

The migration-sustainability paradox: Transformations in mobile worlds

Maria Franco Gavonel ^a, W. Neil Adger ^a, Ricardo Safr de Campos ^{a,b}, Emily Boyd ^c, Edward R. Carr ^d, Anita Fábos ^d, Sonja Fransen ^e, Dominique Jolivet ^e, Caroline Zickgraf ^f

^a University of Exeter, Department of Geography, College of Life and Environmental Sciences, Exeter EX4 4RJ, United Kingdom

^b University of Exeter, Global Systems Institute, Exeter EX4 4QE, United Kingdom

^c Lund University, Centre for Sustainability Studies, Lund, Sweden

^d Clark University, Department of International Development, Community, and Environment, Worcester, MA, USA

^e Maastricht University, Faculty of Social and Behavioural Sciences, Amsterdam, Netherlands

^f University of Liège, Department of Geography, Faculty of Sciences, The Hugo Observatory: Environment, Migration, Politics, Liège, Belgium

Corresponding author: Maria Franco Gavonel (m.franco-gavonel@exeter.ac.uk)

Abstract

Migration represents a major transformation of the lives of those undertaking movement and has been transformative of societies and economies globally. Current urbanisation and economic globalisation processes are both intertwined with major movements of populations at various scales and are driving loss of ecosystem services and unsustainable resource use. This represents a migration-sustainability paradox: migration is a driver of unsustainability as part of economic globalisation, while simultaneously representing a transformative phenomenon and potential force for sustainable development. This apparent paradox can be explained by current models of sustainability transformations not effectively incorporating the movement of populations or concluding whether and how mobility represents an opportunity for equitable and sustainable development, or a divergence from sustainability trajectories. We detail the dimensions of the transformative potential of migration and develop a generic framework for migration-sustainability linkages based on environmental, social, and economic dimensions of sustainability, highlighting identity and social transformation dimensions of migration.

Keywords: migration and mobility, sustainability, transformations, conceptual framework.

We declare no competing interests. Funding for this work was provided by the Belmont Forum Transformation to Sustainability programme under the UK Economic and Social Research Council (grant ES/S007687/1), the University of Exeter European Network Fund, and the European Research Council (grant agreement 648496) Migration as Development project.

Highlights

- Migration and sustainability raise a paradox of migration simultaneously contributing to unsustainability while being a process of social and individual transformation.
- Current theories and models of transformation fail to incorporate mobility and migration dynamics.
- Migration affects sustainability in environmental, social, and economic dimensions through processes of community, place, and human capital.
- If policies and strategies for sustainable development incorporate migration, they are likely to yield significant synergistic benefits.

1. Introduction

Theories of transformation explain how societies can shift away from current trajectories of unsustainability. Most accounts of transformation include common elements: the limitations of governance; missing institutions; dominant economic structures; and social norms and identities¹⁻⁴. The mobility and movement of capital, along with overexploitation of finite natural resources, is described as one of the principal drivers of unsustainability⁵. Contemporary globalisation is implicated in rising economic inequalities, but also political instability, conflict, environmental degradation, and climate change. Thus, the discourse on contemporary globalisation is marked by an emphasis on the unregulated flow of capital, commodities and goods, and on the impact of free trade on sustainability⁶⁻⁸. In parallel, world systems models highlight that the disruptions and dislocations inherent to the development of capitalism are the principal factors underpinning migration processes⁹. Trajectories of development interact with population movements: different forms of mobility in response to global inequality hold the promise of increased wellbeing, income and socioeconomic opportunities in both international and domestic destination areas^{10; 11}.

Despite these competing meta-theories, migration and sustainable development are rarely uttered in the same sentence. We suggest that there is a migration-sustainability paradox: the simultaneous role of migration as part of economic globalisation while at the same time being a potential force for transformative social and environmental change. In other words, spatial mobility, including the movement of labour, may be both a symptom of the unsustainability crisis and at the same time a key element of the transformation to socioeconomic and environmental features of sustainability. Such a paradox can be explained and investigated through hypotheses and data at multiple spatial and temporal scales¹². One of the limitations of current models and concepts of transformation to sustainability is that they fail to systematically account for demographic shifts, notably migration and mobility. On the contrary, migration transition theories conceptualise migration as an intrinsic part of broader social transformations processes¹³. Hence, we argue that theories of transformation to sustainability will better explain current trajectories and potential leverage points if they incorporate contemporary dynamics and challenges and opportunities of migration and associated demographic shifts.

Migration, both internal and international, is transformative of the lives of those engaged in it and of the economies and societies that are, simultaneously, source and destination of migration flows¹⁴. Migration is intertwined with societal, technological, demographic, and ecological transformations, including processes of colonialism, over timescales of centuries¹⁵. In this sense, there are long shared histories of colonial and post-colonial movements between regions of the world. Contemporary realities and political contestation results from further transitions as populations in low-fertility destination areas across the world are gradually being replaced by both internal and international immigrants¹⁶.

Under which conditions does migration represent a transformation to sustainability? We hypothesise that transformations towards sustainability are facilitated by migration if it *simultaneously* improves the three dimensions of sustainability: a) migration increases aggregate wellbeing while lowering environmental burdens; b) it reduces inequality in multiple spatial, economic, and health dimensions; and c) it represents or promotes diversity, political freedom and reduced insecurity.

Migration underpins the efficient functioning of the global economy and is an integral dimension of livelihood diversification strategies ^{17; 18}. Furthermore, mobility is a key response mechanism to a range of external stressors, and is widely regarded as being integral to development ^{14; 19; 20}. At the individual level, migration is also instrumental in mediating life course transitions, such as household formation and upskilling, thus enabling individuals and families to achieve their goals and aspirations ²¹.

The prevalent forms of migration involve international and internal movements. Between 1995 and 2017, the percentage of international migrants has remained stable, oscillating between 2.7 and 3.3 percent of the global population ²². Estimates of the number of internal migrants are inconclusive because domestic movement of people is measured in many different ways using various instruments and techniques ²³. The global stock of internal migrants in 2005, that is the number of migrants living outside their region of birth, was approximately 760 million people ²⁴, around 12 percent of the global population. Thus, migration is a ubiquitous process that takes place at different rates at domestic and international levels. Figure 1 demonstrates that there is significant diversity, even between large population countries, with the US near the top ranked countries on internal migration rates, and India close to the bottom. Between 2005 and 2010, nearly 20 percent of the population in the US had moved internally, whereas the net international migration rate is 16 people per 1000 inhabitants. In contrast, Spain has an internal migration intensity of only 3 percent, but a net international migration rate of 48 per 1000 inhabitants. Migration can be permanent, which entails a change in usual locality of residence, or temporary involving moves of varied duration including seasonal and circular mobility ²⁵.

Figure 1 here

An emerging science on migration-environment interactions has demonstrated how migration as a global social process is affected by environmental challenges and how migration alters patterns of vulnerability and adaptation ²⁶⁻²⁹. For example, although most migration is domestic, significant numbers of people are also displaced through conflict and from natural hazards, some crossing international borders ³⁰. Migration and urbanisation processes are intensifying globally, and particularly in low- and middle-income countries, because movement towards economic opportunities increases life chances and potential wellbeing ³¹. Understanding the transformative potential of migration requires incorporation of all major migration trends and future transformations.

