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Acronyms
BBG: Bangladesh Border Guard

BSF: Border Security Force (India)

CEDAW: Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women

COP: Conference of the Parties

ESG: Environmental, Social and Governance risk

IASC: Independent Anti-slavery Commissioner

ICAT: Interagency Coordination Group Against Trafficking in Persons

IFC: International Finance Corporation

IOM: International Organization for Migration

IPCC: Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change

OHCHR: Office of the High Commissioner of Human Rights

SOM: Smuggling of Migrants

TIP: Trafficking in Persons

UNFCCC: United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change

UNEP: United Nations Environment Programme

UNESCO: United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization

UNHCR: United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees

UNICEF: United Nations Children’s Fund

UNODC: United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime

UNSCEB: UN System Chief Executive Board for Coordination
Key terms
**Adaptation:** In human systems, the process of adjustment to actual or expected climate and its effects, in order to moderate harm or exploit beneficial opportunities. In natural systems, the process of adjustment to actual climate and its effects; human intervention may facilitate adjustment to expected climate.¹

**Climate change:** A change in the state of the climate that can be identified (e.g. by using statistical tests) by changes in the mean and/or the variability of its properties and that persists for an extended period, typically decades or longer. Climate change may be due to natural internal processes or external forcings, or to persistent anthropogenic changes in the composition of the atmosphere or in land use.²

**Environmental crimes:** Can be broadly defined as illegal acts which directly harm the environment. They include: illegal trade in wildlife; smuggling of ozone depleting substances; illicit trade in hazardous waste; illegal, unregulated, and unreported fishing; and illegal logging and the associated trade in stolen timber.³

**Climate-related event:** An umbrella term for adverse events that may be attributed directly or indirectly to changes in the climate or human-driven forms of environmental degradation.

**Disaster:** Severe alterations in the normal functioning of a community or a society due to hazardous physical events interacting with vulnerable social conditions, leading to widespread adverse human, material, economic, or environmental effects that require immediate emergency response to satisfy critical human needs and that may require external support for recovery.⁴

**Facilitator:** The use of traffickers that act as brokers between other traffickers, that facilitate the buying and selling of victims, is reported in multiple cases, and showing the level of complexities of some human trafficking markets. To illustrate, Austrian authorities reported a group that specialized solely on brokering women for sexual exploitation. The role of the group was to facilitate the distribution of victims among procurers operating in different European countries. Authorities reported the group did not make use of violence but used their good reputation to relate with business partners and intimidation to relate with victims. In these schemes, victims are sold by the recruiting group to the exploiting group with brokers also profiting from negotiations over the victims’ price.⁵

**Migrant:** An umbrella term, not defined under international law, reflecting the common lay understanding of a person who moves away from their place of usual residence, whether within a country or across an international border, temporarily or permanently, and for a variety of reasons.⁶

**Mitigation (of disaster risk and disaster):** The lessening of the potential adverse impacts of physical hazards (including those that are human-induced) through actions that reduce hazard, exposure and vulnerability.⁷

**Mitigation (of climate change):** A human intervention to reduce the sources or enhance the sinks of greenhouse gases.⁸

**National Adaptation Plan:** The national adaptation plan process was established under the Cancun Adaptation Framework. It enables Parties to formulate and implement national adaptation plans as a means of identifying medium- and long-term adaptation needs and developing and implementing strategies and programmes to address those needs. It is a continuous, progressive and iterative process which follows a country-driven, gender-sensitive, participatory and fully transparent approach.⁹

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² Ibid.
⁴ IPCC, ‘Glossary of Terms’.
⁵ Ibid.
⁶ Ibid.
⁷ Ibid.
⁸ Ibid.
⁹ Ibid.
Paris Agreement: The Paris Agreement is a legally binding international treaty on climate change. It was adopted by 196 Parties at COP 21 in Paris, on 12 December 2015 and entered into force on 4 November 2016.10

Rapid/Sudden Onset Events: A rapid onset event may be a single, discrete event that occurs in a matter of days or even hours, whereas slow onset events evolve gradually from incremental changes occurring over many years or from an increased frequency or intensity of recurring events.11

Refugee: Someone who is unable or unwilling to return to their country of origin owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group, or political opinion.12

Resilience: The ability of a system and its component parts to anticipate, absorb, accommodate, or recover from the effects of a hazardous event in a timely and efficient manner, including through ensuring the preservation, restoration, or improvement of its essential basic structures and functions.13

Slow Onset Events: Slow onset events, as initially introduced by the Cancun Agreement (COP16), refer to the risks and impacts associated with: increasing temperatures; desertification; loss of biodiversity; land and forest degradation; glacial retreat and related impacts; ocean acidification; sea level rise; and salinization.14

Smuggling of Migrants: The facilitation, for financial or other material gain, of irregular entry into a country where the migrant is not a national or resident. The criminals behind this highly profitable business seize the opportunity created by the need or desire of people to escape not just poverty and lack of employment opportunities but also natural disaster, conflict or persecution.15

Vulnerability: A condition resulting from how individuals negatively experience the complex interaction of social, cultural, economic, political and environmental factors that create the context for their communities.16

Trafficing in Persons: The recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs.17

Trapped populations: People who do not migrate, yet are situated in areas under threat, […] at risk of becoming ‘trapped’ or having to stay behind, where they will be more vulnerable to environmental shocks and impoverishment.18

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12 1951 UN Refugee Convention.

13 IPCC, ‘Glossary of Terms’.

14 UNFCCC, Slow Onset Events, Accessed 20 July 2022 https://unfccc.int/wim-excom/areas-of-work/slow-onset-events#text=Slow%20onset%20events%20initially%20caused%20by%20rising%20temperatures%20combined%20with%20salinization.


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The designations employed and the presentation of material in this publication do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of the Secretariat of the United Nations concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area, or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries.

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Framing the challenge
At least 3 billion people live in contexts highly exposed to the impacts of climate change and yet more to non-climatic environmental degradation and disaster. Even if the world meets the currently improbable target of limiting global warming to 1.5°C degrees set out in the Glasgow Climate Pact, extreme weather and environmental degradation will see the deterioration of ecosystems and loss of biodiversity depended on by billions. In climate vulnerable countries, children and future generations, women, the poor (among whom the majority are women), and Indigenous Peoples, are disproportionately impacted.

The international community is expanding its response and financing. Mitigation measures aim to limit the damage by reducing and removing carbon, using regulation (like emissions limits) and technology (like carbon sinks). Adaptation measures seek to help people survive sudden-onset disasters and reconstitute livelihoods undermined by slow-onset processes that degrade soils, rivers and forests. Additional factors threaten to exacerbate climate damage and undermine mitigation and adaptation strategies. Environmental crimes accelerate the destruction of natural resources and undermine the resilience of affected populations. The economic damage of COVID-19 has intensified competition for resources, increased the precarity of people on low incomes and with insecure migration statuses, and reduced the capacity of states to respond, as does the conflict and instability seen in some climate-vulnerable countries, such as those in the Sahel. Conflict and instability undermine adaptation measures.

This brief explores how climate change, climate-related events, and crimes that affect the environment (environmental crimes) influence trafficking in persons (TIP) and smuggling of migrants (SOM), with special consideration of gender. It draws on expert interviews and a desk review to explore three key questions:

1. The effects of climate change, climate-related events, and environmental crime on TIP and SOM, and in particular its effects on women, in Part 1. Climate, movement and vulnerability.


