC REGIONAL POLICY

The Boe Declaration on Regional Security (2018) and Boe Declaration Action Plan (2019)

It is important to understand security and human security approaches in the Pacific context. The security narrative at the Pacific regional level has remained relatively consistent since independence in recognizing non–traditional security threats.³¹ Non–traditional approaches include human security, environmental security (often framed as environmental threats to human security)³² and ecological security (encompassing threats to the biosphere and the most vulnerable including over time, space and species).³³ The Boe Declaration on Regional Security (2018) for example, recognizes climate change as the “single greatest threat to the livelihoods, security and wellbeing of the peoples of the Pacific”. The Boe Declaration Action Plan (2019) provides a framework for Pacific Islands Forum members to implement the Boe Declaration including actions under Strategic Focus Areas, including Climate security (Focus Area 1) and Human Security and Humanitarian Assistance (Focus Area 2). The Action Plan recognizes that the exact impact that climate change will have on regional security needs to be better understood given the “complex and multifaceted nature of its impact.” It calls for the development of National Security Strategies by Forum members and the implementation of the governance arrangements to enable effective implementation. To date, Samoa, Solomon Islands and Vanuatu have developed National Security Strategies.³⁴

31 Keen, M. (2021). Security through a Pacific lens. *Development Bulletin*, No. 82 February 2021.

32 See, for example, Elliot, L. (2015). Human security/environmental security. *Contemporary Politics*, 21(1): 11–24.

33 See, for example, McDonald, M. (2018). Climate change and security: towards ecological security? *Int. Theory*, 10(2): 153–180. doi: 10.1017/S1752971918000039.

34 Cobera, E., Roth, D., & Work, C. (2019). Climate change policies, natural resources and conflict: implications for development. *Climate Policy*, 19: 1–7.

The Action Plan recognizes the need to better anticipate and understand the impact of climate change on security in the region and calls for these impacts on the regional security landscape to be better understood and conceptualized, including through an “interaction with human security and conflict”. This reflects broader debates on the relationships between climate-related interventions and security practices, and the inter-linkages between climate change policies and related policy domains such as development.³⁵ This creates a potential challenge for Pacific Governments with respect to how security is conceptualized in the domestic context and implemented across relevant policy areas, including in the development and implementation of National Security Strategies.

Refreshing Human Security in the Pacific

Human security in the Pacific has been articulated at regional level through the Pacific Human Security Framework 2012–2015), however (hereinafter “the Framework”), and the Boe Declaration Action Plan (2019) calls for a “refreshing” of the Framework. A 2015 review found that the Pacific Human Security Framework was not a prominent driver of national or regional policy setting.³⁶ The Framework required stronger conceptual coherence and strategic direction for effective implementation with better links to national policy processes.³⁷ The review of the Framework found that it needed to strike a balance between providing common guidance and recognizing national level priorities, without being too generic or abstract. Further, steps are needed to ensure “buy in” for a human security approach across the whole government.³⁸ The Pacific Island Forum Officials Sub-Committee on Regional Security (FSRS) has established a Working Group to develop a concept for the Human Security Framework refresh. This is to be considered by Leaders in 2022.

Women, peace and security (WPS)

Women play central roles in human security at the household and community levels and have different experiences and perspectives on important issues such as food security, water security, and health security. However, the views of women have often been absent in debates on regional security in the Pacific and in the formulation of regional and national responses. United Nations Security Council (UNSC) Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security³⁹ obligates policymakers to consult with women on matters related to regional security. The Pacific Islands Forum developed a Regional Action Plan on Women, Peace and Security (2012–2015),⁴⁰ but this had a limited impact on regional and national approaches⁴¹ and has not been renewed. Addressing the role that gender plays in shaping approaches and decisions in support of human security (including the role and expectations of men and women) will be critical to the success of the implementation of the Boe Declaration (2018) and the Pacific Human Security Framework.

35 George, T. (2021). Pacific Island security: What role can national security strategies play? *Development Bulletin*, No. 82: 12–15 February 2021.