Social transformations are closely linked to major shifts in dominant economic, political, and strategic relationships ³². On a macro scale, they represent complexity, interconnectedness, variability, context, and multi-level mediations of change. Migrants have been recognised as agents of social transformation because they bring a discrete set of cultural behaviours that facilitate a step-change in which existing socioeconomic patterns are questioned and many are reconfigured ¹³. Multicultural settings, therefore, has implications on consumption behaviour, ecological footprint or political representation as elements of economic, social, and environmental sustainability.

We conceptualise transformation processes to account systematically for the migration-sustainability interactions by incorporating migration transition dynamics. We build on theories of migration as social transformation ¹³ and migration as development ³³. Diverse aspects of sustainability as encapsulated in the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) require insights into the role of population movements ^{34; 35}. These include global trends, such as the impact of growing diversity on society in destination regions and countries. The conceptual framework also builds on

insights from development accounting on the determinants of material wellbeing across countries ³⁶⁻³⁹. Specifically, we examine how migration influences income at individual and macro levels ³³ and relationships to poverty and inequality ⁴⁰, as well as environmental burdens, such as carbon emissions, material footprint, and adaptive capacity ^{29; 41}.

2. Mechanisms and processes linking sustainability and migration

Demographic transformations are highly diversified across countries. In essence, established demographic transition theories show how societies progress from regimes of high fertility and high mortality to a post-growth state in which both fertility and mortality rates are low ⁴². The three principal components of population change are fertility, mortality and migration, and the socio-economic, cultural, institutional and political contexts of countries reflect different stages of transition ⁴³⁻⁴⁵. Transition theory explains how demographic structures across the world, evolve and alter their configuration through ageing populations, changing household composition, and migration ⁴⁶. This diversity in the composition of the population residing in a given country can yield to a process of social transformation. In turn, as countries move through the different phases of their mobility transitions, certain migration patterns become more prominent ranging from urban to rural moves to diversify livelihoods through to transnational and trans-local lifestyles ⁴⁷⁻⁴⁹.

Migration impacts on source and destination areas in a variety of ways depending upon the size, composition and nature of migration flows, as well as the specific context from which migrants are drawn, and the timing of their migration. The interaction between migrants from different socio-cultural backgrounds and the places where they move to inevitably results in different levels of engagement with the environment, consumption behaviour, urban equipment, and other socioeconomic mechanisms and processes underlying sustainability. As a result, mobility is a key element driving sustainable outcomes ^{8; 50}. The relationship between migration and development is inevitably highly contested, based on different analytical tools, conceptual frameworks, and political stances ⁵¹. Development studies and economic analysis converge in their findings that migration has, on aggregate, significant benefits at the individual level ^{10; 52}. Yet, migration brings about a complex set of demographic, socioeconomic, and environmental challenges including labour market impacts, brain drain, brain gain, resource demand, and the effects of remittances ⁵³⁻⁵⁵. Figure 2 summarises these social, economic, and environmental implications of migration for sustainability.

Figure 2 here

Links between migration and sustainability outcomes in source and destination areas through remittances are well-established ^{10; 56-58}. Migration is also linked to upward social mobility at destination ⁵⁹⁻⁶¹. Previous research suggests that emigration reduces labour supply overall and, more specifically, the supply of particular categories of emigrating workers ⁵⁴. As a result, if the unemployed are more likely to migrate, then migration may diminish unemployment pressures and demand for social security programmes in source areas ^{62; 63}.

There is also well-established evidence that migration changes family composition and child outcomes, in terms of health and education ^{64; 65}, and has complex effects on social cohesion, integration, adaptation, cultural identity, and gender relations ⁶⁶⁻⁶⁹. Research on migration and natural resources has shown that population movements impact on the resilience of individuals and communities, as well as on the sustainability of the underlying resource base ^{70; 71}. Population

pressure, including impacts derived from migration, bring about a range of consequences for agricultural land and natural resources. On the one hand, population size and growth rates influence resource availability and demand. On the other hand, migration changes the distribution of residents in an area, with direct consequences on population density and land use ⁷²⁻⁷⁴.

New population movements have implications for social, economic, and environmental aspects dimensions of sustainability. Previous studies theorise migration-sustainability interactions from a biophysical, ecological and behavioural perspective, cultural and sociolinguistic, or policy and development perspectives ^{8; 75}. The pathways through which migration may affect sustainability, as discussed above, are summarised in Figure 3. Like all models, this is a simplified version of reality. Nonetheless, it captures the economic, social, and environmental dimensions of sustainability derived from the literature. The model is scale neutral: the relationships hold, we suggest, for individuals and households as well as for economies and societies as the unit of analysis. Addressing the relationship for countries, for example, using established indicators would illuminate how migration could contribute to achievement of the SDGs.

Figure 3 here

Economic development in Figure 3 is represented by the level of income per capita, the total activity of the national economy ⁷⁶. Social domains of sustainability are represented by measures of social cohesion as a source of political stability, security, and wealth. Solidarity and social cohesion are central to sustainability, and from an economic perspective, social division is costly in terms of increased public expenditure ⁷⁷. Levels of poverty and inequality are included as measures of social exclusion. Environmental elements from the SDG framework include carbon emissions and aggregate material footprint ⁷⁸. In order to account for the adaptive capacity to climate-related hazards, we also include number of directly affected persons attributed to disasters per 100,000 population ⁷⁹.

The relationship between migration and sustainability is mediated by changes in the stocks of physical capital, human capital, and labour. Specifically, migration may affect physical and human capital and labour (grey arrows in Figure 3). First, a permanent increase in migration flows may have a negative impact on income per capita due to physical capital dilution – i.e. the fact that the amount of capital must be spread more thinly over the population due to high population growth ³⁶. Second, migration may affect stocks of human capital depending on the selectivity of migrants in relation to their level of education ⁸⁰. Third, the impact of migration on the labour force is less conclusive and it depends on the selectivity of migrants with respect to their demographic structure ⁸¹, as well as on the degree of substitutability between migrants and natives ⁸², among other factors. These three forces, in turn, influence income per capita, represented in economic models through a standard aggregate production function ^{33; 83}, as shown by the orange arrows.

Changes in economic activity are central to social and environmental dimensions of sustainability (see blue arrows in Figure 3). In particular, changes in income per capita may affect the levels of poverty ^{84; 85} and inequality ⁴⁰, depending on structural factors in economies. Levels of income have direct effects on the levels of material footprint and carbon emissions ^{29; 86}. The extent of the environmental burdens are compounded by the levels of poverty and inequality (red arrows in Figure 3) or cumulative adversity ⁸⁷. It is also likely that material footprint affects the level of carbon emissions, which is expressed in the framework through the inclusion of the green arrow shown in Figure 3. Finally, income may also affect the adaptive capacity of communities since both income and poverty explain differentials in responses before, during, and after disasters ⁸⁸. In addition, we posit that

human capital may also affect directly adaptive capacity since education is found to reduce disaster-related mortality ⁴¹.

In effect, the model presented in Figure 3 shows that migration moves measures of sustainability in the right direction, but under specific circumstances. Migration is an intrinsic part of broader development processes, and ‘represents a vital resource rather than a desperate response’ ³¹. Hence, it increases aggregate wellbeing, although this only represents a sustainability transition if it lowers environmental burdens: such burdens are spatially uneven and structural. Cities, as migration destinations, are in effect the crucibles of the sustainability challenges ⁸⁹. Further, transitions are only sustained if they reduce inequality in multiple spatial, economic, and health dimensions, and if they reduce insecurity at individual levels.