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24 UNFCCC established a financial mechanism to support climate-vulnerable countries. Funds are managed by the Green Climate Fund (GCF) and Global Environment Facility (GEF). The GCF, for example, will see its disbursements more than double between 2021 and 2023, to $5.1 bn. Green Climate Fund. “Financing Climate Action,” 27 May 2022. https://www.greencli- mate.fund/sites/default/files/document/20220527-financing-clime- action.pdf


26 The IPPC identifies the following regions as particularly climate vulnerable: iWest-, Central- and East Africa, South Asia, Central and South America, Small Island Developing States and the Arctic. IPCC. “Climate Change 2022: Impacts, Adaptation and Vulnerability”


28 See list in annex.

29 Academic (Google Scholar and the Climate Migration Database) and grey sources, with a focus on the last three years.
4. The case of Bangladesh, a climate vulnerable and origin country for TIP and SOM, and a pioneer in adaptation, in Part 4. Environment and vulnerability in Bangladesh.

The paper concludes with Part 5. Framing the response and lists recommendations.

The analysis takes a human rights-based approach, integrating the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) human rights and gender equality toolkit, which provides practical ways of integrating the protection of rights outlined in the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (UNTOC) and sibling protocols on TIP and SOM into programmatic approaches. In particular, that approaches to countering TIP and SOM should not affect rights outlined under international human rights laws, including the 1951 Refugee Convention.\(^\text{30}\)

Part 1. Climate, movement, and vulnerability
Adverse climate impacts are felt unevenly

Humans experience the effects of changes in their environment via sudden-onset events and slow-onset processes (Table 1). Both are caused, intensified or accelerated by changes in the climate, such as global warming or sea level rises, and non-climatic drivers, including poor or illegal environmental management practices. Often, they are linked: for example (sudden-onset) flooding is common in places experiencing (slow-onset) sea level rises. Industrial activity can exacerbate the effects, particularly resource-intensive projects from infrastructure to mass farming, alongside environmental crimes including illegal pollution, logging, and waste disposal.

Half the world’s population currently experiences severe water scarcity for at least some part of the year. Ocean warming and acidification, soil erosion and desertification are causing food insecurity and reversing gains in public health, and people are dying in extreme weather events, from heatwaves to cyclones.

Impacts are uneven within societies. In extreme events, mortality among women is consistently higher. Slow-onset events affecting agriculture disproportionately impact small-scale food producers and low-income households, which are themselves disproportionately headed by women. Children, elderly people and pregnant persons are further impacted. Individuals, usually women and girls, are having to travel further to obtain water, exposing them to the risk of violence on lone journeys by foot. People with disabilities are often disproportionately impacted by climate-related emergencies with higher mortality rates and difficulty accessing emergency services.

Impacts are also uneven between countries. Drought in Australia from 1995 to 2009 and Spain in 2008 did not produce widespread food insecurity. Yet droughts hit Kenya, Ethiopia and Somalia hard, where the rural population relies on favourable weather conditions for livelihoods such as pastoralism and subsistence farming. Agricultural degradation and food insecurity has been a major driver of irregular arrivals to the US from Central America’s

Table 1
Examples of climate- and environment-related events that directly impact human society and settlements

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<th>Non-climatic</th>
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<td>Sudden-onset events</td>
<td>Extreme weather such as cyclones, forest fires, extreme heat events</td>
<td>Landslide (e.g. due to deforestation), floods (e.g. due to eroded river banks)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Slow-onset processes</td>
<td>Drought, desertification, ocean warming and acidification, sea level rise, reduced rainfall, average temperature rises, coastal erosion</td>
<td>River pollution, natural resource overconsumption, biodiversity loss, loss of abundance, water insecurity (manmade)</td>
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31 IPCC, Climate Change 2022: Impacts, Adaptation and Vulnerability.
33 Ibid.
34 Sheu, Jessica C. et al. “Potential Impact of Climate Change on Human Trafficking.”
35 IPCC, Climate Change 2022: Impacts, Adaptation and Vulnerability.
39 Ibid.
“Dry Corridor” alongside “excessive and unsustainable natural resource extraction.” Migrant smuggling on these routes is often characterised by extreme violence. Food insecurity has knock-on effects for public health, which are keenly felt by women. Ethiopia’s worst drought in 40 years threatens to derail gains in maternal and newborn health.

Adverse climate-related events require adaptation. National Action Plans — climate risk and adaptation strategies for lower developed countries introduced by the Cancun Adaptation Framework — articulate a broad range of government-led measures, from disaster risk reduction to governance reforms. Even so, populations experiencing vulnerability, such as women and the poor, will need to take continuous action to manage and repair the harm done to lives and livelihoods.

Migration can help people adapt

Environmental change is clearly already playing an important role in migration decisions. Direct effects include forced displacement due to disasters and the gradual erosion of livelihoods. Indirectly, climate is a “threat multiplier” in situations that are already driving displacement, such as conflicts, economic crisis and identity-based persecution.

Migration offers an opportunity for affected people to act, even if options are limited. From pastoralists searching for new pastures to cyclone victims finding shelter and work in cities, migration can and is successfully deployed to access safety, diversify incomes and build for the future. In such situations, those who are unable to migrate may feel trapped by the inability to move. Women in male-dominated societies may have less decision-making power and a lack of resources, therefore finding it harder to exercise agency to move.

Migrants seeking to reconstitute lost livelihoods tend to “move the shortest distance possible to find alternative work.” Slow-onset processes tend to drive these decisions more than sudden-onset events. Migration requires resources, which most people need time to gather, and in many situations these resources can be more difficult for women to acquire. Victims of sudden, more extreme events tend not to have the time to plan or save and so if they do migrate, they are less likely to be able to move long distances.

In other situations, movement is a temporary fix. Displaced populations may anticipate the swift resolution of disasters and aspire to return home, thereby placing their focus on reintegration and rebuilding in hometowns and villages, though recovery will be more difficult in places where disasters repeat with regularity. Factors like ancestral attachment, confidence in local survival strategies, and social capital may make people reluctant to migrate.

40 The term “Dry Corridor” emerged in the last three decades to describe the increasing frequency and intensity of droughts in the region. These droughts are linked to El Niño events, which are occurring more frequently and intensely as a result of climate change and have had severe impacts on agriculture and food security in the region.” Green Climate Fund. “Consideration of Funding Proposals - Addendum VI: Funding Proposal Package for FP174,” September 14, 2021. 
https://www.greenclimatefund.org/sites/default/files/document/gcf-b30-02-add06.pdf


42 Ibid

43 The Conference of the Parties (COP) to the UNFCCC acknowledged that national adaptation planning can enable countries to assess their vulnerabilities, mainstream climate change risks, and address adaptation. UNFCCC. “The National Adaptation Plan Process: A Brief Overview,” December 2012. 


45 The term “Dry Corridor” emerged in the last three decades to describe the increasing frequency and intensity of droughts in the region. These droughts are linked to El Niño events, which are occurring more frequently and intensely as a result of climate change and have had severe impacts on agriculture and food security in the region.” Green Climate Fund. “Consideration of Funding Proposals - Addendum VI: Funding Proposal Package for FP174,” September 14, 2021. 
https://www.greenclimatefund.org/sites/default/files/document/gcf-b30-02-add06.pdf


47 Identity-based persecution refers to any harassment or discrimination based on the perpetrator’s conceptualization of the victim’s identity, such as their race, gender, sexuality, religion or political affiliation.

48 Sheu, Jessica C. et al. “Potential Impact of Climate Change on Human Trafficking.”

https://publications.iom.int/books/world-migration-report-2022

50 Sheu, Jessica C. et al. “Potential Impact of Climate Change on Human Trafficking.”

51 Chapter 9, in IOM. “World Migration Report 2022.”


53 Daniel Um. Interview #3, 28 June 2022.

Migration can put people at risk

Migration can also take place in unfavourable conditions that put people, especially women, at risk of harm. Environmental events and processes do not in themselves cause trafficking in persons and smuggling of migrants. However, they can create unfavourable conditions at three levels: personal, situational, and contextual, with existing vulnerabilities exacerbated by environmental issues.

