



REVIEW ARTICLE



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The Feminization of Climate Migration in Latin America: Gender and Intersectionality

Feminización de las migraciones climáticas en Latinoamérica: género e interseccionalidad

Andrea Carolina Subía-Cabrera¹ , Priscila Soledad Robles-Albuja² 

¹ Universidad de Otavalo. Imbabura, Ecuador. <https://ror.org/00x6twa51>

² Universidad de Salamanca. España. <https://ror.org/02f40zc51>

Abstract

The objective of this research was to analyze the feminization of migration resulting from the climate emergency in Latin America, with a particular focus on Ecuador. Grounded in a qualitative approach, utilizing an analytical method and documentary review technique, the study identified that forced migration driven by climate change necessitates a regional system for the protection of rights, especially in the case of women, who represent approximately 80% of the most vulnerable population. Due to the nexus between climate change and the feminization of migration, an intersectional perspective is essential for understanding the social inequalities experienced by women, as well as the increased burden of domestic and care responsibilities. Studies on the feminization of climate-induced migration require further development in the Latin American context.

Keywords: Feminization of migrations, climate, migrations, intersectionality.

Resumen

El objetivo de la investigación fue analizar la feminización de las migraciones por la emergencia climática en Latinoamérica, con especial referencia de Ecuador. Con fundamento en el enfoque cualitativo, método analítico y técnica revisión documental; se identificó que las migraciones forzadas, producto del cambio climático, requieren un sistema regional de protección de derechos, especialmente en el caso de las mujeres que representan alrededor del 80% de la población más vulnerable. Debido al vínculo entre cambio climático y feminización de las migraciones, la perspectiva interseccional permite comprender las desigualdades sociales que viven las mujeres, además de la sobrecarga en el cuidado del hogar. Los estudios sobre feminización de las migraciones climáticas requieren profundizarse en Latinoamérica.


Palabras clave: Feminización de las migraciones, climática, migraciones, interseccionalidad.


Correspondence: asubia@uotavalo.edu.ec


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Introduction

According to data presented by the Organización Internacional para las Migraciones [OIM] (2024a), by 2022, 3.5 percent of the world's population—135 million people—are migrant women. There has been a growing participation of women in migratory movements, many of whom migrate autonomously, without dependence on a partner or family position (Utria, 2015).

The increasing feminization of migration highlights a complex reality that is often overlooked in political and legal frameworks. In the case of women, migration persists as a response to the need for survival and adaptation to historically imposed social roles.

On the other hand, climate change causes human displacement, such as that of climate refugees. In 2012, more than 30 million people were forcibly displaced due to natural disasters, and this trend may intensify in the coming years if climate change is not halted. It is projected that by 2050 the average number of displaced persons could reach between 25 and 30 million people (Manos Unidas, 2024). The socio-environmental and climatic effects worldwide disproportionately affect the most vulnerable populations; 80 percent of those affected are women (Felipe, 2019).

In the Ecuadorian case, the OIM (2025), reports that Ecuador is a country “highly vulnerable to extreme environmental and climatic events given its geographical, morphological, climatic, and social conditions” (p. 9). Approximately 29 percent of the population is exposed to floods, landslides, mudflows, ground subsidence, and electrical storms.

Based on the above considerations, the objective of this study is to analyze the feminization of migration flows associated with the climate emergency in Latin America, with particular reference to the Ecuadorian case. Regarding the analytical categories, the study examines, on the one hand, the feminization of migration in Latin America, and on the other hand, climate-change-driven migration, with special emphasis on Ecuador during the 2023–2025 period.

Methodology

Regarding the methodological approach, the study is grounded in a qualitative research framework. Through the search, comprehension, interpretation, and analysis of socio-legal phenomena—such as the feminization of climate migration—this approach enables a critical analysis of legal and normative frameworks within a given social context, beyond the mere interpretation of statistical data (Ruiz-Olabuenga, 2009).