3. Political economy of migration-sustainability interactions

Transformations to sustainability are a matter of political economy: vested interests, entrenched ideas, and cultural framing. These are apparent in the migration-sustainability paradox where migration policies largely frame migration as a problem to be managed, and migrants as a labour resource. Migrants become scapegoats in times of economic downturn, for driving down wages, placing demand on public services, and reducing social cohesion ⁹⁰. Transformative change therefore requires, paraphrasing Scoones et al. ³, societies to build on diverse knowledges, to recognise mobility as a resource and pathway to sustainability, and to engage with the inherently political nature of both sustainability and mobility. The onus for transformations should not, therefore, be the responsibility of vulnerable groups ², but should capitalise on the ability of migrants to participate on transformations to sustainability.

Migrant populations bring with them diverse knowledge, perspectives, and experiences of sustainability, yet their voices are often excluded from discussions and formal planning processes for sustainability ⁹¹. There is growing evidence that when diverse perspectives are integrated into inclusive knowledge systems, the result is inclusive and transformative action ³. Thus, migrant social networks in the communities of origin and destination alter the consequences of migration management policies ⁹². The restrictiveness of entry and integration policies directly affect the capabilities of migrants as individuals in contributing to sustainability transitions ^{10; 93; 94}. These capabilities are also known as migration infrastructure, that is, the “systematic interlinked technologies, institutions and actors that facilitate mobility” ⁹⁵.

Given there are multiple potential pathways to sustainability, the conceptual model presented here has diverse outcomes in terms of social, environmental, and economic dimensions, that are context- and historically-specific. Migration flows are necessarily heterogenous: predictive models of aggregate flows, for example, show that more migrants are moving from high to low climate vulnerability regions ⁹⁶, yet climate risks are also trapping the most vulnerable populations in hazardous places ^{97; 98}. Migration flows and shifting migration dynamics will have an impact on the landscape of sustainability, and the choice of sustainable development pathways will certainly have an impact on migration.

As mentioned above, the relationship between migration and sustainability is a matter of political economy in its economic, social, cultural, and demographic dimensions. Transformations depend on who does them, and where and how they come about. Who will be affected, and where, depends on

whether actors stand to lose or gain from transformations ⁹⁹⁻¹⁰¹. How transformation processes come about depend on actors and their constructions of frames and narratives. These include diverse interpretations of what the problem is, how change comes about, how uncertainty is understood, and belief in incommensurate values ¹⁰¹⁻¹⁰³. Populist framings on migration depict new migrant populations as a threat to existing order, thus, introducing a level of uncertainty or ambiguity into political and security discourses. Such narratives often emphasise the need for strong borders, limited movement, and anti-globalisation perspectives ¹⁰⁴. Climate change advocacy commonly raises migration as a threat to social order and the nation state in destination areas ¹⁰⁵, with the securitisation of both climate and migration discourses ¹⁰⁶. Similarly, the COVID-19 pandemic has been framed as an issue of biosecurity ¹⁰⁷ putting migration in the spotlight: the COVID-19 virus is perceived as coming from ‘somewhere else’, brought to each locality by travel and movement of people. For instance, new migrants were considered the ‘hidden flaw’ in Sweden’s lock-down policy, stating that not all ethnic groups had access to expertise¹⁰⁸. Widespread economic shutdown and travel restrictions highlighted how human mobility initially enabled the spread of the virus globally. It is evident that the public health response affects marginalised populations, including migrant populations, in specific ways of stigma and blame: fear of the virus spreading and of international or local disease transmission.

Asymmetric power is a major barrier to the transformative potential of migration ^{2; 109}. Immigration and welfare policies, for example, limit the capacity to migrate and access to state-provided welfare, health care, and education. Similarly, regulations on the internal movement of people act as a barrier for social progress. For instance, in China, rural-urban migration of children and the elderly is constrained by their lack of access to basic welfare provisions in cities due to household registration and budget allocation policies ¹¹⁰. Political participation is also restricted when migrants lack the citizenship of the country of residence to access voting rights. Furthermore, research on conservation and urban planning policy has shown that the lack of recognition also affects migrants with the citizenship of the country of residence. For instance, when their belonging to the place of residence is contested, they are stigmatised or when they experience language barriers ^{111; 112}.

Across horizontal and vertical dimensions of governance, there are major blind spots when it comes to the consideration of migration within sustainability policies and programmes, and, to an even greater extent, the consideration of sustainability dimensions within migration and integration policies and programmes. The Millennium Development Goals, failed to mention migration at all ¹¹³. In this sense, the SDGs represented progress by explicitly referring to various aspects or forms of migration in a limited number of goals and targets ^{34; 114}. At the same time, the International Organization for Migration has advocated for the design and implementation of sustainable reintegration pathways for returning migrants ¹¹⁵. International, national, and local governance approaches to integrating mobility and migration into sustainability planning remain, for the most part, siloed along traditional policy domains despite the intrinsic links between them.

4. Conclusions

Emerging research on migration goes beyond the perceived paradox of sustainability to show how individuals transform their lives and life chances every day, often in ways that contribute to the greater good and even to sustainability. Migrating from one place to another is an everyday means of personal transformation. Yet, at the aggregate level, migration is intertwined with globalisation and has been an engine for urbanisation over the past few decades.

We have argued here that common framings of transformation and sustainability are underpinned by standard concepts of migration as a temporary state, measured by flows between and stocks within bordered, sedentary forms of political, economic, and social organisation. Migration is a process for development, but one that is managed through the national state, as reflected in the UN Sustainable Development Goals. Yet, most of people's lives are on a spectrum of mobility: neither wholly mobile nor wholly sedentary, and at times constrained by immobility¹¹⁶. Integrative research on mobility and transformation de-emphasises national status in individual movement decisions and focuses on the migratory experience, linkages between places, the potential for innovation, and the contribution of collective action and community resilience.