36 Brien, B. and Naupa, A. (2018). Fostering peaceful sustainable development in the Pacific under the 2030 Agenda. Working Paper Series Macroeconomic Policy and Financing for Development Division, UNESCAP.

37 Ratuva, S. (2019). *Contested terrain : reconceptualising security in the Pacific*. Acton, Australian Capital Territory: Australian National University Press.

38 Ibid.

39 United Nations Security Council (2000).

40 Peace Women. 2011. Pacific Regional Action Plan: Women, Peace and Security. See: www.peacewomen.org/sites/default/files/pacific_region_regional_action_plan_2012-2015.pdf.

41 George, N. (2019). Gender, security and Australia's 2018 Pacific Pivot: stalled impetus and shallow roots. *Australian Journal of International Affairs*, 73(3): 213–218. doi: 10.1080/10357718.2019.1584155.

Vanuatu National Security Strategy (NSS): The Government of Vanuatu has recognized climate change as a threat to national security and sustainable development, and has prioritized disaster and climate change resilience, justice and human rights, and human security in its National Security Strategy (2019). The National Policy on Climate Change and Disaster-Induced Displacement (2018) focuses on system-level interventions including institutions and governance; evidence, information and monitoring; safeguards and protections. It also addresses sectoral-level interventions including safety and security; land, housing, planning and environment; food security and livelihoods; traditional knowledge, and access to justice and public participation. The policy suggests that displacement and human mobility more broadly should be mainstreamed into policy planning and implementation at all levels. The Vanuatu National Sustainable Development Plan (2016–2030) does not address human mobility in a comprehensive way but does aim to increase labour mobility nationally and internationally, including through the collection and analysis of comprehensive labour market data. Human Security is Pillar 6 of the National Security Strategy which defines human security broadly:

“Human security is a broad concept embracing a range of issues affecting an individual’s well-being, including not just personal security, but issues such as health security and food security.”

Three human security issues are identified as having “current or potential major national and social impact in Vanuatu”. These are health security, gender-based violence, and the challenges of a fast-growing youth population.

3.3 LINKS TO CLIMATE SECURITY

Climate change is increasingly considered a security issue. Climate change has been discussed through seven open debates at the United Nations Security Council (UNSC) since 2007. A number of UN member States and UNSC members have called for the Security Council to have a role in addressing the impacts of climate change, including the threat of sea level rise on small island states and the issues of climate change–related mobility (problematically referred to by the UNSC as “problem of climate refugees”).⁴² Pacific small island developing States have lobbied for the UN system to have an expanded role in addressing the security implications of climate change and have called for the appointment of a Special Representative of the Secretary–General (SRSG) on Climate and Security since 2011. Climate change can be considered a security issue, but this requires a deeper examination of how the relationship is understood and framed in policy communities. The climate change–security relationship is subject to a range of interpretations. While contested, the climate security discourses that emerge from these framings have important consequences for political and policy responses. To better understand how climate security is constructed, the framing of the relationship can be based on consideration of:

- Whose security is at stake?⁴³
- Who is responsible for responding?
- How is the nature of the threat defined?
- What responses are proposed to address the threat?⁴⁴

This approach provides a practical way to examine security and its interaction with climate threats. Discourses that have been defined through this approach include traditional security approaches focused on international security (for example, threats to the multilateral system due to resentment over policy failures of countries most responsible for climate change), and national security (the maintenance of sovereignty and territorial integrity

42 Conca, K. (2019). Is There a Role for the UN Security Council on Climate Change? *Environment: Science and Policy for Sustainable Development*, 61(1): 4–15. doi: 10.1080/00139157.2019.1540811.