The scope of the research is descriptive in nature. Using a documentary research design, secondary and tertiary sources of information were drawn from reports produced by specialized organizations, as well as doctrinal literature available in academic databases such as SciELO, Redalyc, Scopus, and Google Scholar. The analytical method made it possible to examine documentary sources and their different components during the 2023–2025 period.

Migration Linked to Climate Change

Migration flows linked to climate change are expected to increase, and no region of the world is immune. By 2030, critical regions are expected to be affected by water scarcity, declining agricultural production, and rising sea levels. By 2050, up to 216 million people could be internally displaced within their own countries (World Bank, 2021; Rodríguez et al., 2015; Cassin et al., 2022).

The OIM (2019) notes that migration—particularly climate-related migration—refers to the movement of people forced to leave their place of residence and relocate to another city or country, either temporarily or permanently, due to climatic changes and environmental factors. Environmentally displaced persons move due to events such as desertification, deforestation, environmental degradation, water pollution, and flooding, as well as natural and anthropogenic disasters, including overflows, volcanic eruptions, earthquakes, radioactivity, and industrial accidents (Castles, 2003; McAuliffe & Triandafyllidou, 2022).

The populations most affected typically inhabit the poorest rural areas and the outskirts of large cities

(Altamirano, 2014), as climate change generates involuntary mobility among vulnerable populations.

Regarding migrants displaced for environmental reasons, Márquez and Delgado (2011) argue that, in most cases, the negative effects of climate change have been minimized in available data. Without official information on the impact of climate change on cross-border migratory movements, the phenomenon remains largely invisible.

Migrants forcibly displaced by environmental causes experience the loss of their means of production and subsistence, resulting in social exclusion that compels them to migrate due to insufficient economic resources (Iglesias & Felipe, 2018). This situation requires responses at different levels of government, particularly regarding the allocation of resources and the implementation of public policies.

For her part, Utria (2015) argues that an important aspect of the expanded definition of a climate migrant is their particular condition of vulnerability. From a psychosocial perspective, displacement constitutes a traumatic event that transforms individuals' life projects, mental health, and autonomy. Displaced persons lose their belongings, assets, savings, family ties, and cultural environment.

In this context, in 1992 the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) was adopted. Among its principal guidelines are the obligations of states to produce annual reports on strategies to reduce greenhouse gas emissions, together with legislative and policy reforms.

The Kyoto Protocol, in force since 2005, includes the commitment of 37 industrialized countries to reduce climate impacts through the adoption of mitigation strategies. It also established the principle of common but differentiated responsibilities, recognizing that each country must assume responsibility for environmental damage according to its capacities. In 2015, the Paris Agreement was adopted, marking a moment in which human mobility was discussed within

the international climate regime (McAuliffe & Triandafyllidou, 2022). Nevertheless, the international instruments described above do not sufficiently address the environmental impacts experienced by populations most vulnerable to climate change (Iglesias & Felipe, 2018).

The term "climate refugee" does not currently have a specific legal classification within international human rights law, although various attempts have been made to adapt existing normative frameworks. As early as 1967, Russell referred to environmentally forced migrants as individuals who, for environmental reasons, move from their usual place of residence to another state (Bermúdez, 2017; Ibarra, 2021).

Along similar lines, when a person flees their country due to climate change, they require protection from the international community. Solanes (2021) argues that it is necessary to articulate an expanded refugee status in response to the current climate crisis, as the number of people displaced for multiple reasons continues to increase. This represents a situation of vulnerability that requires a specific protection regime for climate-related refuge.

Inter-American Standards in the Climate Emergency

With regard to the climate emergency over the last decade, the Inter-American Court of Human Rights (hereinafter, The Court) has issued rulings and advisory opinions in matters concerning human mobility, the right to a healthy environment, and human rights. The principal standards are summarized in Table 1.