5. References

1. Walker, B., Barrett, S., Polasky, S., Galaz, V., Folke, C., Engstrom, G., Ackerman, F., Arrow, K., Carpenter, S., Chopra, K., Daily, G., Ehrlich, P., Hughes, T., Kautsky, N., Levin, S., Maler, K.-G., Shogren, J., Vincent, J., Xepapadeas, T., & de Zeeuw, A. (2009). Looming Global-Scale Failures and Missing Institutions. *Science*, 325(5946), 1345-1346.
2. Blythe, J., Silver, J., Evans, L., Armitage, D., Bennett, N. J., Moore, M.-L., Morrison, T. H., & Brown, K. (2018). The Dark Side of Transformation: Latent Risks in Contemporary Sustainability Discourse. *Antipode*, 50(5), 1206-1223. doi:10.1111/anti.12405
3. Scoones, I., Stirling, A., Abrol, D., Atela, J., Charli-Joseph, L., Eakin, H., Ely, A., Olsson, P., Pereira, L., Priya, R., van Zwanenberg, P., & Yang, L. (2020). Transformations to sustainability: combining structural, systemic and enabling approaches. *Current Opinion in Environmental Sustainability*, 42, 65-75. doi:10.1016/j.cosust.2019.12.004
4. Dorninger, C., Abson, D. J., Apetrei, C. I., Derwort, P., Ives, C. D., Klaniecki, K., Lam, D. P. M., Langsenlehner, M., Riechers, M., Spittler, N., & von Wehrden, H. (2020). Leverage points for sustainability transformation: a review on interventions in food and energy systems. *Ecological Economics*, 171. doi:10.1016/j.ecolecon.2019.106570
5. Steffen, W., Broadgate, W., Deutsch, L., Gaffney, O., & Ludwig, C. (2015). The trajectory of the Anthropocene: The Great Acceleration. *The Anthropocene Review*, 2(1), 81-98. doi:10.1177/2053019614564785
6. Ropke, I. (1994). Trade, development and sustainability - a critical assessment of the "free trade dogma". *Ecological Economics*, 9, 13-22.
7. Tisdell, C. (2001). Globalisation and sustainability: environmental Kuznets curve and the WTO. *Ecological Economics*, 39, 185-196.
8. (*)Rees, W. E. (2006). Globalization, trade and migration: Undermining sustainability. *Ecological Economics*, 59(2), 220-225. doi:10.1016/j.ecolecon.2005.12.021
The author examines the impact of expanding international trade and migration on prospects for global sustainability from a strictly biophysical/ecological/behavioural perspective. He argues that rather than merely liberalising migration to match the free-flow of goods/capital, the world should seriously consider re-regulating both to help achieve ecological sustainability. However, he acknowledges that migration should be designed mainly to serve humanitarian purposes such as relieving the suffering induced by wars, persecution and disasters.

9. Massey, D. S., Arango, J., Hugo, G., Koaouci, A., Pellegrino, A., & Taylor, J. E. (1998). *Worlds in Motion: Understanding International Migration at the End of the Millennium*. Oxford and New York: Clarendon Press and Oxford University Press.
10. de Haas, H. (2010). Migration and Development: A Theoretical Perspective. *International Migration Review*, 44(1), 227-264. doi:10.1111/j.1747-7379.2009.00804.x
11. Faist, T. (2016). Cross-Border Migration and Social Inequalities. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 42(1), 323-346. doi:10.1146/annurev-soc-081715-074302
12. Raudsepp-Hearne, C., Peterson, G. D., Tengö, M., Bennett, E. M., Holland, T., Benessaiah, K., MacDonald, G. K., & Pfeifer, L. (2010). Untangling the Environmentalist's Paradox: Why Is Human Well-being Increasing as Ecosystem Services Degrade? *BioScience*, 60(8), 576-589. doi:10.1525/bio.2010.60.8.4
13. Castles, S., de Haas, H., & Miller, M. (2014). *The age of migration: international population movements in the modern world* (Fifth edition ed.). London: Palgrave Macmillan.
14. de Haas, H. (2019). *Paradoxes of Migration and Development*. IMI Working Paper Series. International Migration Institute.
15. Barnett, J., & Adger, W. N. (2018). Mobile Worlds: Choice at the Intersection of Demographic and Environmental Change. *Annual Review of Environment and Resources*, 43(1), 245-265. doi:10.1146/annurev-environ-102016-060952
16. Coleman, D. (2006). Immigration and Ethnic Change in Low-Fertility Countries: A Third Demographic Transition. *Population and Development Review*, 32, 401-446.
17. Stark, O., & Bloom, D. E. (1985). The new economics of labor migration. *The American Economic Review*, 75(2), 173-178.
18. McDowell, C., & de Haan, A. (1997). *Migration and Sustainable Livelihoods: A Critical Review of the Literature*. IDS Working Paper 65. IDS. Brighton.
19. Black, R., Adger, W. N., Arnell, N. W., Dercon, S., Geddes, A., & Thomas, D. (2011). The effect of environmental change on human migration. *Global Environmental Change*, 21, S3-S11. doi:10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2011.10.001
20. Skeldon, R. (2014). *Migration and development: A global perspective*. London: Routledge.
21. Bernard, A., Bell, M., & Charles-Edwards, E. (2014). Life-Course Transitions and the Age Profile of Internal Migration. *Population and Development Review*, 40(2), 213-239.
22. (*)de Haas, H., Czaika, M., Flahaux, M.-L., Mahendra, E., Natter, K., Vezzoli, S., & Villares-Varela, M. (2019). International Migration: Trends, Determinants, and Policy Effects. *Population and Development Review*, 45(4), 885-922.
As part of the 'Determinants of International Migration: A Theoretical and Empirical Assessment of Policy, Origin and Destination Effects' (DEMIG) project, the authors analyse patterns of bilateral migration flows and policies. Drawing on four novel datasets, they challenge the two common assumptions that (1) migration has accelerated and that (2) migration policies have become more restrictive.
23. (**)Bell, M., Charles-Edwards, E., Kupiszewska, D., Kupiszewski, M., Stillwell, J., & Zhu, Y. (2015). Internal Migration Data Around the World: Assessing Contemporary Practice. *Population, Space and Place*, 21(1), 1-17. doi:10.1002/psp.1848

- As part of the ‘Internal Migration Around the Globe’ (IMAGE) project, the authors provide a critical analysis of how data collection on internal migration takes place in 193 countries, comparing methodologies and assessing their strengths and limitations.
24. Bell, M., & Charles-Edwards, E. (2013). *Cross-national Comparisons of Internal Migration: An Update on Global Patterns and Trends*. Technical Paper No. 2013/1. United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs: Population Division. New York.
 25. Bell, M., & Ward, G. (2000). Comparing temporary mobility with permanent migration. *Tourism Geographies*, 2(1), 87-107. doi:10.1080/146166800363466
 26. Adger, W. N., Arnell, N., Black, R., Dercon, S., Geddes, A., & Thomas, D. (2015). Focus on environmental risks and migration: causes and consequences. *Environmental Research Letters*, 10(6).
 27. Piguet, E., Pecoud, A., & de Guchteneire, P. (2011). *Migration and climate change*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
 28. McLeman, R. (2013). *Climate and human migration: Past experiences, future challenges*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
 29. Foresight. (2011). *Migration and Global Environmental Change*. Retrieved from London: https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/287717/11-1116-migration-and-global-environmental-change.pdf
 30. Ionesco, D., Mokhnacheva, D., & Gemenne, F. (2016). *The Atlas of Environmental Migration*. London: Routledge.
 31. (*)de Haas, H. (2020). Paradoxes of migration and development. In T. Bastia & R. Skeldon (Eds.), *Handbook of Migration and Development* (pp. 17-31). London: Routledge. The author argues why and how migration should be conceptualised as an intrinsic part of broader processes of development and social change instead of as the antithesis of development, as dominant discourses hold.
 32. (**)Castles, S. (2010). Understanding Global Migration: A Social Transformation Perspective. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 36(10), 1565-1586. doi:10.1080/1369183x.2010.489381
The author postulates that migration could be viewed as a social transformation process, through which there is a fundamental shift in the way society is organised that goes beyond the continual processes of incremental social change that are always at work.
 33. Hendricks, L., & Schoellman, T. (2018). Human Capital and Development Accounting: New Evidence from Wage Gains at Migration. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 133(2), 665-700. doi:10.1093/qje/qjx047
 34. (**)Adger, W. N., Boyd, E., Fábos, A., Fransen, S., Jolivet, D., Neville, G., Safrá de Campos, R., & Vijge, M. J. (2019). Migration transforms the conditions for the achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals. *The Lancet Planetary Health*, 3(11), e440-e442. doi:10.1016/s2542-5196(19)30213-x
The authors argue that the SDGs need to move beyond the implicit assumption that sedentary lives are the norm and that it is only safe, orderly, and regular migration that contributes to sustainable development. They suggest that, when migration is incorporated as an inherent and continuing part of social transformations, it will become central to long-term climate resilience and adaptation.
 35. ODI. (2018). *Migration and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*. Retrieved from London: <https://www.odi.org/sites/odi.org.uk/files/resource-documents/12422.pdf>