43 Also often referred to as the “referent object”.

44 McDonald, M. (2013). Discourses on climate–security. *Political geography*, 33: 42–51.

of the nation–state). Pathways to conflict commonly referred to in these narratives include competition over increasingly scarce resources, declining agricultural productivity and migration (including refugee movements). Closer empirical examination has challenged these accounts, however, with much of the analysis of the linkages between climate change and security over–emphasizing simplistic causal mechanisms.⁴⁵ Barnett for example, notes that contrary to popular representation of changing climate conditions contributing to conflict, a far more robust body of evidence demonstrates the maintenance of peace through changing environmental conditions.⁴⁶

Table 2 – National and human security perspectives on climate security⁴⁷

Discourse	Referent	Threat	Agent	Response
National security	Nation-state	Conflict, sovereignty, economic interests	State	Maintenance of sovereignty, border management, mitigation
Human security	People	Life and livelihood, core values and practices	States, NGOs, international community, communities themselves	Mitigation and adaptation, prevention, empowerment, and protection

Depicting climate change as a security issue may serve the interests of advocates to motivate states to treat climate change with more urgency, but there are also risks in the “securitization”⁴⁸ of climate change.⁴⁹ In a migration context, Ransan–Cooper *et al.* (2018) demonstrate how framing by different actors define environmental migrants and how this influences policy responses. Viewing migrants as security threats places the “solution” to the “problem” of migration in the hands of security actors that emphasize national sovereignty and border protection. Approaching climate change as a national security issue does not lend itself to addressing climate challenges as complex transboundary problems.⁵⁰ Conversely, human security framings of climate security discourse refocus attention of the impacts on individuals and societal groups. These include threats to fisheries with impacts on livelihoods and food security,⁵¹ adverse impacts on health⁵² and the exacerbation of poverty and inequality. Pacific climate security challenges cannot be addressed without attention to understanding how the climate security relationship is understood in the Pacific regional political landscape. Human security provides a people–centred way to understand the relationship between climate change and conflict.

45 Gemenne, F., J. Barnett, W. Adger and G. Dabelko (2014). Climate and security: evidence, emerging risks, and a new agenda. *An Interdisciplinary, International Journal Devoted to the Description, Causes and Implications of Climatic Change*, 123(1): 1–9. doi: 10.1007/s10584-014-1074-7.

46 Barnett, J. (2019). Global environmental change I: Climate resilient peace? *Progress in Human Geography*, 43(5): 927–936. doi: 10.1177/0309132518798077.

47 Based on McDonald, M. (2013). Discourses on climate–security. *Political geography*, 33: 42–51.

48 The concept of securitization was developed by Buzan *et al.* (1998). They argued that presenting an issue as an existential threat allows for the adoption of exceptional measures to deal with the identified threat. Securitization is a security frame in which an issue is presented and addressed with as a matter of top security. Securitization theory stipulates that the successful framing of an issue as existential (a securitizing move) has major consequences for how it is handled whereby rules, procedures and accountability may be sidelined to an extent that otherwise would be inconceivable.

49 Warner and Boas (2019).

50 Farbotko, C. (2018). Climate change and national security: an agenda for geography. *Australian Geographer*, 49(2): 247. doi: 10.1080/00049182.2017.1385119.

51 Veitaryaki, J. (2021). Securing coastal fisheries in the Pacific: Critical resources for food, livelihood and community security. *Development Bulletin*, No. 82: 56–61 February 2021.

52 McMichael, C., J. Barnett and A.J. McMichael (2012). *An Ill Wind? Climate Change, Migration, and Health*. *Environmental Health Perspective*, 120(5), 646–654. doi: 10.1289/ehp.1104375.