According to Moraga (2023), due to the interdependence of natural resources and the multiple forms of discrimination faced by historically marginalized groups—such as women—States parties to the Inter-American Human Rights System bear a derived responsibility to prevent environmental risks and damage through environmental policies and protective measures.

Table 1. Human mobility, a healthy environment, and human rights, The Court.

Opinion / Case	Topic	Standard
OC-18/03 (2003)	Legal status of migrant workers in an irregular situation	The principle of equality and non-discrimination guarantees respect for labor and trade union rights for all persons, regardless of nationality or migration status.
Case <i>Yean and Bosico v. Dominican Republic</i> (2005)	Transit migration and the naturalization process.	States must prevent discretionary criteria when addressing the situation of stateless persons and children whose parents are in transit migration status.
OC-21/14 (2014)	Unaccompanied or separated children and adolescents	Principle and guarantee of non-refoulement for applicants for international protection. Children and adolescents may not be declared inadmissible at migration controls, nor expelled or returned. They have the right to consular assistance and legal representation through a guardian. Principles guiding the protection of children include: non-discrimination, the best interests of the child, a dignified life, survival and integral development, specialized treatment, and the right to be heard.
OC-23/17 (2017)	Environment and human rights	Related rights include a healthy environment, life, water, land, housing, protection against displacement, personal integrity, health, property, and cultural participation. Certain groups face heightened vulnerability and extreme risk of displacement due to environmental causes, including Indigenous peoples, children and adolescents, women, older persons, and persons with disabilities.
OC-32/25 (2025)	Climate emergency and human rights	States have the duty to maintain a healthy climate through preventive and precautionary measures aimed at protecting the planet and preserving natural balance. The principles of sustainable development and the polluter pays are reaffirmed.

Source: Prepared by the author based on the Corte Interamericana de Derechos Humanos (2003, 2005, 2014, 2017, 2025).

Feminization of Migration in Latin America: The Case of Ecuador

The OIM (2024b) has confirmed that migration flows in Latin America exhibit diverse characteristics, reflecting different social contexts, causal factors, and migrant profiles. Among these trends is the increasing feminization of migration.

According to the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), there is a greater flow of emigration than immigration in South America (Stefoni, 2018):

The emigrant population in South America amounts to 8.4 million people (2.1% of the total subregional population), while the immigrant population reaches 4.756 million (1.2% of the total subregional population), resulting in a difference of 0.9 percentage points between both stocks. Therefore, although Latin America and the Caribbean are generally regions of population outflow, the principal contribution to this configuration comes rather from the reality of Mexico and Central

America. In fact, Mexico alone has more emigrants than all of South America combined (p. 9).

One of the defining characteristics of emigration in the region during the twentieth century was the destination of migrants, largely determined by geographic proximity and wage stability in the United States. Since the beginning of the twenty-first century, destination countries have diversified toward Europe—particularly Spain, Italy, and Portugal—and toward Asia, especially Japan (Stefoni, 2018).

With regard to employment patterns, at the intra-regional level, women migrants from Paraguay and Peru often work in domestic service in Argentina, while Bolivian men are typically employed in agriculture, construction, and industrial labor. Haitian migration, in contrast, is characterized primarily by male migrants working in Latin American countries, whereas Haitian women have predominantly migrated to the United States and Canada (Herrera, 2011).

It is important to highlight that women, girls, boys, and adolescents in situations of human mobility are particularly vulnerable to human trafficking networks, which affect approximately 250,000 victims annually. One of the risks they face is child sex tourism in border

regions, such as in the triple border area of Brazil, Paraguay, and Argentina.

Countries that function as places of origin, transit, and destination for human trafficking include Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, Chile, Uruguay, Paraguay, Brazil, Argentina, and Venezuela. In addition to trafficking for sexual exploitation, cases of labor exploitation are also prevalent. At the regional level, victims of trafficking for sexual exploitation (57%) and labor exploitation (32%) are primarily women, many originating from Colombia and Brazil, while victims trafficked outside the region often originate from Paraguay and Bolivia (Granada et al., 2021; Fries, 2019).