Personal
Economic hardships increase the supply of people seeking to migrate, with some looking to recruit and exploit people. People on lower incomes often depend on natural resource-based livelihoods, which are more likely to be disrupted by extreme weather events and other forms of environmental harm. People with insecure land tenure may find it more difficult to resist land grab or access compensation.

Depleted savings or resources make affected populations more susceptible to offers from traffickers that promise to restore livelihoods or cope with losses, such as those advertising fake or deceptive job offers, the “sale” of children, exploitative work arrangements, and coercive labour practices. A lack of financial resources further limits the possibilities of migrating longer distances, instead limiting affected people to nearby opportunities in the same industries that undermined their initial livelihoods in the first place, or making them dependent on potentially exploitative arrangements with agents. Traffickers usually recruit, rather than kidnap, through “manipulation of consent” with threats attached to the lending of money. The process often begins with the voluntary engagement of a broker, agent or facilitator. The process can be used to trap migrants in debt-based servitude. Traffickers may charge large, up-front payments for recruitment services or lending money to families then using the debt as leverage to compel victims into exploitative labour.

While economic hardship increases TIP and SOM risk, other factors may mitigate this. For example, families may choose access savings or sell off livestock and other assets during hard times. Separately, disaster and hardship may disrupt the patterns of everyday life, such as cultural connections and rituals, that in fact reduce the occurrence of child trafficking through marriage.

Situational
Social norms, such as identity-based discrimination, make some groups in these situations more vulnerable than others. Understanding gender equality through an intersectional approach ensures that interventions are based on an understanding of the convergence of different backgrounds, identities, and characteristics. Intersectional characteristics such as ethnicity, race, religion, age, sexual orientation and class can compound discrimination based on sex and on gender roles founded upon the cultural meanings given to being male or female. For

57 Sometimes the opposite is true, for example cases in several Pacific Islands highlighted by Maebiru, Veronica, Samantha Ryan, and Julian Tung. “Sexual Exploitation of Children by Travelling Workers in the Solomon Islands,” 31 August 2021. https://ecpat.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/08/Save-the-Children.pdf
58 UNODC. “UNODC Toolkit for Mains and Gender Equality.” p.16

61 Smuggler, when concerning unlawful international migration. Ibid
64 UNODC. “UNODC Toolkit for Mainstreaming Human Rights and Gender Equality.” p.16.
example, female-headed households, perhaps resulting from the migration of male household heads, may face heightened stigma, difficulty in accessing the labour market, and therefore exposure to exploitation risk. Indigenous peoples who choose or are forced to migrate away from their traditional lands often face double discrimination as both migrants and as indigenous peoples.\(^{67}\) Taking this intersectional perspective into account to recognize interrelated identity factors can help stakeholders to dismantle the layers of inequality and discrimination that may hamper response to trafficking in persons and smuggling of migrants.\(^ {68}\) This approach is coherent with the principle of leaving no one behind.

Migration itself may put people in a vulnerable situation through dislocation from supportive networks and protective social capital. Women and girls arriving alone or heading households may face stigma and specific risks from gender-based violence and trafficking. Internal migrants or internally displaced persons often lack resources and therefore settle among other socio-economically marginalised residents.\(^ {69}\)

**Contextual**

The capacity of criminal justice systems or strength of government policies may be more limited, and there may have weaker protection mechanisms\(^ {70}\) in industries operating in climate-vulnerable countries. Where government institutional and financial capacity is limited, residents may be left to “bear the brunt of disasters.”\(^ {71}\) Environmentally harmful and socially exploitative commercial activity often takes place in remote parts of countries where the presence of the state is limited.

Migration policies and legal frameworks in receiving states usually do not recognise climate-specific migration drivers as a legitimate reason for humanitarian protection. Few can access forms of managed mobility supported by the international community, such as resettlement, family reunification, or labour migration schemes.

Precarious legal status can be used as a means of control by traffickers who leverage victims’ fear of repatriation, while people less knowledgeable about international travel or less able to pay may be more likely to turn to irregular migration. The latter may put them at risk of harm by aggravated forms of smuggling\(^ {72}\) and potentially trafficking, violence and extortion from other actors such as police, and risks related to lack of shelter, the geographic terrain, and lack of basic services on route.\(^ {73}\) This includes children “pushed into” unsafe migration by climatic events.\(^ {74}\)

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68 UNODC. “UNODC Toolkit for Mainstreaming Human Rights and Gender Equality.”p.16.

69 Interview #1, 23 June 2022.

70 IOM, “The Climate Change - Human Trafficking Nexus.”


72 The UN Protocol on the Smuggling of Migrants refers to aggravated smuggling as circumstances: (a) That endanger, or are likely to endanger, the lives or safety of the migrants concerned; or (b) That entail inhuman or degrading treatment, including for exploitation, of such migrants. For further discussion, see also the UNODC report: “Abused and Neglected: A Gendered Perspective on Aggravated Migrant Smuggling Offences and Response.” https://www.unodc.org/documents/human-trafficking/2021/Aggravated_SOM_and_Gender.pdf


Part 2. Climate, industry and exploitation
Some industries pose specific environmental and social risks

The private sector is well-positioned to strengthen and undermine both mitigation and adaptation strategies, to the benefit or detriment of stakeholders such as workers and their families in climate-vulnerable countries. Even where environmental safeguards are robust, business models depend on raw materials, land, and other natural resources can have a significant environmental impact. Illegal practices or the manipulation of the law or officials to provide legal cover pose additional risks.

Measuring the impact of environmental harm is difficult and an ongoing task. Nevertheless, some industries are more often than not associated with environmental harm and its social consequences. Fisheries, cattle ranching, gold mining, brick kilns, palm oil, wind power, and solar panels all have relatively high incidences of forced labour. TIP risks are not always obvious, as transnational supply chains are hard to map. The renewables sector faces the challenge of ushering an era of green energy justly, without the collateral of negative social outcomes. (See Box 2).

Industry-led environmental harm can increase the threat already posed by climate change. In the Bangladesh Sundarbans (more detail in Part 4), sea level rises, saltwater flooding to create shrimp ponds, and land grabs have reduced the availability and viability of land for homestead crops or fruit cultivation. This followed land loss in earlier decades due to mangrove destruction, which quickened soil erosion and increased the vulnerability of farming land to flooding. An upstream dam and overfishing further undermined fishing livelihoods, increasing dependence on day wages.

The adverse social consequences can be further multiplied by the risk factors described in section one. Deforestation in Indonesia, Brazil and elsewhere for environmentally-degrading industries including cattle, timber, mining, charcoal, and palm oil lead to insecurity of land tenure for local communities, undermining small-holder farming and the ability of communities to leverage their land for other commercial activities. The privatisation and nationalisation of rangelands places pressure on transhumance, a centuries-long and global adaptation strategy. Resistance by individuals in climate-vulnerable countries can further heighten vulnerability. Protests against land insecurity around the world have been linked to violent intimidation and murder, as well as sexual harassment, which disproportionately affects women and girls.