4. FRAMING CLIMATE MOBILITY AS A HUMAN SECURITY ISSUE

There is broad acceptance across the Pacific and globally that climate change is a threat to human security, including for those on the move and those who face the risk of displacement. The IPCC concluded that climate change and climate variability represent risks to various dimensions of human security that arise through diverse causal processes and at different scales.⁵³ According to the IPCC chapter authors, no conceptual framework is adequately able to capture the full extent of interactions between all of climate change, livelihoods, culture, migration and conflict. Further, while evidence shows that climate change will be an increasing driver of human insecurity, inappropriate or maladaptive climate policy responses are also likely to accelerate and amplify human insecurities. The implications of this are that policy responses must be contextually informed and grounded in local realities. Debates on climate mobility are often shaped by political factors, including concerns that proactively approaching displacement and relocation may undermine advocacy for mitigation efforts and climate justice.⁵⁴ Climate mobility in the Pacific is also highly visible globally, with representations from outside of the Pacific region creating narratives that are often disconnected from what is happening “on the ground”.⁵⁵

Threats to human security from climate change (IPCC, 2014)

Climate change threatens human security because it undermines livelihoods, compromises culture and individual identity, increases migration that people would rather have avoided, and because it can undermine the ability of States to provide the conditions necessary for human security. Changes in climate may influence some or all of the factors at the same time. Situations of acute insecurity, such as famine, conflict, and socio-political instability, almost always emerge from the interaction of multiple factors. For many populations that are already socially marginalized, resource dependent, and have limited capital assets, human security will be progressively undermined as the climate changes.

Approaching climate mobility from a human security perspective emphasizes protection and empowerment regardless of citizenship and migratory status (acknowledging, however, from a legal perspective that these will be determinative of what rights are available). Through a human security framing, rather than being viewed as a security threat, migrants become resourceful agents of adaptation, for example through labour mobility, which can enhance the resilience of individuals and their home communities. From this perspective mobility becomes a creative, proactive and agency-based response to climate change.⁵⁶ Key to optimizing the benefits of mobility is understanding the relationship between mobility and insecurity and discerning which and when forms of human mobility are beneficial for those on the move as well as those in communities of origin and destination. Mobility that erodes human security (such as displacement) should be avoided while beneficial movements may be proactively planned based on an assessment of threats and better integrated into national policy frameworks such as adaptation planning.⁵⁷ Viewing migrants through a human security lens, while also recognizing them as rights-holders, focuses attention on issues such as access to resources, support for self-determination and empowerment, and addressing issues including inequality and marginalization.

53 Gemenne, F., J. Barnett, W. Adger and G. Dabelko (2014). Climate and security: evidence, emerging risks, and a new agenda. *An Interdisciplinary, International Journal Devoted to the Description, Causes and Implications of Climatic Change*, 123(1): 1–9. doi: 10.1007/s10584-014-1074-7

54 Burkett, M. (2018). ‘Behind the veil: Climate migration, regime shift, and a new theory of justice.’ *Harvard Civil Rights–civil Liberties Law Review*, 53(2): 445–493.

55 Wiegel, H., I. Boas, and J. Warner (2019). A mobilities perspective on migration in the context of environmental change. *Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Climate Change*, 10(6), n/a-n/a. doi: 10.1002/wcc.610.

56 Hugo, G. (2011). Future demographic change and its interactions with migration and climate change. *Global Environmental Change*, 21: S21–S33.

57 See Warner, K., W. Kalin, S. Martin and Y. Nassef (2015). National Adaptation Plans and human mobility. *Forced Migration Review* 49: 8.

5. “VALUE ADD” OF THE HUMAN SECURITY APPROACH IN ADDRESSING CLIMATE MOBILITY IN THE PACIFIC

It is important to demonstrate the value of a human security approach to climate mobility and be clear about how it complements established policy practices focused on security, development and climate change adaptation. Pacific Governments are typically small and already face challenges in responding to competing policy demands, and in service delivery. In the Pacific islands, many poverty and inequality challenges are related to the limited reach of government services and resource availability for development activities, especially in rural and geographically remote areas. Pacific islanders navigate multiple systems to sustain their livelihoods, access resources and services. These systems may be traditional, customary, informal, semi-formal or formal in nature.⁵⁸ Policymakers therefore must consider how informal systems operate and serve a large part of the population in the region. In this context, the following features of a human security approach to climate-related human mobility are particularly salient for the Pacific.