Migration flows within the region are common. Since the 1970s, the oil industry has attracted Caribbean migrants to Trinidad and Tobago. By 2019, more than one million Bolivians and Paraguayans had migrated to Argentina, and since 1990 the number of Peruvian migrants in Chile has tripled. Traditional migration flows also persist, such as Nicaraguan migration to Costa Rica and Haitian migration to the Dominican Republic (Granada et al., 2021).

Overall, the region experiences higher levels of emigration than immigration (Stefoni, 2018). These migration flows are largely shaped by economic and political conditions in Latin American governments in recent decades. International migration is predominantly labor-oriented, driven by the attraction of countries experiencing economic growth, although this dynamic is not always linear (Martínez & Orrego, 2016).

Although migration movements in the region are heterogeneous, female emigration to other countries has increased significantly. Increasingly, women migrate autonomously and independently, deciding to cross national borders as part of their migration projects. It is important to note that their motivation for migration is not only personal but also family-oriented, aimed at improving the livelihood of their households (Camacho, 2010).

This phenomenon, known as the feminization of migration, is closely linked to persistent difficulties in

countries of origin and labor opportunities created by demand for migrant labor in destination countries.

According to Fries (2019), women represent approximately 48% of global migration flows, increasingly migrating independently as part of their own migration projects. However, they remain vulnerable to various forms of violence, multiple discrimination, environmental and natural disasters, and economic precarity, particularly during periods of crisis or conflict (Utria, 2015).

In the Ecuadorian case, since the early twenty-first century, studies by Balbuena (2003), Herrera (2005), and Camacho (2010) have examined the feminization of labor migration in connection with poverty. These studies highlight that, despite the growing participation of women in wage labor in both industrialized and developing countries, multiple forms of discrimination persist. This is particularly evident in the perception of migrant women as workers who assume caregiving and domestic service roles that native women no longer perform, often because they have greater professionalization and access to formal labor markets.

The reconciliation of household responsibilities remains an unresolved policy challenge for many states, and labor markets remain highly segmented: *“This niche is usually occupied by immigrant women, who are those willing to accept deregulated jobs characterized by high flexibility and located at the lowest levels of the labor hierarchy”* (Camacho, 2010, p. 47).

As a result, countries of origin indirectly subsidize developed economies through the transnational care chains created by migrant women who occupy low-cost caregiving and domestic work positions. The reorganization of reproductive labor and domestic service has thus become a segmented labor niche. According to Fries (2019), approximately 11.5 million migrant workers are employed as paid domestic workers, representing about 17% of all paid domestic workers worldwide (67.1 million) and more than 7% of all migrant workers. Of these 11.5 million workers, 8.45 million are women and 3.07 million are men, with the majority migrating to high-income countries

In Ecuador, between the 1990s and 2001, female migration exceeded male migration. This feminization of migration was directed primarily toward Spain, involving women with technical and professional migration profiles, who belonged to the economically active population and possessed higher education credentials. Nevertheless, many of them were employed in care-related occupations, such as caring for the sick and elderly. These patterns reflect a growing global care crisis that governments have yet to adequately address (Morales et al., 2022). Household care economies remain largely invisible:

The impoverishment and deterioration of household living conditions, gender discrimination in the labor market, high levels of female unemployment, and the overload of responsibilities experienced by women during the crisis undoubtedly led many Ecuadorian women to seek better employment opportunities abroad (Camacho, 2010, p. 84).

In more recent years, according to the OIM (2024c), between 2022 and 2023 approximately 86,606 Ecuadorian citizens crossed the Darién jungle toward the United States, and by April 2024 around 1.2 million Ecuadorians expressed intentions to migrate abroad (p. 1). It is also important to note that since 2023 the number of departures from Ecuador has exceeded the number of entries, indicating an increasing trend in Ecuadorian emigration.