Resource-intensive industries are often labour-intensive, too. Where labour demand cannot be filled locally, labour recruiters often step in to source workers from further afield. Such industries are often present in contexts that share other key factors risk factors in common, including "informal markets and operations; low wage and seasonal work; inherently dangerous working conditions; operation in remote and isolated environments removed from monitoring and enforcement; and diffuse illegal extraction of natural resources that increasingly attracts transnational criminal organizations as natural resources become more scarce."93

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76 Interview #13, 25 July 2022. UNODC
77 For a discussion of the research into sectors with a high incidence of forced labour that also contribute to climate change, biodiversity loss, and environmental crimes, see GFEMS. “Contribution to OHCHR Call for Inputs: Trafficking of Persons in the Context of Climate Change,” May 2022. http://owncloud.un.org/v/xKFQa8RmZP4mSGn9
79 Farakka Barrage in India.
80 Deforestation further undermines mitigation strategies through reduced carbon sequestration. University of Nottingham Rights Lab. "University of Nottingham Rights Lab (Dr Bethany Jackson) Contribution to OHCHR Call for Inputs: Trafficking of Persons in the Context of Climate Change." May 2022. http://owncloud.un.org/v/xKFQa8RmZP4mSGn9
82 In the transition minerals sector, Indigenous Peoples are disproportionately represented among human rights defenders and particularly at risk. GFEMS. “Contribution to OHCHR Call for Inputs: Trafficking of Persons in the Context of Climate Change.”
In Thailand, most workers in the shrimp processing industries are migrants from Myanmar and roughly 20-30 per cent are working in conditions amounting to forced labour and may have been trafficked. The extractive industries (see Box 1. Mining) tend to rely on a large human labour force employed in countries with weaker governance. Exploitation within the industries is common. By their nature, extractive processes damage land and ecosystems. Local people usually need to move, a process that may or may not be managed. The migration of usually male workers to fulfil labour market demand in such industries often creates demand for an auxiliary workforce too, such as prostitution or manufacturing factories, with positions often filled by trafficked boys, girls, and women.

Extreme weather events increase vulnerabilities in the affected population but also generate demand for labour. Reconstruction efforts can create an urgent need for labour, namely in construction where the trafficking risk is greater. For example, research shows the movement of labour from the agricultural to construction sector in response to earthquakes in Indonesia; Thai nationals may have been trafficked to help with the reconstruction effort following Hurricane Katrina.

Regulation is improving but limited in scope and enforceability

Responsible practices in the private sector are driven by a variety of forces, from intrinsic ethical standards, local and international laws and regulations, civic responsibility and industry standards, and the choices and pressures put on them by stakeholders in their business, such as customers.

Efforts to formally regulate the environmental and social risk reporting of the private sector are advancing but are likely to remain limited in terms of the number of companies and sectors covered by the regulations and their explicit attention to gender- and migration-sensitive details. Regulation is challenged by enforcement difficulties in sectors that operate where monitoring and enforcement is difficult.

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86 This has been reported in the mining and wider extractive sector. See for example Steele, Sarah. “Human Trafficking, Labor Brokering, and Mining in Southern Africa: Responding to a Decentralized and Hidden Public Health Disaster.” International Journal of Health Services: Planning, Administration, Evaluation 43, no. 4 (2013): 665–80. https://doi.org/10.2190/HS.43.4.e.


88 Sheu, Jessica C. et al. “Potential Impact of Climate Change on Human Trafficking.”


Box 1. TIP in the mining industry: Africa and Latin America

Forced labour and sexual exploitation on mining sites has been frequently documented across the globe. Governments often struggle to address the issue due to:

- The remoteness of mining sites - organised criminal groups in Colombia were found to be trafficking women with impunity¹ while remoteness has allowed the sex trade to flourish at mines across Latin American, from Bolivia to Peru.
- Lack of oversight of local police or dominance of private forces – in Tanzania, local police and private security forces at a mine owned by a Canadian company were documented coercing sex from women.²
- Informal labour arrangements – while multinationals may strive for compliance with labour and environmental laws, much of the sector – including the supply chains of those same multinationals – operates informally. Artisanal mining is characterised by weak organisation, clandestine and unaccountable operations, abuse, unsafe conditions.³
- Uneven regulation across jurisdictions - the smuggling of precious metals via countries with weaker laws or regulatory mechanisms can make origins difficult to trace.¹ Verité reports how gold can be imported into the UAE in hand luggage, then re-exported with limited scrutiny to Western European markets.³
- Displacement and pollution - the environmental effects of mining, in particular informal and illegal mining, can be devastating to natural-resource based livelihoods. Desertification, where mining takes place in arid drylands, can lead to vegetation loss and pressure on livelihoods that may pressure people into turning to negative coping mechanisms including the acceptance of precarious work.⁵

Estimating the prevalence of trafficking victims working on or near mining sites is difficult. A 2014 survey in Democratic Republic of the Congo, suggested that 3.7% (or one in 27 workers) may have been trafficked, and 0.9% (one in 100) may have been forced or deceived into sex work, all of them women and girls.² UNODC will also release a study on the prevalence of forced labor in gold mining sites in the state of Pará, in the Brazilian Amazon.


* definitions and survey question formulations vary, quote figures with caution.
The responsible investment and business conversation is well positioned to act

Investors from pension funds to development finance institutions have unique leverage over companies that depend on their capital. Investors determine the price at which companies in their portfolio can access capital and can set standards for how companies assess and mitigate risks related to the environment, social issues, and companies’ internal governance standards (ESG). Most progress has been made around environmental standards, with social issues lagging behind (and the links between the two even further behind).

Even the leading standard-bearers have made limited progress in integrating migration and mobility concerns. For example, the International Finance Corporation’s (IFC) Performance Standards are routinely applied to major infrastructure, extractives, and renewables projects across climate-vulnerable countries. The IFC standards require robust assessments of involuntary displacement, refer to the “negative socioeconomic impacts of displacement” and require “livelihoods restoration plans” where relevant, and attention to the risk of forced labour in the workforce.

A recent review of the Green Climate Fund’s (GCF) Environmental and Social Safeguards similarly identifies the risks of forced labour in the supply chain and trafficking victims in the workforce. Neither tackle the potential for portfolio companies to create TIP risk through their own commercial activities, though other GCF documents do.

The initial challenge is to make the link between commercially-driven environmental harm and TIP risk more visible. For example, while companies are expected to compensate people displaced by their projects, the displaced persons’ integration — and potential exploitation — at destination are not routinely considered. This may mean that social protection mechanisms, local authorities and local law enforcement at destination are unfairly burdened without compensation.

92 IFC. “IFC Performance Standards on Environmental and Social Sustainability”.
93 Except a requirement not to employ trafficked persons.
95 More commonly, law enforcement would receive funds to maintain security at production sites.
Box 2. TIP and the Just Transition

Moving the global economy from fossil fuels to renewable energy will require new infrastructure and technology on a massive scale. This ‘green transition’ is critical to mitigating damaging climate-related changes on people and nature but carries its own risk of negative environmental and social impact.

Local populations may see water sources diverted or be pressured to vacate land to make way for hydroelectric dams or wind farms, losing jobs and community support systems in the process. Indigenous groups and women, among those most likely to rely on land-based livelihoods and least likely to have secure land tenure, are most adversely affected. Some will be at greater risk of negative coping mechanisms, unsafe migration, and being targeted by traffickers. Evidence shows that socioeconomic outcomes are frequently negative,1 compensation is often too little (if paid at all),2 and resettlement schemes can fail to account for social dislocation.

For example, people displaced by the construction of the Belo Monte Dam in Brazil were found to be worse off if they moved to cities, far from family and friends.1 In Turkey, the government resettled families affected by the Ilisu Dam construction in a purpose-built village called New Ilisu. Follow-up studies found that the lack of economic opportunities caused many to migrate to urban slum areas in nearby cities.2

While some are displaced by renewables projects, others are moving to fulfil demand. Sharp rises in demand for polysilicon and cobalt for solar panel and electric car battery production risks growing exploitation in Chinese and Congolese mines respectively.4

Data on longer-term outcomes, including the actual rate of TIP in such situations, are rarely available. Impact and risk assessments tend not to consider trafficking in persons risk and rarely conducted once projects begin.

