

1 **Connecting the Dots between Climate Change, Household Water Insecurity, and**
2 **Migration**

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35 **Connecting the Dots between Climate Change, Household Water Insecurity, and** 36 **Migration**

37 38 **Abstract**

39 Climate change is now considered [a](#) primary global driver of migration, with water insecurity
40 theorized to be a key determinant. Most studies have focused on large-scale climate migration
41 events triggered by extreme weather events such as droughts, storms, or floods. But there are
42 few studies of how climate change shapes [the everyday](#) household-level [experience of](#) water
43 insecurity and subsequent migration decision-making, [beyond the](#) contexts of
44 [disasters and agricultural livelihoods—an invisible](#) 'slow drip' of migration. This
45 review proposes a [complementary, alternative](#) framework for linking climate change, household-
46 level water insecurity, and environmental migration by positioning household water insecurity as
47 a critical pathway for shaping migration decision-making in the context of socio-environmental
48 change. We present evidence that household water insecurity is a push factor that motivates
49 household members to migrate due to water-related disruptions to physical and mental health,
50 livelihoods [beyond agriculture](#), and social relationships. We close with implications for anti-
51 poverty and development initiatives, and for water interventions to mitigate forced climate
52 migration.

53
54 **Key words** water insecurity, WASH, migration, climate change

55 56 **Introduction**

57 Climate change is a [critical](#) global push factor of migration flows,
58 [along with political](#) conflict and economic inequality, and [is](#) expected to be an increasingly
59 important driver [1]. Major migration events are increasingly triggered by extreme weather
60 events [2,3] such as the Coastal El Niño 2017 in Peru [4], the drought and conflict-induced mass
61 migration of 1.5 million Syrians [5], or [by](#) political circumstances like the Rohingya migration
62 crisis from Myanmar [6]. While such events draw significant media and scholarly attention, they
63 fail to account for much climate-related migration beyond disasters. Most migration theories
64 view migration as a decision in anticipation of improvements to one's life. Though various
65 theories operationalize migration differently, the context that traditionally leads to out-migration
66 is accordingly explained by factors like low prospects for education, employment, and healthy
67 living.

68 Everyday experiences of household water insecurity—defined as the inability to 'access
69 and benefit from affordable, adequate, reliable and safe water' [7]—can complicate and
70 potentially ruin people's lives all over the world. This underappreciated phenomenon strikes at
71 the very core of human wellbeing. More importantly, given its various social and political
72 components, household water insecurity can occur in the absence of regional water scarcity,
73 [thereby inducing less-visible migration pressure that can be spatially asynchronous from regions](#)
74 [experiencing droughts or other water quantity limitations](#). Water insecurity may thus be an
75 important push factor that instigates a 'slow drip' of migration that may be misattributed to
76 generalized economic or other drivers. New Economics of Labor Migration (NELM) theory
77 positioned migration decisions as micro-scale decision making at the household level [8],
78 offering a compatible level of analysis for analyzing the pathways through which household
79 water insecurity experiences may shape migration.

80 Research communities have devoted significant time to unpacking the relationships
81 between climate change and global water scarcity [9], and between global environmental
82 change and migration [10]. Reliable water infrastructure has been considered an important non-
83 economic pull factor for migration to mega-delta cities in Asia and Africa [11]. But such studies
84 tend to be disconnected from the household scale, failing then to link these processes together
85 to understand how household water insecurity may serve as a more proximate, key push factor

86 for migration in the context of governance and climate change challenges [3] as conceptualized
87 in **Figure 1**. For example, a large household study of water-stressed sites in 23 low- and
88 middle-income countries found that one-fifth of respondents had considered moving in the four
89 weeks prior to survey due to water problems [12]. But we know little about which dimensions of
90 water insecurity, and under what conditions, people ultimately decide to go.

91 In this paper, we review this basic potential model of household water insecurity as a
92 'slow drip' driver of migration decisions, a pathway that is distinctly different from the disruption
93 of agricultural livelihoods due to climate variability.