36. Mankiw, G., Romer, D., & Weil, D. (1992). A Contribution to the Empirics of Economic Growth. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 107(2), 407-437.
37. Hall, R., & Jones, C. (1999). Why do some countries produce so much more output per worker than others? *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 114(1), 83-116.
38. Caselli, F. (2005). Accounting for Cross-Country Income Differences. In P. Aghion & S. Durlauf (Eds.), *Handbook of Economic Growth* (Vol. 1, pp. 679-741). Amsterdam: Elsevier.
39. Hsieh, C.-T., & Klenow, P. J. (2010). Development Accounting. *American Economic Journal: Macroeconomics*, 2(1), 207-223. doi:10.1257/mac.2.1.207
40. Kuznets, S. (1955). Economic Growth and Income Inequality. *American Economic Review*, 45(1).
41. Lutz, W., Muttarak, R., & Striessnig, E. (2014). Universal education is key to enhanced climate adaptation. *Science*, 346(6213), 1061-1062.
42. Caldwell, J. (1976). Toward a restatement of demographic transition theory. *Population and Development Review*, 2(3/4), 321-366.
43. Kirk, D. (1996). Demographic transition theory. *Popul Stud (Camb)*, 50(3), 361-387. doi:10.1080/0032472031000149536
44. Lee, R. (2003). The demographic transition: three centuries of fundamental change. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 17(4), 167-190.
45. Barrett, S., Dasgupta, A., Dasgupta, P., Adger, W. N., Anderies, J., van den Bergh, J. C. J. M., Bledsoe, C., Bongaarts, J., Carpenter, S., Chapin III, F. S., Crepin, A.-S., Daily, G., Ehrlich, P., Folke, C., Kautsky, N., Lambin, E. F., Levin, S. A., Maler, K.-G., Naylor, R., Nyborg, K., Polasky, S., Scheffer, M., Shogren, J., Jorgensen, P. S., Walker, B., & Wilen, J. (2020). Social dimensions of fertility behavior and consumption patterns in the Anthropocene. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 117(12), 6300-6307. doi:10.1073/pnas.1909857117
46. Thompson, W. S. (1929). Population. *The American Journal of Sociology*, 34(6), 959-975.
47. Zelinsky, W. (1971). The Hypothesis of the Mobility Transition. *Geographical Review*, 61(2), 219-249.
48. Benson, M., & O'Reilly, K. (2009). Migration and the search for a better way of life: a critical exploration of lifestyle migration. *The Sociological Review*, 57(4), 608-625.
49. Greiner, C., & Sakdapolrak, P. (2013). Translocality: Concepts, Applications and Emerging Research Perspectives. *Geography Compass*, 7(5), 373-384.
50. Cobbinah, P. B., Erdiaw-Kwasie, M. O., & Amoateng, P. (2015). Africa's urbanisation: Implications for sustainable development. *Cities*, 47, 62-72. doi:10.1016/j.cities.2015.03.013
51. Schiller, N. G., & Faist, T. (2016). *Migration, Development, and Transnationalization: A Critical Stance* (Vol. 12). Oxford: Berghahn Books.
52. Deshingkar, P. (2006). *Internal migration, poverty and development in Asia*. ODI Briefing Paper 11. ODI. London.

53. Hugo, G. (1996). Environmental Concerns and International Migration. *International Migration Review*, 30(1), 105-131.
54. Skeldon, R. (2009). Of Skilled Migration, Brain Drains and Policy Responses. *International Migration*, 47(4), 3-29. doi:10.1111/j.1468-2435.2008.00484.x
55. Castles, S. (2011). Migration, Crisis, and the Global Labour Market. *Globalizations*, 8(3), 311-324. doi:10.1080/14747731.2011.576847
56. Levitt, P. (1998). Social Remittances: Migration Driven Local-Level Forms of Cultural Diffusion. *International Migration Review*, 32(4), 926-948.
57. Carling, J. (2009). The determinants of migrant remittances. *Oxford Review of Economic Policy*, 24(3), 581-598. doi:10.1093/oxrep/grn022
58. Gamlen, A. (2014). The new migration-and-development pessimism. *Progress in Human Geography*, 38(4), 581-597. doi:10.1177/0309132513512544
59. de Haan, A. (1999). Livelihoods and poverty: The role of migration - a critical review of the migration literature. *Journal of Development Studies*, 36(2), 1-47. doi:10.1080/00220389908422619
60. Gibson, K., Cahill, A., & McKay, D. (2010). Rethinking the dynamics of rural transformation: performing different development pathways in a Philippine municipality. *Transactions of the Institute of British Geographers*, 35(2), 237-255.
61. Christ, S. (2017). 'You are supposed to treat them like your mum and dad': narratives about transnational family lives by middle-class Filipino children. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 43(6), 902-918. doi:10.1080/1369183x.2016.1274563
62. Sabates-Wheeler, R., & MacAuslan, I. (2007). Migration and Social Protection: Exposing problems of access. *Development*, 50(4), 26-32. doi:10.1057/palgrave.development.1100429
63. Lyu, H., Dong, Z., Roobavannan, M., Kandasamy, J., & Pande, S. (2019). Rural unemployment pushes migrants to urban areas in Jiangsu Province, China. *Palgrave Communications*, 5(1). doi:10.1057/s41599-019-0302-1
64. Antman, F. (2013). The impact of migration on family left behind. In A. F. Constant & K. F. Zimmermann (Eds.), *International handbook on the economics of migration* (pp. 584). Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing.
65. Bastia, T. (2013). 'I am going, with or without you': autonomy in Bolivian transnational migrations. *Gender, Place & Culture*, 20(2), 160-177. doi:10.1080/0966369x.2011.649353
66. Berry, J. (1992). Acculturation and adaptation in a new society. *International Migration*, 30, 69-85.
67. Hondagneu-Sotelo, P. (1992). Overcoming Patriarchal Constraints: The Reconstruction of Gender Relations Among Mexican Immigrant Women and Men. *Gender & Society*, 6(3), 393-415.
68. Vertovec, S. (2013). *Anthropology of migration and Multiculturalism: New Directions*. London: Routledge.