According to the OIM (2024c), the principal motivation for migration is economic, followed by increasing levels of violence. Additionally, an emerging migration phenomenon has been observed in the cantons of the central highlands, where residents migrate either to major cities within the country or abroad, particularly to the United States. By 2024, approximately 2.4 million Ecuadorians were living abroad, representing 10% of the national population.

With regard specifically to climate and migration dynamics, Singaña (2024) states:

Displacement caused by environmental disasters may appear distant from our continent compared with regions such as

Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia, where 3.7 million and 3.3 million people were displaced in 2022. However, the number of displaced persons in the Americas reached 720,000. In Colombia, 41,000 people were displaced by environmental disasters associated with the La Niña phenomenon. Floods forced the displacement of nearly 600,000 people in the Americas in 2022, and the effects of climate change began to manifest through shifts in rainfall cycles (p. 2).

At the national level, according to the Alto Comisionado de las Naciones Unidas para los Refugiados [ACNUR] (2023), “the effects of climate change and natural disasters represent an additional concern in the Andean country, particularly for communities living in marginalized and impoverished areas along the coast, in the Amazon, and in the Andean region” (p. 2). Furthermore, in situations of forced displacement, women and girls face higher levels of vulnerability, accounting for approximately 50% of affected populations.

These factors suggest that there is a significant vulnerability to migration among women and girls both within and toward Ecuador, and that climate change and environmental degradation disproportionately affect impoverished communities along the coast, in the Amazon basin, and in the Andean region of Ecuador. This trend is confirmed by Singaña (2024), who reports that in 2023 agricultural production declined by 8% due to migration-related factors (p. 1). Collective migration has emerged as a consequence of the link between food security and human mobility.

During the current climate emergency, extreme climate events are increasing, particularly in rural areas. According to Singaña (2024), heavy rains in the province of Esmeraldas in recent years caused estimated losses of USD 1.3 million, resulting from the complete destruction of 519 hectares of crops and partial damage to an additional 1,073 hectares (p. 2). Another affected province in 2022 was Cotopaxi, where the overflow of the Pilaló and Quindigua rivers

affected approximately 1,200 hectares of land and 200 people.

Singaña (2024) further notes that the climate emergency since July 2023—the hottest month ever recorded globally—signals the emergence of a new phase described as “global boiling.” Consequently, mitigation and adaptation to the climate emergency require not only sporadic contingency plans but also long-term strategies aimed at minimizing the loss of rural livelihoods resulting from human impacts on the climate (p. 2).

Agricultural production is closely linked to climatic events, and disruptions in this sector can have a significant impact on household economies, potentially leading to increased human mobility (p. 16). As a result, food security becomes compromised, contributing to migration processes.

According to the OIM (2025), rainfall in Ecuador’s coastal region—the area most affected by seasonal climate events such as El Niño and La Niña—is expected to increase by approximately 5% by 2040. Among the principal impacts of climate change are losses in crops, livestock, and small-scale animal husbandry. As shown in Table 2, 83% of floods, landslides, ground subsidence, and windstorms generate economic losses estimated at nearly USD 150 million.

Table 2. Effects of climate change in Ecuador, 2020–2023.

Type of damage	People affected (2020)	People affected (2023)	Location
Floods (83%) Landslides, ground subsidence, windstorms USD 150 million in damages	33,885 people 9,246 homes 8,800 agricultural units	31,400 people 322 displaced by disasters	Ecuadorian coast: provinces of Esmeraldas, Manabí, Guayas and Los Ríos

Source: OIM (2025).