- i. **Localization:** Migration can be considered a local-to-local dynamic by linking communities in places of origin, transit and destinations. Local governments and other key local actors (such as community groups and faith-based organizations) are well placed to understand and contextualize human security threats. As there are often persisting development inequalities and distinct mobility patterns within countries (including urbanization for example), a localized approach allows for the realities experienced within a specific local context to be better understood to inform policy and political responses.
- ii. **Prevention:** Human security focuses attention on preventing the worst adverse impacts of climate change and reducing the risks of displacement of individuals, households and communities. These can erode human security and be avoided by identifying threats and addressing vulnerabilities. The drivers of climate displacement are also threats to human security and are best addressed prior to any deprivation or harm occurring.
- iii. **Protection:** Protection was defined by the Commission on Human Security as “strategies set up by states, international agencies, NGOs and the private sector, (to) shield people from menaces.” It implies establishing “top-down” measures, recognizing that people face threats that are beyond their control (disasters, financial crises, conflicts). These aim at fulfilling the rights of individuals in accordance with the principles of applicable law including human rights law, international humanitarian law and refugee law. Human security requires systematic, comprehensive and preventive protection. States have primary responsibility to implement such protection, while other actors such as international bodies, civil society and NGOs play a pivotal role.
- iv. **Empowerment:** Empowerment focuses on reducing the vulnerability and increasing the agency and capabilities of affected populations, recognizing that people are not passive victims of climate change.⁵⁹ Human security is grounded in empowering people to participate in making choices on the issues that affect them.
- v. **Analytical support for planning and monitoring:** Human security can provide a valuable analytical framework to inform planning, prioritize interventions and monitor responses. Human security provides a framework to understand security based on people’s perceptions of what makes them secure or insecure in a particular “everyday” context.

58 ESCAP (2019). "Informal Systems and Policy Hybridity – Sustainable Development the Pacific Way" Pacific Perspectives (Working Document). See: www.unescap.org/sites/default/d8files/knowledge-products/Pacific%20Perspectives.pdf.

59 Busumtwi-Sam, J. (2008). Contextualizing human security: A deprivation-vulnerability approach. *Policy and Society*, 27(1): 15–28.

- vi. **Establishing norms for mobility governance:** Human security approaches, based in international human rights law, can provide a valuable legal and normative framework for mobility governance. These place people at the centre of migration governance (whereas traditional approaches focus on the challenges and opportunities migration poses for nation–states). This helps to establish important thresholds for human rights and human dignity and the conditions required for “everyday” security from threats associated with climate change. It requires norms and institutions that guarantee basic protections of human rights, progress and safety.
- vii. **Linking security and development:** Human security provides a framework to link security and sustainable development, providing a means to operationalize the peace–development–humanitarian nexus in the Pacific.⁶⁰
- viii. **Support for policy and legal hybridity:** A human–centred focus on prevention and protection at the local level where informal and traditional systems are often prevalent emphasizes the importance of drawing on diverse policy (such as the recognition of traditional and informal systems in service delivery) and legal approaches (including customary law and different legal fields including human rights, environmental and migration law).
- ix. **Multi–stakeholder partnership:** Human security can support integrated actions across a network of stakeholders, brings together the capacities of a wide range of actors, across different scales.

These features are not necessarily unique to human security. Many are shared across a range of human–centred policy domains including development, human rights and climate change adaptation. Human security does, however, bring these together in a comprehensive, complementary and unifying way to help address climate mobility challenges. Clearly though, making these operational is key for human security to have any policy significance.