69. Fokkema, T., & de Haas, H. (2015). Pre- and Post-Migration Determinants of Socio-Cultural Integration of African Immigrants in Italy and Spain. *International Migration*, 53(6), 3-26. doi:10.1111/j.1468-2435.2011.00687.x
70. Adger, W. N., Kelly, P. M., Winkels, A., Huy, L. Q., & Locke, C. (2002). Migration, remittances, livelihood trajectories, and social resilience. *AMBIO: A Journal of the Human Environment*, 31(4), 358-366.
71. (*)Tebboth, M., Conway, D., & Adger, W. N. (2019). Mobility endowment and entitlements mediate resilience in rural livelihood systems. *Global Environmental Change*, 54, 172-183. doi:10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2018.12.002
The authors explore how location choice affects the ability to be mobile and its role in mediating levels of resilience to livelihood shocks associated with changing environmental conditions. They find that mobility has increased the resilience of some individuals and households in general and in regard to specific climatically-linked environmental changes, suggesting that the use of mobility constitutes an adaptive response to constrained livelihood opportunities in an economically and ecologically marginal location.
72. Bilsborrow, R. (2002). Migration, population change, and the rural environment. In *Environmental Change and Security Project Report* (Vol. 8, pp. 69-94). Washington D.C.: Woodrow Wilson Center.
73. Gray, C. L. (2009). Environment, Land, and Rural Out-migration in the Southern Ecuadorian Andes. *World Development*, 37(2), 457-468. doi:10.1016/j.worlddev.2008.05.004
74. Gray, C. L., & Bilsborrow, R. (2014). Consequences of Out-Migration for Land Use in Rural Ecuador. *Land use policy*, 36. doi:10.1016/j.landusepol.2013.07.006
75. van Houte, M., & Davids, T. (2008). Development and Return Migration: from policy panacea to migrant perspective sustainability. *Third World Quarterly*, 29(7), 1411-1429. doi:10.1080/01436590802386658
76. Kuznets, S. (1934). *National Income, 1929-1932*. New York: NBER.
77. Berger-Schmitt, R. (2002). Considering Social Cohesion in Quality of Life Assessments: Concept and Measurement. *Social Indicators Research*, 58, 403-428.
78. United Nations. (2015). *Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*. Retrieved from New York: <https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/content/documents/21252030%20Agenda%20for%20Sustainable%20Development%20web.pdf>
79. Brooks, N., Adger, W. N., & Kelly, P. M. (2005). The determinants of vulnerability and adaptive capacity at the national level and the implications for adaptation. *Global Environmental Change*, 15(2), 151-163. doi:10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2004.12.006
80. Dolado, J., Goría, A., & Ichino, A. (1994). Immigration, human capital and growth in the host country: Evidence from pooled country data. *Journal of Population Economics*, 7, 193-215.
81. Boubtane, E., Dumont, J.-C., & Rault, C. (2016). Immigration and economic growth in the OECD countries 1986–2006. *Oxford Economic Papers*, 68(2), 340-360. doi:10.1093/oep/gpw001
82. Friedberg, R., & Hunt, J. (1995). The Impact of Immigrants on Host Country Wages, Employment and Growth. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 9(2), 23-44.

83. Solow, R. M. (1956). A Contribution to the Theory of Economic Growth. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 70(1), 65-94.
84. Dollar, D., & Kraay, A. (2000). Growth is Good for the Poor. *Journal of Economic Growth*, 7(3), 195-225.
85. Ravallion, M. (2001). Growth, Inequality and Poverty: Looking Beyond Averages. *World Development*, 29(11), 1803-1815.
86. IPCC. (2007). Climate Change 2007: The Science of Climate Change. In S. Solomon, D. Qin, M. Manning, K. Averyt, M. Marquis, & M. Tignor (Eds.), *Climate Change 2007 - The Physical Science Basis: Working Group I Contribution to the Fourth Assessment Report of the IPCC*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
87. (*)Sampson, R. (2017). Urban sustainability in an age of enduring inequalities: Advancing theory and econometrics for the 21st-century city. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 114(34), 8957-8962. doi:10.1073/pnas.1614433114
The author proposes the concept of cumulative adversity, whereby social and environmental spatial inequalities challenge the capacity of cities to achieve sustainability.
88. Muttarak, R., & Lutz, W. (2014). Is Education a Key to Reducing Vulnerability to Natural Disasters and hence Unavoidable Climate Change? *Ecology and Society*, 19(1). doi:10.5751/es-06476-190142
89. Adger, W. N., Safra de Campos, R., Siddiqui, T., & Szaboova, L. (2020). Commentary: Inequality, precarity and sustainable ecosystems as elements of urban resilience. *Urban Studies*, 57(7), 1588-1595. doi:10.1177/0042098020904594
90. Putnam, R. D. (2007). E Pluribus Unum: Diversity and Community in the Twenty-first Century. The 2006 Johan Skytte Prize Lecture. *Nordic Political Science Association*, 30(2), 137-174.
91. Siddiqui, T., Szaboova, L., Adger, W. N., Safra de Campos, R., Bhuiyan, R., & Billah, T. (In Press). Policy opportunities and constraints for addressing urban precarity of migrant populations. *Global Policy*.
92. Sørensen, N. N. (2012). Revisiting the Migration-Development Nexus: From Social Networks and Remittances to Markets for Migration Control. *International Migration*, 50(3), 61-76. doi:10.1111/j.1468-2435.2012.00753.x
93. Mabogunje, A. L. (1970). Systems Approach to a Theory of Rural-Urban Migration. *Geographical Analysis*, 2(1), 1-18.
94. Bakewell, O., Engbersen, G., Fonseca, M. L., & Horst, C. (2016). *Beyond Networks: Feedback in International Migration*. London: Palgrave MacMillan UK.
95. Xiang, B., & Lindquist, J. (2018). Migration Infrastructure. *International Migration Review*, 48(1_suppl), 122-148. doi:10.1111/imre.12141
96. Grecequet, M., DeWaard, J., Hellmann, J. J., & Abel, G. J. (2017). Climate Vulnerability and Human Migration in Global Perspective. *Sustainability*, 9(5). doi:10.3390/su9050720
97. Black, R., Arnell, N. W., Adger, W. N., Thomas, D., & Geddes, A. (2013). Migration, immobility and displacement outcomes following extreme events. *Environmental Science & Policy*, 27, S32-S43. doi:10.1016/j.envsci.2012.09.001