94 We focus on aspects of the household water insecurity experience that are theorized to be

95 We focus on aspects of the household water insecurity

96 experience that are theorized to be proximate determinants of migration, organizing the
97 evidence around three migration-decision elements relevant to households in the contexts of

98 water insecurity: (1) physical health and hygiene, (2) psychosocial health, and (3) non-

99 agricultural livelihood and social disruption, while also recognizing that water and poverty can

100 interact to inhibit migration. We close by discussing the implications of this model for sustainable
101 health and development.

102
103 [FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE]

104 105 **Household Water Insecurity as a Determinant of Migration** 106 **Health and Hygiene**

107 Inadequate water, sanitation, and hygiene (WASH) contributes to the global burden of
108 disease through a variety of pathways [13] that increasingly includes non-communicable
109 diseases [14]. The volume of water used by a household has been associated with health [15]
110 and depends greatly on accessibility as determined primarily by distance, time, source type,
111 reliability and potentially cost [16]. Health concerns may be high when water collected falls
112 below five liters per person per day, distance exceeds 1 km or collection time exceeds 30
113 minutes [16]. However, there is a dearth of empirical evidence describing the relationship
114 between availability of adequate water and migration in the literature. Instead, it appears that
115 this relationship is assumed. Water quantity shortages have consistently been associated with
116 migration, e.g. in Ethiopia [17], Syria [5], Brazil [18], and South Sudan [19]. In most cases, the
117 water shortages interacted with political instability or existing internal conflict to yield large scale
118 migration.

119 In addition to droughts, water shortages can be induced by pollution, unmaintained or
120 insufficient infrastructure and other natural disasters, as seen in Pakistan [20], Brazil [21] and
121 the Dominican Republic [22]. Communities in Coastal Bangladesh have faced increasing
122 salinization of water (which increases hypertension risk, pre-eclampsia, and other health
123 concerns) and low adaptive capacity which results in increased migration propensity caused in
124 part by water insecurity [23], as well as the effects of salinity on crop production [24]. Sea level
125 rise-induced salinization of groundwater may increase migration propensity in coastal
126 communities where agriculture (and subsequent food security) is threatened [25], as well as
127 among households who cannot afford alternative water supplies. In the Republic of Marshall
128 Islands, 60% (168/268) of households surveyed said they left their home island community to
129 find water during a natural disaster and 1% said they left their community to look for water at
130 other times [26]. Residents affected by water pollution near an industrial area in Karnataka,
131 India, had higher health expenditures for adults and children, and were more likely to migrate,
132 with longer duration and at greater distances [27]. Even in high-income nations, water pollution
133 or poisoning events—even if not climate-induced—can activate desire to migrate, as seen after
134 the detection of high lead levels in the water of Flint, Michigan [28]. Concerns related to water,
135 health, and hygiene may therefore be a proximate determinant of migration.

136

137 **Psychosocial Health**

138 Living with water insecurity is associated with heightened levels of anxiety and
139 depression, and even—in extreme droughts—elevated risk of suicide [29,30]. The experience of
140 living with inadequate access to safe, reliable water does not only provoke anxiety [31], but may
141 also lead to social shame, frustrate abilities to meet important gendered social and productive
142 roles, disrupt relationships, and expose distressing inequalities and injustices. For example,
143 ethnographic work in informal urban settlements in Bolivia has established that both exclusion
144 from community water schemes and having to deal with dismissive water vendors are both
145 anger-inducing and deeply humiliating. The negative effects are most pronounced for women,
146 because of their key domestic roles in negotiating access to and using water to maintain the
147 household [32]. Women have also reported feeling embarrassed for being unable to welcome
148 visitors with safe water and often have to make trade-offs in order to provide household water
149 needs [33,34]. Recent studies have also shown water insecurity is associated with higher
150 prevalence of women's reports of domestic violence [34-36]. The role of perceived water
151 inequalities (as violations of informal institutions) can possibly be sufficiently emotional to create
152 not just domestic but also community schisms. The very particular emotional dimensions of
153 water insecurity suggest it could be an especially sensitive trigger for decisions to migrate, and
154 that its relative importance as a factor in decision-making likely varies by gender.

155
156 **Non-Agricultural Livelihood and Social Disruption**

157 The time required for water collection in settings without functioning domestic piped
158 supplies is substantial, often with pronounced seasonal variation depending on the availability of
159 surface water or wells. When water from particular sources are in high demand, queuing for a
160 turn at the pump or well-head may also be time-consuming. Water collection commonly disrupts
161 livelihoods with implications for education and work opportunities, particularly for women and
162 girls [37]. As time spent fetching water increases, girls can be pulled out of school to serve the
163 family in this "more important" capacity [38-40]. In other instances, adult women assume more
164 responsibility (and time) for water collection to keep young girls in school, but this puts further
165 pressure on those same women who have less time for other non-water-related household
166 responsibilities [41].

167 More importantly,
168 climate change and water insecurity present obstacles to participating in urban and peri-urban
169 climate change and water insecurity present
170 obstacles to participating in urban and peri-urban labor markets, but these issues receive less
171 attention than the challenges of farmers facing rainfall variability and extreme weather events.
172 The demise of small farms, in part a result of climate change and water insecurity, typically
173 results in the migration of family members to larger urban areas in search of alternative
174 employment [42]. But urban migrants' time spent collecting household water—or limited
175 available quantities—can reduce participation in income-generating activities for both men and
176 women, albeit in different ways. Household water insecurity may disrupt the ability of the urban
177 poor to pursue or maintain higher-order employment opportunities that require strict work
178 schedules or regular laundering of professional attire or uniforms. It also limits the scope of
179 employment opportunities by hampering water-related livelihoods such as hairdressing or food
180 preparation [43]. Household water insecurity exacerbates the effects of gendered household
181 roles that already limit female participation in labor markets around the world. Beyond observing
182 and reporting this phenomenon, there is little research that explicitly analyzes the negative
183 effect of household water insecurity on household income generation.

184 The time and energy required for water collection can lead to substantial opportunity
185 costs in terms of domestic tasks and social engagements, whether in the home or the
186 community. These in turn may place strain on social relationships, both with spouses and
187 neighbors, and erode social capital. In rural highland Ethiopia, women reported missing sleep

188 on account of water collection, and abuse at the hands of their husbands for not completing
189 tasks they had sacrificed on account of water collection. They also spoke of the shame they
190 experienced at not being able to meet normative standards of hospitality and propriety by
191 offering water to guests and keeping themselves and their children clean [36]. Depression and
192 shame, therefore, may result from livelihood and social disruption when water insecurity occurs
193 at the household level and can lead to, but also result from, migration [44]. [The feedbacks of](#)
194 [migration and remittances on household water insecurity in the origin community are yet](#)
195 [another consideration for future research, but are beyond the scope of this review.](#)

196 197 **Trapped Populations**

198 It is important to acknowledge that household water insecurity and concomitant poverty
199 may also serve as a barrier to migration, effectively trapping people, or creating “displacement
200 in place” [45], as seen in Flint [28]. Migration may be seen as a form of resilience, whereas the
201 most vulnerable households are more likely to become trapped populations, perhaps as a result
202 of some failed adaptation strategy [46,47]. Disasters may increase a community’s labor needs
203 or eliminate material or financial resources that enable migration [48,49]. Researchers have
204 considered the interaction between climate change and poverty on migration in a laboratory
205 setting, though with uncertain applications in the real world [50]. For example, in Kenya,
206 migration was driven by the intersection of environmental change, ineffective governance,
207 poverty, lack of adaptive capabilities, and individual desires [51]. Water’s effects on migration
208 are often gendered, with greater restrictions on women’s movements, as seen in Bolivia, where
209 water insecurity often led to men migrating and leaving women behind [52]. [Water insecurity’s](#)
210 [interactions with climate change, governance failures, and poverty to trap populations in place](#)
211 [remain understudied and are promising topics for future interdisciplinary migration research.](#)

212 213 **Conclusion**

214 Oversimplifying water’s role in migration as solely linked to agricultural production may
215 mean that development opportunities to alleviate migration pressures are missed. Experiences
216 of household water insecurity have the potential to ruin people’s lives. Here we have reviewed
217 evidence on how water insecurity can motivate household migration to mitigate disruptions to
218 their health, livelihoods, and social relationships. Although few studies have examined the
219 pathways between household water insecurity and migration propensity in the broad sense
220 described here, the science of water insecurity suggests that they are likely diverse and
221 numerous. Other prevalent experiences of household water insecurity that may increase
222 migration propensity include injury avoidance [53], minimizing social exclusion [54], and high
223 financial costs of water [55].

224 [Some scholars have suggested that governments and aid agencies should focus on](#)
225 [development policies that stabilize agricultural and livestock production \(while also improving](#)
226 [water supply systems\) to reduce the impact of climate- and water-related drivers of migration,](#)
227 [such as loss of income or income variability \[56\]. By analogy, improvements to water supply](#)
228 [systems that simultaneously improve health and hygiene, while also reducing the social and](#)
229 [psychosocial burdens of water insecurity, unlock a variety of opportunities to maximize one’s](#)
230 [well-being without leaving.](#) How can we apply these key household-level climate-water-
231 migration linkages, once specified and defined?

232 Recent high-profile integrated WASH interventions have underperformed on a narrow
233 set of child health metrics [57], but most certainly mitigated many social manifestations of
234 household water insecurity. It follows that measures of water insecurity and migration propensity
235 might be considered as a monitoring and evaluation criteria of WASH interventions to more fully
236 recognize the community- and household-level value of these interventions. New metrics of
237 household water insecurity [58,59] offer unprecedented resolution for understanding fine-scale
238 variation in water insecurity experiences in low- and middle-income settings, and allow

239 researchers to ask new questions about the complex interactions between people, the
240 environment, and migration decision-making. Geospatial tools allow the assessment of climate-
241 water-migration linkages at even finer scales that can assist evaluation of multiple Sustainable
242 Development Goal Targets [60]. Increasingly, governments and agencies have better access to
243 data, but are hampered by lack of integration of sectors toward common development goals.
244 The framework we highlighted will bridge climate change, household water insecurity, and
245 migration, and help spur precisely that integration.

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253 **Declaration of Interest**

254 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
255 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

256 **Figure Caption**

257 Figure 1. Conceptual model of the pathway between governance, climate change, household
258 water insecurity, and migration, [as an alternative pathway](#)
259 [to the most studied pathways between climate change and migration](#). The light arrows represent
260 [the most commonly studied](#) links [between](#) water security and
261 migration.

262 **References and recommended reading**

263 Papers of particular interest, published within the period of review, have been highlighted as:

- 264 • of special interest
- 265 •• of outstanding interest
- 266 • Cattaneo et al. 2019: This paper explores key features of the relationship between climate
267 change and migration, distinguishing between fast-onset and slow-onset climatic events
268 and examining the variation in migratory responses to climate events.
- 269 • Hunter et al. 2015: This paper is reviews the interdisciplinary theoretical history and drivers of
270 environmental migration, broadly speaking.
- 271 • Miletto et al. 2017: This UNESCO report examines many of the relationships between water
272 and migration through the multidisciplinary lens of gender and youth labor economics.
- 273 • Nagabhatla et al. 2020: This UNU-INWEH report summarizes many of the diverse connections
274 between water and migration with case studies from around the world.
- 275 • Sobczak-Szelc & Fekih 2020: This paper analyzes the mechanisms by which Tunisian
276 households adapt to disruptions to agricultural livelihoods and broader environmental
277 change through migration.
- 278 •• Jepson et al. 2017: This paper provides a seminal conceptualization of household-level water
279 insecurity and its constituent dimensions.
- 280 •• Rakib et al. 2019: This paper is one of the first studies to explore links between socio-
281 environmental factors, drinking water quality, public health impacts and migration risk at
282 the household level.

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