According to the OIM (2025), around 103 households (10%) of the surveyed population, comprising 1,029 people, are in a situation of human mobility due to environmental causes, having been displaced or relocated. It is inferred that “at least half of the migrant population due to environmental causes presents

economic vulnerability” (p. 22), with an approximate monthly household income of one hundred and fifty U.S. dollars:

18.6% of the households studied in the coastal cantons—Daule, Vinces, Ventanas and Chone—experience processes of human mobility. Of that proportion, 10% of the cases are linked to mobility for environmental or climatic reasons, while 3.6% of households are trapped without the capacity to move despite being exposed to climatic threats (OIM, 2025). With regard to gender differences in displacement, women are the most affected:

Significant differences were found according to the gender of the respondent, although of medium intensity (31.6%), only in the case of forced displacement, with a higher average number of persons in the case of women (2.81 persons compared with 1.50 in the case of men) (p. 23).

Another conclusion reached by the OIM (2025) regarding the traditional roles of women in the societies of origin in the coastal cantons of Ecuador is the persistence of gender biases and stereotypes that associate women with caregiving and domestic work. These factors constrain their decision-making capacity in relation to the effects of climate change. 20.8% of women perform unpaid household work and family care, which affects their limited capacity for mobility to access employment outside their community and their vulnerability in adapting to climate change.

One aspect to highlight is the lack of livelihoods to undertake a migration project. Gender roles and stereotypes limit (trap) women in subsistence under conditions of precariousness due to climatic factors (OIM, 2025).

Feminization of Climate Migration: Gender and Intersectionality

Felipe (2019) states that in 2013 it was recognized that there is a growing number of girls and women in situations of human mobility, due to factors related to sex-gender, such as violence, extreme poverty, natural disasters, and the effects of climate change,

as well as the overload of household care work. From an intersectionality perspective, it is understood that there is a link between climate change and the feminization of migration, which responds to categories such as sex-gender, ethnicity, nationality, and social status.

Therefore, intersectional, inclusive, and gender-sensitive actions are required in climate change adaptation:

In the Americas, 2.6 million new internal displacements were recorded in 2022, almost 80% due to disasters. By the end of the year, nearly 720,000 people were living in situations of displacement due to disasters that struck the region. In general, migration trends from Central America toward the United States of America (U.S.) show an increasingly younger population (Felipe, 2019, p. 24).

Many women are in situations of vulnerability due to gender-based violence, sexual orientation, nationality, ethnic-national origin, language, and social class. In particular, when situations of extreme climate emergency and natural disasters occur, the unequal distribution of power and lack of access to resources create greater challenges for women in the recovery and reconstruction of their livelihoods.

The migration of women and girls constitutes a survival response, reflecting an increase in the feminization of poverty and the invisibility of gender-based violence, which becomes normalized throughout the migration process. Political frameworks and social structures do not address their needs in extreme situations such as climate change.

While some women move far from their territories due to environmental damage, another group becomes “trapped” by sudden climatic factors, without an alternative possibility of departure. Due to information gaps, they are unaware of environmental effects, which limits their preparation for and potential undertaking of a migration process.

According to Martín (2019), there is a link between women and climate change because 80% of people displaced by climate-related causes are women, who

are the most affected. This situation accentuates social inequalities, as women often engage in cultivation or agricultural work, harvesting, and the search for food and water, among other climate-dependent activities.

Souto (2022), citing Sassen (2003), argues that in the twenty-first century there is a feminization of survival, due to the exposure of migration flows of women from the Global South to the Global North. A heteronormative perspective has predominated in migration studies, yet today women are recognized as agents with a leading role in migration processes.

Categorizing and homogenizing migrants would conceal the interactions that exist between gender and race, among other factors of discrimination (Biswas, 2004). The homogenization of migrant profiles obscures multiple inequalities. From an intersectional perspective, analysis considers not only the sex-gender dimension, but also social class, nationality, race, and ethnic-national origin (Lugones, 2005).