98. Ayeb-Karlsson, S., Kniveton, D., & Cannon, T. (2020). Trapped in the prison of the mind: Notions of climate-induced (im)mobility decision-making and wellbeing from an urban informal settlement in Bangladesh. *Palgrave Communications*, 6(1). doi:10.1057/s41599-020-0443-2
99. Meadowcroft, J. (2011). Engaging with the politics of sustainability transitions. *Environmental Innovation and Societal Transitions*, 1(1), 70-75. doi:10.1016/j.eist.2011.02.003
100. van den Bergh, J. C. J. M., Truffer, B., & Kallis, G. (2011). Environmental innovation and societal transitions: Introduction and overview. *Environmental Innovation and Societal Transitions*, 1(1), 1-23. doi:10.1016/j.eist.2011.04.010
101. Patterson, J., Schulz, K., Vervoort, J., van der Hel, S., Widerberg, O., Adler, C., Hurlbert, M., Anderton, K., Sethi, M., & Barau, A. (2017). Exploring the governance and politics of transformations towards sustainability. *Environmental Innovation and Societal Transitions*, 24, 1-16. doi:10.1016/j.eist.2016.09.001
102. Stirling, A. (2011). Pluralising progress: From integrative transitions to transformative diversity. *Environmental Innovation and Societal Transitions*, 1(1), 82-88. doi:10.1016/j.eist.2011.03.005
103. O'Brien, K. (2012). Global environmental change II: From adaptation to deliberate transformation. *Progress in Human Geography*, 36(5), 667-676.
104. Collyer, M. (2020). Border work: frames, barriers and disingenuous development. In T. Bastia & R. Skeldon (Eds.), *Routledge Handbook of Migration and Development* (pp. 63-73). London: Routledge.
105. Methmann, C., & Oels, A. (2015). From 'fearing' to 'empowering' climate refugees: Governing climate-induced migration in the name of resilience. *Security Dialogue*, 46(1), 51-68. doi:10.1177/0967010614552548
106. White, G. (2011). *Climate change and migration: Security and borders in a warming world*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
107. Lentzos, F., & Rose, N. (2009). Governing insecurity: contingency planning, protection, resilience. *Economy and Society*, 38(2), 230-254. doi:10.1080/03085140902786611
108. Rothschild, N. (2020). The Hidden Flaw in Sweden's Anti-Lockdown Strategy. *Foreign Policy*. Retrieved from <https://foreignpolicy.com/2020/04/21/sweden-coronavirus-anti-lockdown-immigrants/>
109. Fabinyi, M., Evans, L., & Foale, S. J. (2014). Social-ecological systems, social diversity, and power: insights from anthropology and political ecology. *Ecology and Society*, 19(4). doi:10.5751/es-07029-190428
110. Biao, X. (2007). How far are the left-behind left behind? A preliminary study in rural China. *Population, Space and Place*, 13(3), 179-191. doi:10.1002/psp.437
111. Chhotray, V. (2016). Justice at Sea: Fishers' politics and marine conservation in coastal Odisha, India. *Maritime Studies*, 15(1). doi:10.1186/s40152-016-0043-3

112. Chu, E., & Michael, K. (2018). Recognition in urban climate justice: marginality and exclusion of migrants in Indian cities. *Environment and Urbanization*, 31(1), 139-156. doi:10.1177/0956247818814449
113. Fukuda-Parr, S. (2016). From the Millennium Development Goals to the Sustainable Development Goals: shifts in purpose, concept, and politics of global goal setting for development. *Gender & Development*, 24(1), 43-52. doi:10.1080/13552074.2016.1145895
114. Piper, N. (2017). Migration and the SDGs. *Global Social Policy: An Interdisciplinary Journal of Public Policy and Social Development*, 17(2), 231-238. doi:10.1177/1468018117703443
115. IOM. (2019). *IOM input to the thematic review of the 2019 United Nations High Level Political Forum*. Retrieved from
116. Zickgraf, C. (2019). Keeping People in Place: Political Factors of (Im)mobility and Climate Change. *Social Sciences*, 8(8). doi:10.3390/socsci8080228
117. (*)Abel, G. J., & Sander, N. (2014). Quantifying Global International Migration Flows. *Science*, 343(6178), 1520-1522.
The authors collate and analyse bilateral flows between 196 countries, providing an outstanding dataset on international migration within 5-year periods.
118. (*)Bell, M., Charles-Edwards, E., Ueffing, P., Stillwell, J., Kupiszewski, M., & Kupiszewska, D. (2015). Internal Migration and Development: Comparing Migration Intensities Around the World. *Population and Development Review*, 41(1), 33-58.
Drawing on data collected by the 'Internal Migration Around the Globe' (IMAGE) project, the authors analyse internal migration patterns in 193 countries, providing a valuable dataset open to researchers around the world.

Figure 1: Internal Migration Intensities¹¹⁷ (latest available figures) and Net International Migration Rates¹¹⁸ (2005-2010). Internal migration measures represent a percentage of the population, whereas Net international migration rates (NIMR) correspond to the difference between emigration rates and immigration rates per 1000 inhabitants. Therefore, a positive NIMR represents a net outflow, whilst a negative one represents a net inflow of people. The selection of countries corresponds to those with recent comparable available data on both internal and international migration.

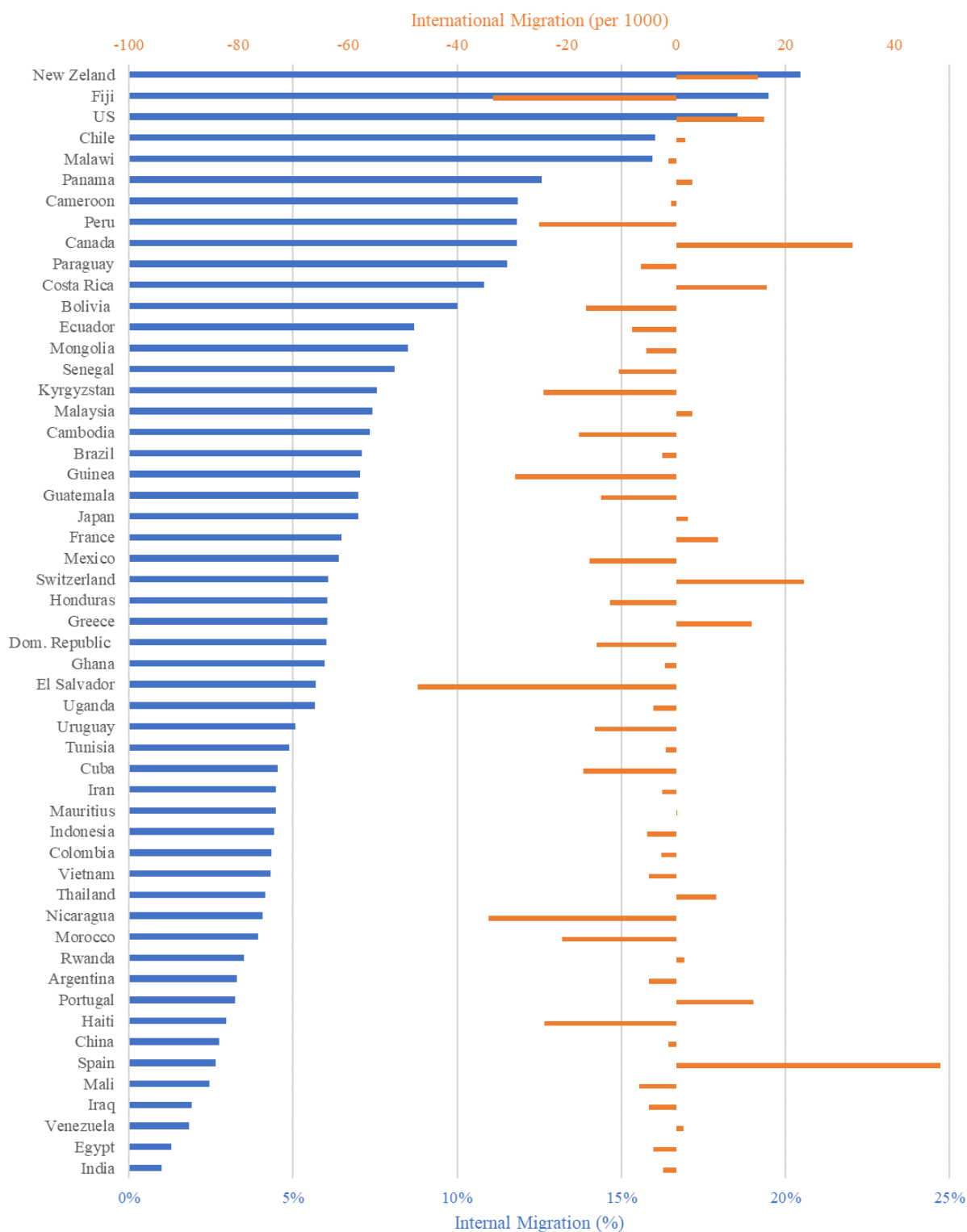


Figure 2: Impacts and challenges of migration flows on economic, social, and environmental dimensions of sustainability in source and destination areas