6. TOWARDS OPERATIONALIZATION: KEY STAKEHOLDERS AND POLICY PROCESS

Human security must be understood and contextualized in the “lived experience” of Pacific islanders and must help address threats to the “everyday” human security challenges faced. Recognizing the importance of localization and linking different scales from the local, national and regional levels (sometimes referred to as vertical policy integration) is critical. Operationalizing human security will also require (in response to the 2015 review) an operational definition, must reflect national level priorities, ensure “buy in” across the whole government and should be monitored to assess impact and effectiveness. The principle of subsidiarity (that issues should be addressed by the authority that is closest to the issues, usually the most local and least centrally organized) in this context provides useful guidance in establishing when local, national, regional or international entities are best placed (or have a responsibility) to act.⁶¹

Regional

A detailed mapping undertaken in 2020 revealed that security cooperation in the Pacific Islands is best described as a patchwork of agreements, arrangements and institutions.⁶² This patchwork seeks to meet a range of security priorities and ambitions as identified by both the Pacific islands and partners but it remains unclear as to the extent to which this is achieved. Similar concerns about sustainable development frameworks

60 GPPAC (2020). Operationalising the Peace-Development-Humanitarian Nexus through the Boe Declaration in the Pacific. Global Partnership for the Prevention of Armed Conflict. See: https://gppac.net/files/2020-08/Operationalising%20the%20Peace-Development-Humanitarian%20Nexus%20through%20the%20Boe%20Declaration_final.pdf.

61 Vietti, F., and T. Scribner (2013). Human insecurity: Understanding international migration from a human security perspective. *Journal on Migration and Human Security*, 1(1): 19–31.

62 Asia and The Pacific Society: Policy Forum. (2021). Mapping Pacific Regional Security Cooperation. See: www.policyforum.net/mapping-pacific-regional-security-cooperation/.

(including reporting burdens) led to the endorsement of the Pacific Roadmap for Sustainable Development by Pacific leaders in 2017. Mobility issues are also addressed by a diversity of regional actors and processes. Key stakeholders at the regional level include national governments, regional organizations and bodies (including all Council of Regional Organizations of the Pacific agencies), UN bodies and international organizations, development partners, regional non-governmental and faith-based organizations and academic organizations. Important initiatives such as the Pacific Fusion Centre also have important roles to play in supporting national responses. Pacific Islands Forum Secretariat (PIFS) processes such as the Forum Officials Sub-Committee on Regional Security (FSRS) and Pacific Resilience Partnership (PRP) Taskforce are clearly central in this endeavour.

National

As referred to above, central and line agencies at the national level in the Pacific face many competing demands in an often resource-constrained context. National and sector plans are important and remain a good policy guide for identifying priorities, but they are often aspirational and are not intended to be implementation documents. These must be aligned (sometimes referred to as horizontal policy alignment) and turned into action through the formulation of implementable policies and strategies that are linked to resource allocation through the budget process.⁶³ This will be key to the development of effective National Security Strategies, national development planning processes, climate change and disaster risk management and migration governance (that addresses a variety of mobility challenges including urbanization for example). Central (Prime Ministers/Presidents Office, Ministry of Finance/Planning, Climate Change Units), line (Immigration, Agriculture, Fisheries, National Disaster Management Offices (NDMOs), Local Government, Labour, Social Welfare and Women) and public security (police and defence forces) entities all have important roles. Civil society organizations representing women, youth, persons with disabilities, environment, climate justice and LGBTQI are also key partners.

Sub-national (provincial, district and community)⁶⁴

“Localization” and the local level is key for the implementation of an effective human security approach to climate mobility. Human security recognizes the complexity of the “everyday” insecurities faced and the role of mobility in addressing vulnerability. Addressing social exclusion through empowerment and targeted protection mechanisms must also recognize geographic and social inequalities. Effective approaches at the sub-national level should also draw on recognition of traditional and informal systems in service delivery and governance (including legal protection). In addition to representatives of national civil society organizations, important local stakeholders include community representatives, local government and faith-based institutions.

63 ESCAP & IMF/PFTAC. (2018). Improving the Links between National (and Sector) Plans and Budgets for Sustainable Development in Pacific Island Countries: A Practical Guidance Note. See: www.unescap.org/sites/default/files/Guidance%20Note%20on%20Linking%20Plans%20and%20Budgets%20in%20the%20Pacific_March%202018.pdf.

64 Noting the different governance structures at the sub-national level (some governments only have two levels of government – local and national – while others also have provincial and district administrative structures).