The business case for more ethical practice faces challenges

Compelling commercial arguments for responsible practices and compliance with international standards (the “business case”) can complement regulations, human rights-based imperatives, and investor-driven standards. Businesses may be concerned about reputational damage caused by negative media exposure of human rights abuses. Conversely, businesses and supply chains that pay attention to worker welfare can reap commercial benefits in the form of productivity, staff retention, and more lucrative contracts from ESG-conscious buyers.97

Market dynamics can blunt the persuasiveness of the business case, especially among smaller business owners operating in sectors with tight margins. Depletion of fish stocks in Thai fishing has placed downward pressure on working conditions as business owners try to survive in an increasingly competitive industry. Likewise, companies struggling to compete in the global construction sector may reduce working conditions and costs to compensate for the rising costs of raw material.99 Global warming will exacerbate this, as the costs of maintaining essential infrastructure such as buildings, transportation and energy increase, resulting in higher demand for cheap labour.100

96 Where companies view sustainable practice not (just) as the right thing to do but actually as profitable.
100 IPCC. “Climate Change 2022: Impacts, Adaptation and Vulnerability.”
Part 3. Legal, policy, and criminal justice responses
Climate policies rarely integrate criminal justice perspectives

While the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) noted the links between climate change and migration as early as 1990, migration has only been seriously considered in climate policy since the 2010 Cancun Adaptation Framework, and even then, without a clear link to its gendered dimensions. Despite acceptance that the adverse effects of climate change affect women and men differently, most analysis of climate-related migration remained gender-neutral well into the 2010s.

The Nansen Initiative is probably the most advanced in highlighting the increased risks to unsafe migration and trafficking of people affected by climate change and disasters. The IPCC notes that extreme weather and climate impacts increase violence against women and girls, including through TIP. In 2022, OHCHR’s Special Rapporteur on the promotion and protection of human rights in the context of climate change noted the vulnerability to exploitation of those without legal status.

Despite this, TIP-climate links are rarely made explicit. Submissions to the Special Rapporteur on trafficking in persons, especially women and children, in the context of her report to the General Assembly in 2022 focusing on TIP and climate change, in many instances recognise that climate-related risk factors, such as poverty, coincide with TIP- and SOM-related risks. For example, while “Tropical Cyclone Yasa and Tropical Cyclone Ana, which hit Fiji in December 2020 and January 2021, respectively, destroyed entire villages and crops, forcibly displacing people, and putting them at risk of trafficking,” attention to the climate change-trafficking nexus is notably absent.

At the multilateral level, the 2015 Paris Agreement makes passing reference to migrant rights. The Global Compact on Migration aims to both eradicate trafficking in persons and support climate-related migration but does not link the two. The Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction notes the need for shelter and food to displaced persons and alternate livelihoods but does not consider TIP explicitly.

Regional and international agreements and dialogues tend not to make explicit the links between environmental harm and TIP/ SOM-related vulnerabilities. They include the Paris Agreement, which emphasises gender equality and the empowerment of women, The African Union Climate Change and Resilient Development Strategy and Action Plan (2022-2032), which is strong on migration, and the Con-
Climate, Crime and Exploitation 2022

A large part of the financial resilience of populations experiencing vulnerability is where climate financing tools can respond to the trafficking risk in emergency contexts. Such crimes often contribute to or exacerbate the effects of slow onset climate and environmental damage. More robust measures to tackle marine pollution, for example, will both support climate goals and temper ocean acidification, which is reducing the viability of fishing as a livelihood and in certain places driving people to situations of exploitation.

Emergency responses are more sophisticated than slow-onset

Slow-onset processes get less attention from governments and international agencies concerned with the trafficking risk of high-profile sudden-onset disasters. The response to the trafficking risk in emergency contexts has been well established over the last two decades, with the aftermath of the 2004 Tsunami in South Asia.


Climate financing could meaningfully tackle TIP/ SOM vulnerability

“Few migration-focused activities are financed by global climate and environmental financing instruments” but the alternative livelihood components of major financing instruments tackle common risk factors. Securing land tenure and supporting sustainable livelihoods is a central aim of the $12 billion Green Climate Fund. Under its ‘Livelihoods of People and Communities’ results area, the GCF will support the financial resilience of populations experiencing vulnerability. There is scope to link livelihoods activity more explicitly to TIP and SOM risk.

A second synergy is where climate financing tools aim to tackle environmental crime. Such crimes often contribute to or exacerbate the effects of slow onset climate and environmental damage. More robust measures to tackle marine pollution, for example, will both support climate goals and temper ocean acidification, which is reducing the viability of fishing as a livelihood and in certain places driving people to situations of exploitation.

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Climate, Crime and Exploitation 2022
Climate change will stretch the capacity to protect and prosecute

With an increase in the unlawful exploitation of both climatic and non-climatic sudden and slow environmental impacts, the rule of law and role of litigation in preventing crime and protecting its victims is increasingly important. Where climate change litigation has been comparatively rare, greater public consciousness may be making it more common. As one example among many is the lawsuit brought by civil society organisations against the governments of Tanzania and Uganda before the East African Court of Justice seeking an injunction to stop the East African Crude Oil Pipeline, alleging improper environmental, social, human rights and climate assessments.

Yet the scale and fast-changing nature of the challenges threatens to overwhelm limited capacity. In many contexts, law enforcement are the first responders to climate-related disasters as well as the consequences of slower-onset events, including conflict emanating from tension over scarce resources, youth in vulnerable situations being recruited by armed groups, and TIP and SOM. Meanwhile, the frequency and severity of extreme events is already overwhelming some governments’ capacity to respond, especially those whose economies have been hard hit by COVID-19, such as the Pacific Island States.

While the risk of trafficking in humanitarian emergencies is severe, the scale is greater outside of emergency contexts, where established recruitment patterns and irregular migration routes intersect with worsening conditions to create a more ready supply of potential victims. Moreover, the focus on emergency contexts can mean that “those most affected are positioned only as victims, with limited opportunities to … participate in the design … of policies” affecting them.

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Part 4. Environment and vulnerability in Bangladesh
Introduction

This case study explores the links between environmental change and trafficking in women and girls between south Bangladesh and major cities in India. Evidence is drawn from interviews with 25 representatives of government, private, civil society, and criminal justice sectors, and survivors of human trafficking conducted in August 2022 during a field visit to four districts in Bangladesh’s Khulna Division: Bagerhat, Jashore, Khulna, and Satkhira.

Research, NGO reporting, and survivor testimony have repeatedly shown patterns of exploitation among Bangladeshi women and girls migrating to Kolkata, New Delhi, Mumbai, and elsewhere. Survivor testimonies submitted to NGOs and to researchers in this study, have shown that environmental changes factor into the decision to migrate and vulnerability to accept ultimately misleading offers of work.

The environmental changes can be attributed both to climate change and other issues, such as pollution and biodiversity loss. From a climate perspective, TIP survivors have decided to migrate after the loss of assets and natural resource-based livelihoods due to devastating cyclones or due to slower processes that decimate crops, such as irregular rainfall and saline intrusion. When whole communities face hardship, local economies can be compromised far beyond subsistence farmers and fishers.

In 2018, Bangladesh documented 355 rescues of internal TIP victims, 1,400 border interceptions, and 119 repatriations from India alone, figures that are unlikely reflect the full scale. However, reliable estimates of the rate of exploitation — and the extent to which environmental factors are responsible relative to other issues — are lacking. However, this case study shows there is enough evidence to warrant further investigation.

Climate-related impacts will intensify over the coming decades

Bangladesh is the seventh most climate-vulnerable country in the world. Sudden- and slow-onset climate change have caused loss to life, property, and productive assets nationwide. Over the next 30 years, average temperature, sea level, and precipitation increases could make cyclones more intense and expand flood-affected areas by 20 percent. In some places, industrial development has reduced the dependability of water, air, and other natural resources, even as it has created jobs that may benefit those displaced by extreme weather and other events.