Thus, the triad of gender, race, and class as structural categories of socio-economic and political relations influences transnational spaces, particularly when analyzing migration movements led by women. Yuval-Davis (2015), as cited by Souto (2022), argues that the study of migration should be articulated within a postcolonial and intersectional perspective, which coincides with the propositions of Latin American feminisms.

Tapia-González (2018) specifies that Latin American feminism in the “Global South” is based on the premise that the intersection of categories such as sex-gender, ethnicity, age, cultural belonging, and social class constitutes a legacy of colonialism. This perspective reveals that issues addressed by women—such as impoverishment, sexual inequality in labor, gender-based violence, and environmental degradation—often obscure the agency of women.

Furthermore, Tapia-González (2018) argues that a key aspect of gender relations in the region, particularly in Indigenous communities, is migration. Women, as heads of household, have adopted migration as a strategy; however, as those

responsible for the family migration process, they face inequalities and social asymmetries in host societies. In this sense, the author proposes a continuous intercultural dialogue aimed at constructing a feminist agenda that makes visible the multiple perspectives of Latin American women concerning development, co-development, citizenship, economy, and social peace.

From this perspective, the intersectional approach allows us to understand that migrations linked to climate change involve multiple causes, and that there is no single explanatory theory of migration phenomena (Magliano, 2015). Migrant women are exposed to barriers that hinder their participation in host communities due to the intersections of gender, ethnicity, migration status, among other factors (Cubero & Garrido, 2023).

Felipe (2019) notes that the lack of visibility of the situation of climate migrants contributes to increasing gender-based violence, discrimination based on gender, and the denial of fundamental rights and freedoms, extending beyond concerns related solely to climate change.

In this context, women and girl migrants become diluted in a perpetuation of migration processes, shaped by rejection and expulsion caused by the perpetrators of environmental damage. This situation results in socially tolerated and internalized tragedies and, in the worst cases, culminates in their invisibilization.

As migration processes accelerate, they have become increasingly feminized, allowing for the reconfiguration of gender roles and the emergence of a new type of transnational family, distinct from the traditional model.

International migration has a selective character, as it tends to facilitate migration for individuals with higher education levels. Host countries have benefited from the competitiveness and economic advantages of migration flows, which strengthen their social capital, and therefore often design migration policies oriented toward specific migrant profiles. However, this institutionalized selection contrasts with the dynamics that drive irregular migration. Adverse conditions in

places of origin exert pressure on thousands of people who cross borders irregularly (Loreto & Pérez, 2019).

At the same time, there exists a structural demand for low-skilled labor within secondary labor markets in industrialized economies of the Global North (Massey et al., 1993). This demand is filled by migrants in irregular situations or with temporary permits, reinforcing precarious and exploitative labor conditions.

Therefore, it is necessary to plan for the reception of people in situations of human mobility, particularly women displaced due to climatic causes or those trapped in their places of origin by the environmental effects of climate change.

Conclusions

Finally, by way of conclusion, despite the conventional mechanisms developed within international human rights law at the global level, the situation of millions of people displaced from their cities or countries due to the effects of climate change persists. As mentioned above, international instruments in the field of climate justice currently address the environmental impacts of climate change on the rights of the most vulnerable populations.

In the case of Latin America, existing projections make it possible to understand that there are factors in both societies of origin and destination which, due to gender roles and stereotypes, have led thousands of women to migrate and to occupy positions in care work or domestic labor. These women are situated within a segmented labor market in industrialized countries.

The feminization of migration makes it possible to understand that migratory flows are heterogeneous. However, from an intersectional perspective, it is evident that there are multiple forms of discrimination experienced by thousands of women in the region. This is the case in Ecuador, where it has been observed that climate change affects the lives of households located in coastal cities. In this context, 20.8 percent of women perform domestic and reproductive work, face restrictions on their mobility that limit their access to employment outside their

communities, and are more vulnerable in their capacity to adapt to climate change.

One of the elements to consider at the international level is the absence of a legal status ensuring international protection for those who flee the effects of climate change. The fact that climate displacement predominantly affects girls and women has been rendered largely invisible, due to the feminization of poverty, gender-based violence, and the heteronormative perspective often adopted in the study of migration. The homogenization of a migratory profile fails to take into account the challenges experienced by thousands of women who have migrated from Latin America to countries outside the region.

Although there has been notable development in the standards and criteria of the Inter-American human rights protection system regarding human mobility, particularly within the advisory opinions issued by the Inter-American Court of Human Rights between 2003 and 2025, it is necessary to strengthen monitoring mechanisms for compliance by member States. This would facilitate the implementation of political, regulatory, and administrative measures aimed at preventing and mitigating the effects of climate change through a gender-sensitive and intersectional approach.

Particularly in the case of women, who represent the most vulnerable population, it is necessary to prevent the sex- and gender-based social inequalities they experience due to factors such as ethnicity, economic dependence on agriculture and food production, domestic care responsibilities, and the gender roles and stereotypes prevalent in their communities of origin. Studies on the feminization of climate migration in Latin America require further development and deeper analysis.

Author contributions

Conceptualization: A.C.S.C.; Project development: A.C.S.C., P.S.R.A.; Literature review (state of the art): A.C.S.C., P.S.R.A.; Methodology: A.C.S.C.; Data collection: P.S.R.A.; Data analysis: P.S.R.A.; Presentation of results: A.C.S.C.; Discussion and conclusions: A.C.S.C.; Writing (original draft):

A.C.S.C.; Final revisions: A.C.S.C., P.S.R.A.; Approval for publication: A.C.S.C., P.S.R.A..

Review comments

This article was subjected to a peer-review process conducted anonymously, in accordance with the journal's editorial transparency policy. The reviewers who participated anonymously in this process gave their consent for the publication of the comments issued during the review.

Reviewer Comment 1: The article presents a solid, up-to-date, and socially relevant analysis of the feminization of climate migration in Latin America, supported by an appropriate theoretical framework and a human rights perspective. Its publication is recommended, subject to the incorporation of minor revisions in the conclusions, clarification of variables, and bibliographic updating.

Reviewer Comment 2: The article is largely descriptive, compiling a series of normative and legal instruments that document a situation of double vulnerability experienced by migrant women and girls. This issue has already been addressed by numerous strands of feminist scholarship and legal studies, among other disciplines that ethnographically examine and contextualize these situations within specific historical periods. Moreover, the circumstances that occur in border regions are not the same as those found elsewhere, and there are also differences between countries. The "distance" between organizations and the lived realities of social actors should be addressed critically. The work does not contain results (neither preliminary nor final), nor does it include engagement with affected populations, which makes the analysis appear rather vague. I suggest that the author refine the population under study as well as the time frame within which the reflections are situated. Recommendation: resubmit for revision.

Reviewer Comment 3: The article addresses a highly relevant and timely topic: the feminization of climate migration in Latin America, integrating perspectives of gender, intersectionality, and human rights. The theoretical and normative framework is broad, up to date, and consistent with the journal's editorial line,

particularly through the use of relevant institutional and academic sources. However, from a methodological perspective, the manuscript presents significant weaknesses. Although it states that the study adopts a qualitative approach with a documentary design, the methodology is not developed clearly, systematically, or in sufficient detail. The criteria used for selecting sources, the time period analyzed, the databases consulted, and the analytical procedures applied to process the information are not clearly specified. This absence limits the replicability, traceability, and scientific rigor of the study. Additionally, there is a tendency toward extensive description of normative and contextual content at the expense of a methodologically grounded analysis. The lack of a robust methodological section makes it difficult to distinguish clearly between a narrative review and a structured analytical exercise. In light of the above, publication is recommended with observations, conditional upon a substantial revision of the methodology in order to strengthen the coherence between the study's objectives, the declared qualitative approach, and the techniques actually employed.

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