7. CONCLUSION

This policy brief advocates for a human security framing of the climate security relationship to guide policy responses addressing climate-related human mobility. Any approach must recognize the inherent cultural, political, historical and economic diversity of Pacific island countries and communities. The value of human security in every context in the Pacific cannot be assumed and it is clearly the role of national governments to assess the value of adopting a human security approach, including taking steps to make it operational and allocating required resources for implementation. In addition to demonstrating the dimensions of human security and the key features of the approach, this policy brief has highlighted the functional strengths of human security as an approach to help address climate mobility challenges. The following conclusions are made to assist in the process of understanding how a human security approach can be mainstreamed into national and regional policies.

- i. **Conceptual clarity and contextualization of a human security approach are critical:** There are different definitions and approaches to human security, and this has limited its policy orientation and relevance. It is therefore critical for regional organizations, governments, and development partners to be clear about the definition, scope and role of human security in addressing climate mobility challenges. While historically academic debates around human security led to different definitions and approaches of the concept, ongoing consultations along with programmes supported by the UN Trust Fund for Human Security culminated in GA resolution 66/290 on the common understanding of human security. It is therefore critical for regional organizations, governments, and development partners to refer to A/RES/66/290 when defining the scope and role of human security in addressing climate mobility challenges.
- ii. **Human security, based in human rights, can provide a normative framework for mobility governance:** Human security can help to establish important thresholds for human dignity and the conditions required for “everyday” security across the different spatial and temporal scales of climate-related human mobility. This can help policymakers to understand the relationship between mobility and insecurity to establish (“top down”) benchmarks to discern how and when forms of human mobility are beneficial for those on the move as well as those in communities of origin and destination.
- iii. **Human security as an analytical framework:** Human security provides an analytical framework to develop context-specific knowledge about security based on people’s perceptions of what makes them secure or insecure. This approach recognizes the importance of “everyday security” whereby every day and informal practices are recognized as central for the analysis of the social, economic and political drivers of security and insecurity.
- iv. **Promote gender equality and follow the women, peace and security (WSP) agenda:** A WPS lens approach can help frame human security initiatives, particularly with a focus on participation, prevention, protection and relief and recovery. This will aim to counterbalance the lack of representation in previous security discussions at the national and regional levels in the Pacific.
- v. **Policy alignment and coherence is important:** Human security should have a clear place in policy processes on human mobility and must be aligned (“horizontally”) with security, development and humanitarian responses. In this way, human security can provide an important way to examine climate mobility and build support across important but diverse national stakeholders.
- vi. **Regional policies must resonate at the national level and support local responses:** While “Pacific regionalism” often faced challenges in generating political currency at national level, human security approaches must be based on the principle of subsidiarity and recognize the importance of building capacity for local responses that address local mobility concerns.
- vii. **Localization is an essential dimension of both human security and climate mobility:** Human security and climate mobility both must be contextually informed and grounded in local realities. These local realities include local governance capacities as well as the traditional and informal practices that shape the everyday lives of Pacific islanders.

- viii. **Understanding and addressing climate change through the lens of human security:** While climate change is a security issue, “climate security” remains contested. Human security can be a powerful way of understanding the climate security relationship that mobilizes a broad range of stakeholders to address climate threats to individuals and communities.
- ix. **Supporting the Pacific discourse on resilience:** The real value of human security becomes evident when it is operationalized in a manner that clarifies how it differs from (and advances) other policy approaches and frameworks that have compatible goals and address interconnected issues contributing to vulnerability. Building resilience resonates strongly with national responses to climate change across the Pacific.



Please visit the PCCMHS programme website to access additional material related to the programme and to find out more about what's been happening <https://environmentalmigration.iom.int/pccmhs-enhancing-protection-and-empowerment-migrants-and-communities-affected-climate-change-and-disasters-pacific-region>

AUTHOR

- Tim Westbury - IOM Consultant

GUIDANCE & SUPERVISION

- Solomon Kantha - Chief of Mission | IOM Fiji
- Sabira Coelho - Project Manager | IOM PCCMHS

REVIEW PANEL

- Shane Antonio (and colleagues from UN Human Rights)
- Prof. Richard Bedford - University of Waikato
- Sharon Bhagwan-Rolls - GPPAC
- PhD. Volker Boeger - Toda Institute
- PhD. Francesca Marzatico - University of Otago
- Prof. Jane McAdam - UNSW/Kaldor Centre
- Nina Pronin (and colleagues from the UN Human Security Unit)
- Angelica Neville (ILO)
- Chris Richter (IOM)
- Margaretha Wewerinke (Leiden University)

EDITORIAL ASSISTANCE

- Sargam Goundar (IOM)
- Ebony Hogg (IOM)

ANNEX I: A COMMON UNDERSTANDING ON HUMAN SECURITY AT THE UN GENERAL ASSEMBLY

General Assembly resolution 66/290 on 10 September 2012 was a significant milestone for the application of human security. In the resolution, the General Assembly agreed that human security is an approach to assist United Nations Member States in identifying and addressing widespread and crosscutting challenges to the survival, livelihood and dignity of their people. Based on this, a common understanding of human security was endorsed; it includes the following:

- a. The right of people to live in freedom and dignity, free from poverty and despair. All individuals, in particular vulnerable people, are entitled to freedom from fear and freedom from want, with an equal opportunity to enjoy all their rights and fully develop their human potential;
- b. Human security calls for people-centred, comprehensive, context-specific and prevention-oriented responses that strengthen the protection and empowerment of all people and all communities;
- c. Human security recognizes the interlinkages between peace, development and human rights, and equally considers civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights;
- d. The notion of human security is distinct from the responsibility to protect and its implementation;
- e. Human security does not entail the threat or the use of force or coercive measures. Human security does not replace State security;
- f. Human security is based on national ownership. Since the political, economic, social and cultural conditions for human security vary significantly across and within countries, and at different points in time, human security strengthens national solutions which are compatible with local realities;
- g. Governments retain the primary role and responsibility for ensuring the survival, livelihood and dignity of their citizens. The role of the international community is to complement and provide the necessary support to Governments, upon their request, so as to strengthen their capacity to respond to current and emerging threats. Human security requires greater collaboration and partnership among Governments, international and regional organizations and civil society;
- h. Human security must be implemented with full respect for the purposes and principles enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations, including full respect for the sovereignty of States, territorial integrity and non-interference in matters that are essentially within the domestic jurisdiction of States. Human security does not entail additional legal obligations on the part of States.

ANNEX II: PROGRAMMING RESOURCES

HUMAN SECURITY

- What is Human Security? <https://www.un.org/humansecurity/what-is-human-security/>
- Human Security Handbook: An integrated approach for the realization of the Sustainable Development Goals and the priority areas of the international community and the United Nations system <https://www.un.org/humansecurity/wp-content/uploads/2017/10/h2.pdf>
- Leave No One Behind: Harnessing lessons learned from implementing the human security approach https://www.un.org/humansecurity/wp-content/uploads/2022/03/FINAL-LNOB-Guidance-Note-for-web_compressed.pdf

CLIMATE MOBILITY

- IOM Atlas on Environmental Migration <https://publications.iom.int/books/atlas-environmental-migration-0#:~:text=As%20climate%20change%20and%20extreme,displacement%20has%20never%20been%20greater.>
- In the Same Canoe. Platform on Disaster Displacement (Bedford and Bedford, 2021) https://disasterdisplacement.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/08/PDD-In_the_Same_Canoe-2021-screen_compressed.pdf
- Report on the Impact of Climate Change on Migration, Report by the White House (2021), United States of America <https://reliefweb.int/report/world/report-impact-climate-change-migration-october-2021#:~:text=Tens%20of%20millions%20of%20people,face%20of%20life%2Dthreatening%20risks.>