Migration and mobility will remain important

Migration has been an important response to climate change, among other risks and opportunities. At least 7.8 million Bangladeshis live abroad and

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132 This case study has been developed in the framework of GLO.ACT – Bangladesh, a joint initiative by the EU and UNODC being implemented in partnership with IOM, led by the Government of Bangladesh. Through targeted, innovative, and demand-driven interventions, the project aims to support the Government of Bangladesh and civil society organizations to more effectively fight the crimes of human trafficking and migrant smuggling across the country. The project works on developing evidence-based information on trafficking and smuggling patterns and trends, legislative review and harmonization, capability development of criminal justice actors, and international cooperation. The project also provides direct assistance to victims of human trafficking and migrants in vulnerable situations through the strengthening of identification, referral, and protection mechanisms.


remittances doubled between 2010 and 2020 (before halving again in a single year, 2022). Rates of internal migration – voluntary internal migration to forcibly displacement – are even greater.

Bagerhat, Jashore, Khulna, and Satkhira districts contain key points of origin, transit, and destination. Before the opening of Padma bridge these districts were 5-7 hours’ drive from Dhaka, where many women from the region work in households, the garment sector, and prostitution – now with the opening of the bridge they are just 2-3 hours away, for many residents in Bangladesh’s south, bringing economic opportunities in Dhaka closer than Kolkata for the first time in centuries.

The region has more recently been characterised by male labour emigration to Gulf Cooperation Council countries and East Asia. There has been chain migration of mostly men from some villages referred to as “mini Malaysia” and “mini Kuwait”, with high levels of exploitation at destination in the construction and hospitality sectors. This is directly linked with the vulnerability of so-called ‘left behind’ women, creating an increasing number of female-headed households, who, due to social (and sometimes related economic issues), are particularly vulnerable to local harassment, unsafe migration, and targeting by traffickers.

TIP trends take place against a backdrop of foreign and domestic investment and job creation. Mongla Sea Port is both a transit point for (irregular) travelers to Malaysia and heralded as a growing destination for small scale traders and relocating farmers, many of whom are relatively prosperous.

Migration and remittances have come to play an important role in household and national finances, as well as providing social and other benefits, but for many, come with a heavy cost. Though comprehensive data on trafficking in persons and smuggling of migrants does not exist, the evidence shows that human trafficking persist in the country.

In interviews, it was reported that women and girls were trafficked in the past 1-2 years and sexually exploited in Maharashtra and West Bengal and there was an increasing trend of traffickers leveraging promises of stardom via Tik Tok and other social media. Internal trafficking, even within the district, may be common but largely undocumented. In the past, villages in Khulna provided boys, trafficked for camel racing.

**Disaster and slower degradation are mostly making lives harder**

Sudden-onset events such as Cyclone Amphan and monsoon ‘super floods’ in 2020 are just two examples of increasingly frequent events that cause loss to life, land, livestock, and homes. A survey showed that storm risks were most widespread in Satkhira (96 percent of households) and Bagerhat (85 percent) and flooding risk significant in Bagerhat (33 percent). Another survey showed waterlogging, a latent effect of Cyclone Amphan combined with

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143 A National Study on Trafficking in Persons in Bangladesh is being finalized by the Government of Bangladesh with the support of UNODC, and with the financial support of the European Union in the framework of GLO.ACT- Bangladesh (forthcoming).

heavy rainfall, affected the most households in Satkhira.\textsuperscript{146} Separately, humanitarian responses repeatedly highlight the trafficking risk to affected women and girls where protection responses are inadequate.\textsuperscript{147}

Slow-onset processes can devastate livelihoods, though their impact is more difficult to quantify. Across the region, affected communities have made changes to adapt, many switching from subsistence activities in farming, fishing, and forestry activity to paid work in the same or new and emerging sectors. Initially, wide-scale rice farming gave way for land-based fish farming, particularly shrimp. The farmers who remain must contend with erratic, unreliable seasons. Farmers must often adapt multiple times: some farmers who took loans in 2021 to diversify their crops in response to changing weather patterns have begun defaulting as reduced rainfall in 2022 has meant a poor return on investment.\textsuperscript{148}

Alongside cyclones and sea level rises, human interference — from dams designed to hold back floodwaters to intentional saltwater flooding — have made freshwater ponds and rivers more saline.\textsuperscript{149} Salinity intrusion makes it harder for saline intolerant crops, trees, and fish to grow, as well as reducing the availability of fresh drinking water for humans and livestock alike. It triggered the rapid rise in land-based fish farming and new programmes exist to support the growth of saline-resistant crops and trees, the latter part of well-established reforestation and afforestation programmes.

The struggle for centuries-old Sundari trees to survive in saline waters,\textsuperscript{150} as well as illegal logging, undermines the area’s natural defences against extreme weather. As subsequent floods and cyclones reach further inland, freshwaters become more brackish, killing more trees. The result is a vicious cycle between sudden- and slow-onset impacts, exacerbated by lawful and unlawful natural resource exploitation. The consequences for local people are more devastating extreme weather events without the protective cover of the trees. This leads to increased losses, driving financial precarity and potentially the fallback on negative coping mechanisms, including TIP.

**Climate-related losses can increase risk exposure to trafficking**

Traffickers still favour those in financially difficult situations and ‘ordinary’ people sometimes turn to trafficking when they face financial difficulty themselves. Environmental disasters can tip people in financial difficulty over the edge, making job offers that may have come across as dubious seem timely and relevant. As one survivor shared, “during floods, I used to live in complete poverty with insufficient food… when someone promised me a high income [through work abroad] … I thought she was just thinking about my family”.\textsuperscript{151}

In the Sundarbans, where poverty and forced labour are documented but less visible, “the situation so desperate that women are catching cow dung for fuel before it has even fallen to the ground”.\textsuperscript{152} The desperation is underlined by the wages on offer in the fake jobs presented, in one case just BDT 10,000 (USD 105), which is just a little higher than she would have received in a shrimp processing factory and less than a school teacher would get.\textsuperscript{153}

Financial leverage often combines with the convenience of location and the disappearance of family and community protections. People on the move, including TIP.

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\textsuperscript{148} Disruption to Bangladesh’s six seasons (sadartu) is making it harder for farmers to know when to plant and harvest, affecting yield.


\textsuperscript{150} Bangladesh Forest Department. “Bangladesh Forestry Master Plan 2017-2036.”

\textsuperscript{151} Interview #31, 12 August.

\textsuperscript{152} Interview #17, 11 August.

\textsuperscript{153} In high season, the work of shelling and beheading shrimps can fetch BDT 8,000-10,000, depending on performance. Interview #21, 10 August.
whether displaced or not, and those living in non-traditional (or “broken”) families, were targeted by traffickers. Survivors described traffickers, mostly known to them and therefore somewhat trusted, travelling with them over the border and effectively delivering them to new employers.

Women and girls face specific financial and cultural challenges

Gender-based violence, especially of female-headed households, perpetuates social norms that are used to justify the exploitation of women. High levels of male labour emigration, driven by limited local opportunity among other factors, makes female-headed households in some areas relatively common. Divorcees, orphans, step-children — most frequently female — are more likely to be dependent on non-direct family members, who may leverage familial trust to deceive.

Other environmental issues can entrench patriarchal norms and make women more vulnerable. Freshwater shortages contribute to hardship, the desire to migrate, and sexual exploitation. Women and girls must travel further distances for drinking water, increasing risks of sexual harassment on isolated routes. With proper hygiene impossible, some take contraceptive pills to interrupt menstrual cycles. Women and girls working in land-based fishing face harassment from male owners and workers, especially those “required to dive under the water to catch shrimp fry”. The sighting of saltwater crocodiles, now more comfortable in the brackish waters near farms, adds terror to precarity. When there’s flooding, children cannot go to school, and harassment may increase.

The pursuit of alternative livelihoods raise further ecological questions

Decent jobs would be a bulwark against trafficking risk. Yet the three key areas in which local jobs are being created also highlight a keen tension between economy, ecology and poverty:

1. Khulna’s Rampal and Orion coal plants are seen as critical to meeting Bangladesh’s growing energy demand, perhaps powering the industries that will lift thousands of climate-affected people out of poverty. Yet the waste from the coal mines needed to serve them has seen the loss of fish, crops, and clean water and locally the extent and implications of water, air, and land pollution is disputed.

2. The Sundarbans mangrove forest is a carbon sink of global ecological and national social and economic importance, and its protection is critical to mitigating the effect of emissions, including from Rampal Power Plant. To allow several fish species to recover during breeding seasons, the government implemented a three-month ban on entry and economic activity. The 180,000 or so people dependent on the forests to make a living are reliant on aid during this time. Even without the ban, most people reliant on the forest are unlicensed and their means of survival unlawful.

3. The earlier flooding of rice paddies with salty water to farm shrimp, crab, and other

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154 Interview #26, 14 August.
156 Interview #30, 14 August.
157 Interview #19, 11 August.
159 “Mangrove forests only account for 0.5% of the total coastal ocean area, but are responsible for 14% of carbon sequestration by the global ocean.” A study found that factory emissions in Kolkata were 98% sequestered by the Sundarbans. Connecticut College. “Carbon Sequestration – Life in the Sundarbans Mangrove Forest.” Accessed August 15, 2022. http://uddin.digita l.conn coll.edu/sundarbans/global/carbon/
land-based fish farm saw exports flourish for some time. The shrimp and crab industries are crucial employers in the region. Yet the intensity of farming saw fish-borne viruses flourish, while consolidation in the sector has seen land grabs that have made some landless. On-land fish farming can itself lead to the collapse of fish stocks (and subsistence livelihoods) through fishing for "trash feed."  

The criminal justice system is affected in unpredictable ways

Responses suggest the criminal justice system in Bangladesh is adapting too. Finding the resources and overcoming the stigma to bring cases requires support and so displaced, transient, and foreign victims can find it harder to bring perpetrators to justice. The police and the courts can find it difficult to work with displaced persons with no fixed address. The speed of climate-induced change may be matched only by technological advancements, with the criminal justice system needing to adapt fast to both and digital literacy generally low. Access to justice remains an issue for victims.

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163 Interview #27, 11 August.
Box 3. Onima*

We didn’t have any wage-earning brother, so we sisters used to grow spinach and other vegetables to sell in the market, not far from the border with India. During storms and floods, it was impossible to grow crops and so we used to live in complete poverty. There was a woman who had been coming to our village for months. She was a trader and would regularly come by to try and sell her goods, often striking up conversation with the family when she did. At the time we were in crisis, she said she could help. She claimed that as a domestic helper abroad, I could earn 7,000-8,000 BDT (73-84 USD) each month, which was about ten times what I had been earning at the market. Given our situation, it was difficult to say no. And anyway, we were quite familiar with her by that point, and assumed she was just trying to help.

After a few days, we rode a motorbike together to the border, then walked to the other side. We went to the train station, where we met another man and the woman left me. Eventually we reached Mumbai, where I worked in a brothel. One day, the brothel owner took me and others in the brothel to the market, to show me off. I ran away and found a police officer, who rescued me. Now I’m back in Bangladesh and being supported by an NGO.

* Onima is a pseudonym and some details have been merged or changed to protect anonymity.
Part 5. Framing the response
Environmental degradation triggers events and processes that make it difficult or impossible for some people to make a living. The options available to affected populations are often severely limited, especially among those with fewer assets, education and social capital living in societies that discriminate against them. Women, ethnic minorities, Indigenous Peoples, people living with disabilities are among those who more often fall into these categories.

To cope with the situation, affected people may engage in coping strategies that expose them to further risks, including SOM and TIP. Existing interventions span alternative livelihoods, land rights, social and behaviour change communications, and efforts to increase civil litigation in the environmental sphere. Opportunities exist to scale, target, and integrate interventions that work. Effective responses that integrate a human rights perspective must fulfil key criteria:

1. Realistic - the scale and complexity of TIP, SOM and environmental crime is likely to continue to exceed the capacity of states to prevent and prosecute it. As extreme weather events and other issues increase in frequency and severity, law enforcement agencies will be increasingly stretched, tasked with emergency response and law enforcement. Climate often competes for attention from policymakers dealing with the current urgent economic and health fallout from the COVID-19 pandemic.

2. Holistic - crime prevention must be accompanied by efforts to tackle the socioeconomic root causes that make people experience vulnerability, equip them with the knowledge and options to manage risks, address structural issues in the community and wider society, and make all stakeholders - from potential victims to law enforcement - aware of the modus operandi of smugglers and traffickers.

3. Sensitive to gendered and other inequalities - the exclusion of women from decision-making in developing TIP and SOM risk mitigation measures makes those measures less likely to be effective. From a climate adaptation perspective, the absence of women from innovation processes, such as the development of climate change mitigation technology, slows innovation, diffusion and uptake. There are similar challenges with the systematic exclusion of minority groups from the development of strategies and measures, though the importance of Indigenous Knowledge in climate adaptation is increasingly acknowledged. Adaptation strategies also risk placing disproportionate pressure on those least able to adapt, often women, rather than those with the resources and influence to effectively mitigate harm. Additionally, focus on criminal justice responses must not obscure the limitations of adaptation, where the speed of environmental change and frequency of extreme events can render obsolete even well-executed and-financed adaptation.

Furthermore, Indigenous peoples may be more vulnerable to irregular migration such as trafficking and smuggling due to sudden displacement by a climactic event, limited legal migration options and limited opportunities to make informed choices.

4. Politically sensitive - Internal and international migration are sometimes the most viable adaptation strategy but legal and managed migra-
tion options remain rare, increasing risk exposure to unsafe irregular migration and TIP.  

Similarly, border management is an integral part of a comprehensive migration policy but can create new crises and opportunities for TIP and SOM where human rights concerns are not effectively operationalised.

The formal and globally consistent recognition of climate-related drivers of (irregular) migration could expand the protection space by providing access to legal status, residence rights, and aid — but could be double-edged, with the unintended effect of prompting policies to reduce the perceived burden on destination states. For example, further restrictions on legal pathways to reduce arrivals.

5. Sensitive to existing efforts to address climate change, biodiversity loss and its impacts - sustainable practices to address climate change and its resultant effects must account for and seek to integrate traditional knowledge systems, and adaptation strategies to “mainstream biodiversity and catalyse collective action to address the drivers of biodiversity loss [and] restore ecosystems”. For example, Indigenous knowledge on resource governance, land rights, mitigation of climate change impact on their environment and resilience-building through the use of their traditional knowledge can make visible and help to counter harmful business practices.

6. Data-driven - the technology exists to vastly improve insights into the evolving trends of SOM and TIP, especially as perpetrators’ modus operandi moves increasingly online. However, government willingness and/ or capacity to share data is often limited. While data sharing would probably improve investigations, it also exposes the prevalence of the problem.

7. Coherent - some responses designed to help people adapt to environmental change or reduce migration-related risks may result in new risks. Adaptation and mitigation strategies can have unintended consequences. Fish farms with the potential to relieve pressure on dwindling fish stocks may cause more harm by creating demand for ‘trash feed’. Renewable energy sources are essential in transitioning to net zero but have the same social risks of any other infrastructure megaproject. Migration may initially offer a viable adaptation strategy but can introduce new risks if socioeconomic integration at destination is unsuccessful, both socially and environmentally, as new arrivals may rely on environmentally harmful coping strategies.

Additional references:

171 Additionally, the “state-led Platform for Disaster Displacement (PDD), has highlighted the absence of international legal provisions to protect displaced persons in the context of disasters and the adverse effects of climate change” but does not advocate for new legally-binding standards on admissions and return, perhaps because of their “likely failure”. UN. “Addressing the Gender Dimensions of Trafficking in Persons in the Context of Climate Change, Displacement, and Disaster Risk Reduction: Report of the Special Rapporteur on Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, Siobhán Mullally,” 2022.

172 Sheu, Jessica C. et al. “Potential Impact of Climate Change on Human Trafficking.”

173 Ibid.


177 IPCC. “Climate Change 2022: Impacts, Adaptation and Vulnerability.”

178 Jackson, Bethany, Doreen S. Boyd, Christopher D. Ives, Jessica L. Decker Sparks, Giles M. Foody, Stuart Marsh, and Kevin Bales. “Remote Sensing of Fish-Processing in the Sundarbans Reserve Forest, Bangladesh.”

179 Ibid.
Recommendations
Strategies, policies and research

1. Consistently integrate an intersectional approach to gender equality and mobility perspectives into climate adaptation strategies. While strategies consistently consider climate-mobility and climate-gender linkages, there is scope to more systematically consider the three together. Taking this intersectional perspective into account to recognize interrelated identity factors can help stakeholders to dismantle the layers of inequality and discrimination, which disproportionately affects women and girls, and may hamper response to trafficking in persons and smuggling of migrants.

2. (Continue to) shift attention and resources to slow-onset processes. Disasters with high mortality and property destruction will consume more attention and resources as they increase in intensity and severity. Yet slow-onset events are readily identifiable and may contribute to a greater scale of unsafe migration, exploitation through trafficking, public health, and gender-based violence.

3. Integrate human rights and gender transformative criminal justice perspectives into climate adaptation research and programming. Crimes that affect the environment often compound the effects of climate change, undermining livelihoods and the ability to withstand economic shocks from climate-related and other events. Crime prevention strategies will be a key pillar in the effectiveness of adaptation and mitigation.

4. Incorporate the Women, Peace, and Security (WPS) Agenda in climate adaptation talks and decision-making. It is essential to recognize the critical role of women in addressing security threats, including climate change, which drives insecurity both through direct negative impacts on environmental systems and through secondary risks such as political instability, population displacements, poverty, and hunger. Using the WPS Agenda to mainstream the disproportionate impacts of climate change on women and the security threats they pose and ensuring women’s meaningful participation in climate interventions will strengthen the response to climate change across the board.\(^\text{180}\)

5. Advocate for the private sector, especially the responsible business and responsible investor communities, to contribute to the costs of adaptation and crime prevention. While standards for responsible investing in climate-vulnerable countries include robust mechanisms for assessing the social impact and risk (and more regulation is on the way), they are often limited to addressing immediate impacts. The longer-term risks of exploitation, for example the trafficking risk to communities resettled to make way for an infrastructure project, are often out of scope, despite the additional pressure this may place on law enforcement.

6. Invest in criminal justice-aware climate research. While research into climate and migration and mobility is common, crime prevention is less often considered, despite the threat posed. More evidence is needed of the extent to which crime is already limiting the effectiveness of some climate mitigation approaches, especially where perpetrators represent industries involved in exploitative and illegal labour practices.

7. Explore the potential of big data to augment crime detection and investigation capacity. Tools to track illicit financial flows, flag suspicious transactions, track advertisements and conversations on social media platforms used for recruitment, and recognise the faces of missing persons are already supporting law enforcement.\(^\text{181}\) For example the trafficking risk to communities resettled to make way for an infrastructure project, are often out of scope, despite the additional pressure this may place on law enforcement.

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\(^{181}\) UNODC. “Successful Strategies for Addressing the Use of Technology to Facilitate Trafficking in Persons and to Prevent and Investigate Trafficking in Persons,” July 23, 2021. https://doi.org/10.1163/2210-7975 HRD-9988-0006
harm, as it becomes more known and quantified.

**Legislation**

8. Recognize environmental degradation as a factor in unsafe migration. Laws and policies on internal displacement and migration should recognize climate change as a factor and explicitly address the needs of affected victims, for example by ascribing basic rights, social protections and compensation.182 Emergency relocations will need to continue and expand, taking gender-specific needs into account, alongside longer-term relocation solutions, such as those pursued by Small Island Developing States.

9. Hold private business to account for environmental crimes that directly affect livelihoods and incomes. Compensation mechanisms and legal assistance to help affected populations bringing civil cases where environmental harm undermines livelihoods leading to displacement and exploitation. Strategic litigation could more firmly link climate, aggravated forms of smuggling, and TIP in judicial and broader public consciousness.

**Capacity building**

10. Fund law enforcement adaptation in climate-vulnerable countries. In many climate-vulnerable countries, law enforcement are first responders to disaster as well as to TIP, SOM and environmental crime. This further stretches institutions at the forefront of the climate crisis. Priorities should be outlined by states, for example in National Adaptation Plans, but could include: speeding the recruitment of women in disaster-prone areas, and TIP training for disaster first responders.

11. Promote knowledge of displacement and exploitation stemming from environmental among law enforcement. Even where legislation is sensitive to the evolving ways in which smugglers and traffickers are operating, law enforcement is often less aware of the complexities involved in migration decision-making, the manipulation of trafficking victims, and the broader dynamics of coercion and control. Training modules could be evolved to integrate more case studies of climate-related displacement, gender considerations, unsafe migration, and exploitation.

12. Establish capacity within law enforcement agencies to liaise with the agencies and personnel responsible for tackling environmental crime. Environmental crimes may be a civil matter, with civilian agencies mandated with monitoring and prevention. Investing in police capacity to assist these agencies could make investigations faster and more effective.

**Adaptation**

13. Increase financial resilience of people affected by slow-onset processes. Less attention is given to the role of slow-onset processes in increasing poverty among people less protected by social or financial systems,183 despite the association of financial hardship with a range of negative coping mechanisms, including those which undermine climate mitigation and adaptation efforts, and increasing the risks of exploitation and unsafe migration. Measures to increase resilience and reduce risk exposure include alternative livelihoods,184 improved awareness of the need for climate-affected populations to access social protection mechanisms, and innovative forms of insurance suitable to mobile populations with multiple vulnerabilities.

14. Promote coherent and mutually reinforcing adaptation and anti-TIP programming. Common factors are often associated with increased TIP and climate-related risks in the same affected communities. While there may be opportunities

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for synergetic joint programming, the first step should be to avoid programming in either area creating unintended consequences in the other. An expert-led “joint social-ecological approach” could ensure that both issues are treated evenly. 185

Dialogue and cooperation

15. Create space for collaboration between law enforcement, disaster response, environmental regulatory, and climate planning agencies. There is a common challenge across government agencies to anticipate ecological and social harms related to climate change and exacerbated by crime. Better understanding of the relation between each other’s work can streamline referrals and sharing of information.

16. Bring together alternative livelihoods actors, including women, to exchange best practice and improve coherence. Local, national and international public, private and non-profit actors employ livelihoods approaches to support climate adaptation, reduce TIP risk, and more. There is common interest in lessons learned and future, potentially collaborative planning that addresses the threat to natural resource-based livelihoods, gender-specific needs and considerations, and adverse consequences to ensure no one is left behind.

17. Engage the private sector more fully in making social media TIP and SOM free. National authorities will need the support of private companies to create a “trafficking free environment” on social media. 186 Companies such as Meta, which runs Facebook, have taken steps to understand how their platforms are used in diverse contexts. Forums that help technology companies to understand the implication of their products in transnational organised crime could open the way for more direct collaboration with the international community and national criminal justice systems on crime prevention strategies.

185 University of Nottingham Rights Lab. “University of Nottingham Rights Lab (Dr Bethany Jackson) Contribution to OHCHR Call for Inputs: Trafficking of Persons in the Context of Climate Change,” May 2022. http://owncloud.un.org/s/kFQa8RmzP4m5Gn9

186 Ibid.
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