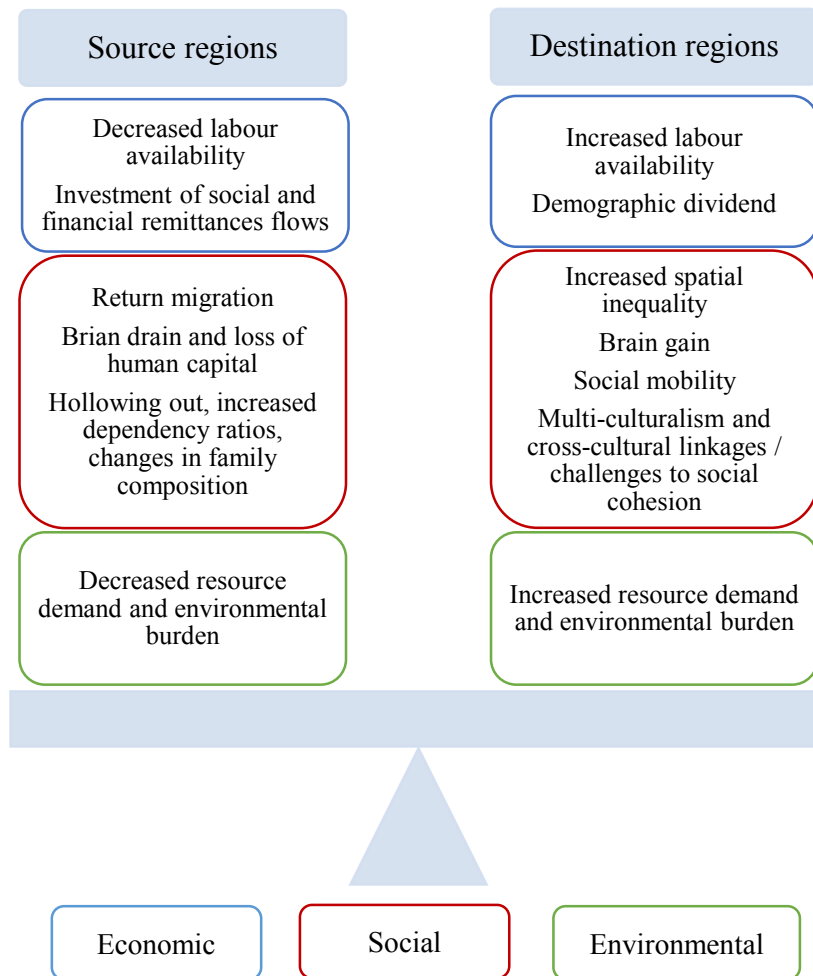
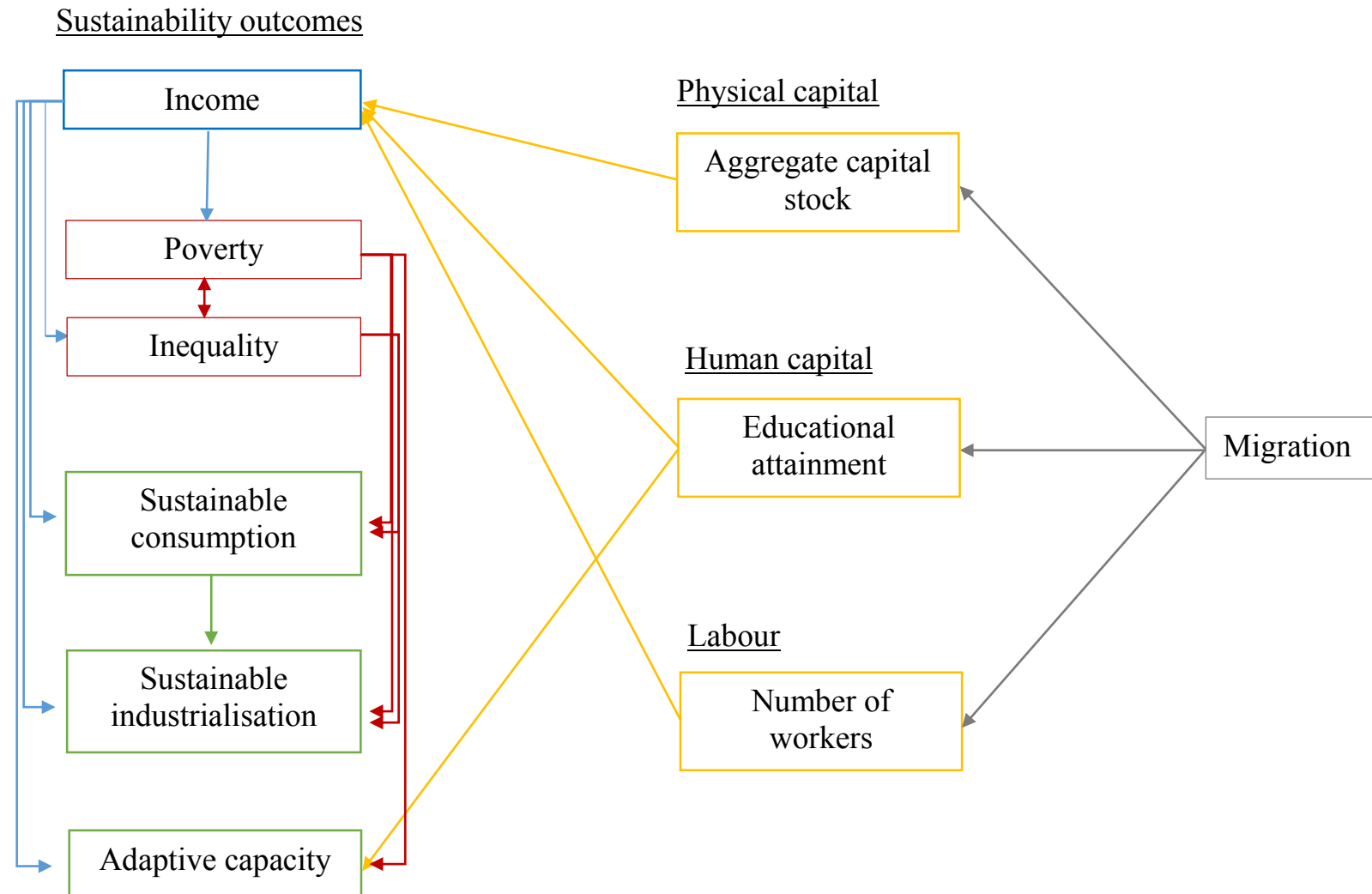


Figure 3: Migration affects environmental, social, and economic dimensions of sustainability through capital and labour pathways.



Declaration of interests

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

☐The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: