MIZORAM UNIVERSITY JOURNAL OF HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES
A Refereed Bi-annual Journal
A Peer-Reviewed Open Access Journal
ISSN(P): 2395-7352
eISSN: 2581-6780
Volume XII, Issue 1
June 2026

From Chhinlung to Modern Cities: Climate-Induced Migration and Governance Challenges in Mizoram

Laldinpuii Sailo*
Prof (Dr) Deepak Kumar Chauhan†
https://doi.org/10.22232/mzujhss.2026.12.01.06

Abstract

The interplay of environmental degradation, socio-economic constraints, and development efforts significantly influences migration in Mizoram. However, in India, migration governance predominantly focuses on labor mobility, neglecting the recognition of environmental and climate-induced migration within current legal and policy frameworks. This paper analyzes migration in the Mizo context by examining environmental stressors and socio-economic pressures together.

Using a qualitative socio-legal and policy analysis supported by secondary empirical literature, the study identifies a growing mismatch between migration realities and migration governance structures. Climate-induced migration in Mizoram signifies both adaptive movement and the erosion of environmental and livelihood stability, diminishing communities' ability to remain secure in place. To address this gap, the paper introduces the concept of rooted resilience as an analytical framework for understanding how weakening environmental, economic, and institutional

*Research Scholar, Department of Law, Central University of Punjab, Bathinda, India, dinpuiisailo.14@gmail.com
ORCID ID: 0009-0000-0755-6499
† Professor, Department of Law, Central University of Punjab, Bathinda, India, deepak.chauhan@cup.edu.in
ORCID ID: 0000-0003-2344-1215

conditions shape migration decisions and expose limitations within labour-centric governance approaches. This paper highlights the Mizo experience in the context of climate-induced migration, emphasizing the need for a climate-sensitive governance framework that combines environmental risk reduction, sustainable livelihoods, and legal protection for migrants. The study reframes migration in environmentally fragile regions as a governance outcome shaped by environmental change, resilience, and institutional responses, rather than merely a movement to be regulated.

Keywords: *Climate-induced migration, Migration governance, Mizo migration, Policy Analysis*

Introduction

Migration in India has historically been understood primarily through the framework of labour mobility, economic opportunity, and urbanisation (Sharma, 2024). However, in environmentally sensitive regions such as Mizoram, migration increasingly reflects the interaction between environmental degradation, livelihood insecurity, and structural socio-economic constraints rather than purely economic motivations.

Historical accounts suggest that migration has always been an integral part of Mizo identity, reflecting a tradition of mobility that is deeply embedded in the community's cultural and historical experience. The concept of 'Chhinlung Chhuak', meaning 'those who came out of Chhinlung', symbolizes the ancestral migration of the Mizos from Chhinlung, a mythical place in their folktales. It represents not only their journey from this ancient homeland to their current place of settlement but also reflects the enduring migratory nature that shapes their collective memory and cultural identity (Lalthangliana, 1980; Hmar, 2021). Contemporary mobility, however, represents not rupture but transformation, now shaped by environmental instability, livelihood transition, and socio-economic pressures (Sati, 2022). Environmental stressors, including deforestation, landslides, and changing agricultural viability, have intensified pressures on rural livelihoods, contributing to

rising patterns of rural-to-urban and interstate migration (Ivanova et al., 2024).

Mizoram's mountainous terrain, ecological fragility, and dependence on land-based livelihoods have increased vulnerability to environmental disruptions such as landslides, floods, and soil degradation (TG Sitharam, 2014; Jonmenjoy Barman, 2022). Simultaneously, high literacy rates combined with limited employment opportunities have encouraged youth migration to metropolitan centres within and outside India in pursuit of education and stable employment (Devendiran, 2015; Pautunthang, 2021). Migration, therefore, increasingly reflects structural and environmental pressures rather than purely voluntary economic choice.

Existing research on Northeast migration has focused on historical trajectories and economic mobility (Hmar, 2021; Lalpekmawia Hlawndo, 2015), while legal and policy implications of climate-induced migration remain underexplored. Migration governance in India, mainly shaped by labour legislation such as the Inter-State Migrant Workmen Act, 1979 (R. Srivastava, 2017), inadequately addresses mobility driven by environmental decline, creating a governance gap.

This study argues that effective migration policy must move beyond labour regulation toward an integrated framework that strengthens resilience, supports adaptive mobility, and enhances institutional protection in environmentally vulnerable regions.

Methodology

This study adopts a doctrinal (Black Letter Law) research approach to examine environmental, socio-economic, and governance factors influencing migration in Mizoram. Secondary data from government reports, academic literature, and policy documents are analysed to understand patterns of climate-induced migration and institutional responses. The research is grounded in an interpretivist analytical framework that treats migration governance not only as a legal or administrative structure but as a policy process through which

environmental risks, livelihood transitions, and mobility are recognised and addressed. This approach enables analysis of how environmental change and migration are framed within existing governance systems rather than measuring migration quantitatively.

The study employs systematic qualitative content analysis as its primary methodological tool. Content analysis is appropriate because migration governance and environmental policy responses are articulated primarily through documentary sources, including academic literature, policy documents, government reports, legal frameworks, and institutional publications. These sources collectively shape policy understanding and institutional responses to migration and therefore constitute an appropriate unit of analysis for examining governance gaps, serving as the primary method. This enables analysis of governance gaps emerging when environmental change reshapes mobility without corresponding institutional adaptation.

Conceptual Framework: Environmental Change, Mobility, And Migration Governance

Migration results from the interaction of environmental, economic, and social pressures rather than from single causal triggers (Nabong et al., 2023). Push-pull models inadequately capture contexts where gradual environmental degradation erodes livelihoods without immediate displacement (Liza, 2011).

The climate migration literature conceptualises environmental change as a threat multiplier, intensifying existing vulnerabilities (Madurga-Lopez et al., 2023). Declining agricultural productivity, recurring hazards, and environmental stress interact with structural constraints such as limited employment and infrastructural deficits (Doevenspeck, 2011; Sati, 2019), producing mobility as a coping strategy, livelihood diversification, or compelled relocation (Szaboova et al., 2023).

In this context, migration functions simultaneously as a coping mechanism, a livelihood strategy, and, in certain circumstances, a form of

compelled mobility arising from diminishing environmental security (Sati, 2019).

Despite academic recognition, governance frameworks remain labour-centric, rendering environmentally influenced migrants administratively invisible. International soft law acknowledges environmental mobility (Scissa, 2021), yet domestic operationalisation remains limited.

This study introduces the concept of rooted resilience as a framework for understanding the relationship between environmental change and migration governance. Rooted resilience refers to communities' ability to maintain livelihoods, social stability, and settlement continuity amid environmental and economic stress. From this perspective, migration is not just an adaptation to environmental change but also a sign of weakening resilience in the origin area, where declining livelihood security and institutional support make staying increasingly unviable, turning migration into a necessity.

Rather than treating migration solely as a problem to be managed in destination areas, the rooted resilience framework highlights the importance of strengthening environmental, livelihood, and institutional capacities that enable communities to remain where they choose to be. Migration governance, therefore, must address both adaptive mobility and the structural conditions that produce compelled migration.

The framework developed in this study positions migration as a multidimensional governance challenge, linking environmental stress, livelihood transformation, and governance response in Mizoram. While rooted in the Mizo context, it contributes to broader discussions on climate-induced migration by emphasizing the integration of environmental resilience and mobility governance in policy design, especially in fragile regions affected by gradual environmental changes that influence internal migration patterns.

This paper presents an integrated approach that connects environmental stress, livelihood changes, mobility decisions, and legal context in the study of migration in Mizoram. It views migration as a governance challenge influenced by environmental and socio-economic pressures rather than just a demographic or economic issue. This framework helps analyze the drivers of migration in Mizoram and identify policy gaps that arise when environmental changes alter internal mobility patterns without adequate institutional response.

Accordingly, this study contributes to the study of climate-induced migration by conceptualising migration as a governance outcome shaped by the interaction among environmental stress, livelihood resilience, and institutional responses. The rooted resilience framework provides an analytical basis for examining how migration emerges not only from environmental change itself but from the weakening of conditions that enable communities to remain securely in place. The concept of rooted resilience is introduced here as an analytical framework developed through the Mizoram case and intended for further theoretical and empirical refinement in future research.

Drivers Of Migration in Mizoram

Migration in Mizoram arises from interactions among environmental, socio-economic, and structural forces that create a continuum from voluntary educational mobility to compelled relocation following risk and livelihood disruption (Peri, 2023; Pautunthang, 2021).

Environmental drivers: Hazard exposure and Livelihood decline

a) Landslides, floods, and climate variability as mobility accelerators: Mizoram's steep terrain and intense monsoon conditions create chronic exposure to landslides and flooding, undermining housing safety, connectivity, and livelihoods (TG Sitharam, 2014; Jonmenjoy Barman, 2022). Disasters such as the Laipuitlang landslide (Verma, 2014), impacts of Cyclone Remal (Lalzara, 2024), and major flood events (Loiwal, 2017) illustrate how hydro-meteorological hazards accelerate displacement and

serial mobility. In practice, repeated exposure to hazards rarely leads to a single move; it often generates serial mobility, temporary relocation, and then permanent shifting of residence and work.

b) Deforestation and ecosystem stress: Deforestation further destabilises slopes and watersheds, increasing vulnerability and livelihood insecurity (Alanís-anaya et al., 2017; Rawat, 2017). As forests decline, rural households face rising costs and risks, including water insecurity, degraded soils, and reduced resilience to extreme rainfall, making migration a rational adaptation rather than simply an aspirational choice.

c) Shifting cultivation constraints and soil fertility loss: Jhum cultivation has long structured Mizo rural livelihoods, but shorter fallow cycles and changing land-use pressures have undermined sustainability (Pachuau, 2020; Ralte, 2015). With declining soil fertility and increasing erosion, farming becomes less viable as a primary source of income, pushing households to diversify their livelihoods or relocate (Soni, 2021). This transition is not merely 'leaving agriculture,' it is a movement away from an increasingly fragile risk environment where land productivity and settlement safety are simultaneously under strain. Environmental pressures do not operate in isolation; over time, they compound existing livelihood and economic strains, gradually narrowing the range of viable local options and making migration an increasingly necessary response rather than a voluntary choice.

Socio-economic drivers: Education, Employment, and Mobility as a strategy

a) Employment scarcity and youth out-migration: A recurring driver is the mismatch between high educational attainment and limited local labour-market absorption. Work and employment remain dominant reasons for internal movement in India, and this pattern is reflected in Mizoram through persistent youth migration to metro labour markets (Devendiran, 2015; Pautunthang, 2021). When households see local opportunities as unstable,

they turn to migration as a livelihood strategy and a way to manage risks, diversifying income sources across locations.

b) Education-led mobility and early migration pathways: Education operates both as a pull factor and as a social norm that legitimises early mobility. The state's (Mizoram) educational aspirations frequently outpace local institutional capacity, encouraging movement to metropolitan cities for better schooling and higher education (Devendiran, 2015; Lalpekmawia Hlawndo, 2015). Migration can be an early-life pathway that creates networks and familiarity with destination cities, aiding future settlement and labor migration.

c) Urban concentration: Aizawl as a service and opportunity hub: Internal migration within Mizoram is shaped by the concentration of services, education, healthcare, and administrative functions in Aizawl, drawing migrants from rural areas and smaller towns (Peri, 2023; Pautunthang, 2021). Rural out-migration increases as urban services expand and rural livelihoods weaken, while hazard risks and land constraints make staying in rural areas less viable.

Structural and development drivers: geography, infrastructure, and governance constraints

a) Terrain, connectivity, and the geography of constraint: Mizoram's mountainous geography raises transport costs, limits market access, and increases infrastructure vulnerability (TG Sitharam, 2014; Jonmenjoy Barman, 2022). Road disruptions heighten household risk, making mobility both necessary and challenging.

b) Development projects and ecological externalities: Infrastructure expansion and development projects intensify ecological stress through deforestation, slope cutting, and land disturbance, raising landslide susceptibility and long-term environmental degradation (Lin, 2011). States like Mizoram, with fragile hill ecosystems, face significant risks from large-scale infrastructure projects, leading to environmental disruption, livelihood impacts, and community displacement (Verma et al., 2025).

c) Social norms and household structures shaping mobility: Social practices, including gendered and family-related migration patterns like marriage-linked relocation, influence mobility flows and interact with economic decisions (Sow et al., 2014). In contexts where rural-to-urban migration improves status and perceived opportunities, mobility can be socially reinforced rather than merely economically necessary.

Integrated interpretation: from 'labour migration' to 'risk-and-livelihood mobility.'

A purely labour-centric view of migration in Mizoram is inadequate. Environmental pressures, such as hazards and deforestation, and socio-economic factors, such as education and employment gaps, as well as structural development issues, all influence migration by shaping risk and opportunity. The outcome is a spectrum of mobility, from planned migration for education and work to forced relocation due to hazards, often leading to Aizawl and major Indian cities as households seek stability, services, and income diversification (Peri, 2023; Pautunthang, 2021; Lalpekmawia Hlawndo, 2015).

Migration Outcomes and Vulnerabilities

Migration enables access to education, employment, and services, but it also redistributes vulnerability (Ateia et al., 2018). Occupational shifts from agriculture to service or informal employment increase income stability for some but expose others to labour insecurity (Lalpekmawia Hlawndo, 2015), particularly among migrants lacking social networks or professional qualifications. Migration illustrates the shift from environmental and livelihood risks in rural areas to economic and social vulnerabilities in urban settings.

Cultural and social adjustment represents another important dimension of migrant vulnerability. Mizo migrants in metropolitan cities report discrimination, language barriers, and social isolation (Ratnamala Vanamamalai, 2017). Challenges can hinder access to housing, job opportunities, and social integration, especially for first-generation

migrants who lack familiarity with urban systems. Although constitutional rights ensure mobility and equality, the discrepancy between these rights and real-life experiences fosters insecurity among migrant communities.

Limited awareness of legal rights further intensifies vulnerability (Kumar, 2020), particularly for climate-induced migrants lacking formal recognition. This invisibility highlights a governance gap in addressing migration outside formal labor channels.

Community networks mitigate some risks (Wu et al., 2024), yet reliance on informal support underscores the absence of structured institutional mechanisms. Migration thus transforms environmental vulnerability at origin into social and legal vulnerability at destination.

Legal And Policy Analysis: The Migration Governance Gap

Migration governance in India has historically developed around labour regulation and welfare provision rather than vulnerability arising from environmental or livelihood disruption. Existing legal frameworks, such as the Inter-State Migrant Workmen Act, 1979, regulate employment conditions, wages, and employer responsibilities for interstate migrant workers (R. Srivastava, 2017). These schemes function as welfare or employment interventions, not as mechanisms of migration governance. They fail to address the legal status, protection needs, or rehabilitation concerns of those affected by environmental risks or declining agriculture. As a result, migration driven by environmental and climate change remains unrecognized despite its growing policy importance.

This limitation highlights a broader gap in migration governance. Current policies mainly respond to migration pressures after they arise, focusing on employment regulation and welfare for migrants rather than supporting the resilience of communities vulnerable to displacement. Consequently, governance often addresses the aftermath of mobility rather than the root causes of compelled migration. The lack of resilience-oriented policy integration perpetuates a cycle wherein environmental stress leads to

livelihood insecurity and migration, without mechanisms to support sustainable settlement in at-risk regions.

The lack of legal recognition for climate-induced migration represents a significant governance gap. Indian law does not classify climate-induced migration separately, and existing responses to displacement primarily arise from judicial intervention in development cases rather than from comprehensive legislation. Judicial decisions such as *T.N. Godavarman Thirumulpad v. Union of India, 1995*, and *Narmada Bachao Andolan v. Union of India, 2002* (Mallick, 2021), acknowledge the environmental and livelihood impacts of development and ecological degradation, but avoid creating a legal framework for addressing environmentally driven internal migration or long-term rehabilitation responsibilities. The resulting approach remains reactive and case-specific rather than preventive or policy-oriented.

The governance gap in migration is evident in limited legal awareness, unequal access to welfare, and inadequate support for migrants as they adapt to new environments. Migrants from climate-sensitive regions face barriers such as housing access, employment discrimination, and administrative exclusion, despite constitutional rights. With the changing climate, the case of climate migration is expected to increase in the state. These challenges emphasize the gap between legal protections and their practical application in migration contexts.

The Mizo case highlights a key policy limitation in India's approach to migration. While the country regulates migrant labor, it fails to adequately manage migration as a complex process influenced by environmental risks, livelihood changes, and social vulnerability. As environmental pressures affect internal mobility in fragile regions, the lack of a policy framework to address climate-induced migration exacerbates protection gaps and weakens long-term resilience. To address this, migration governance should move beyond just employment regulation to an integrated approach that acknowledges environmental change as a core driver of mobility, while also

enhancing resilience in areas of origin. This way, migration can be a choice rather than a necessity.

Policy Framework for Climate-Sensitive Migration Governance

Based on the findings from this study, migration in Mizoram is driven by environmental, socio-economic, and institutional factors. The following actionable recommendations aim to transform existing migration governance into a climate-sensitive framework that integrates resilience, mobility, and protection:

1. Strengthening Rooted Resilience: Policies for Sustaining Communities

Strengthening environmental, livelihood, and institutional conditions to reduce the need for migration and empower communities to remain in place.

a. Establish a new legal category for 'climate-induced migrants,' enabling them to access social services, legal rights, and protection under existing frameworks. This will formalize migration induced by environmental stressors, ensuring recognition in policy and legal frameworks.
b. Integrate Environmental Vulnerability Indicators: Incorporate environmental risk assessments into district-level planning to identify high-risk areas and implement early warning systems for climate-related hazards (e.g., landslides). Ensure that disaster management and rural development programs consider environmental vulnerabilities to facilitate proactive planning and risk reduction rather than reactive relief.
c. Promote Climate-Resilient Agriculture: Implement policies focused on soil conservation, agroforestry, and climate-smart agricultural techniques to support rural communities. Establish incentives for sustainable farming practices and alternative livelihoods to prevent the decline of agricultural productivity, which drives migration.

2. Supporting Adaptive Mobility: Migration as a Strategy for Opportunity

Recognize migration as an adaptive response to environmental and socio-economic change, and facilitate safe, informed migration.

a. Enhance Skill Development and Access to Education: Launch vocational training programs tailored to the needs of climate-vulnerable communities. These should focus on skills transferable to urban areas or other regions affected by migration, such as construction, green technologies, and services. Facilitate partnerships with local educational institutions and vocational training centers to improve access to quality education in rural areas, thus reducing distress migration for educational purposes.
b. Improve Mobility Infrastructure: Develop transport infrastructure that connects rural communities to urban centers, enabling safe, informed migration. This includes improving roads, public transport, and access to information for migrants. Implement information campaigns and migration advisory centers that provide migrants with knowledge about destination areas, including legal rights, housing options, and employment opportunities.
c. Support Labour Mobility: Develop policies that facilitate labour migration and ensure that migrants have access to portable welfare benefits (e.g., social security, pensions) across states and sectors. Strengthen coordination between state and national agencies to allow the portable transfer of welfare entitlements, such as healthcare and social security, for migrating populations.

3. Integrating Environmental and Socio-Economic Policies

Build an integrated framework that aligns migration governance, environmental policy, and socio-economic development.

a. Incorporate Migration into Development Plans: Integrate migration considerations into development and urban planning strategies, ensuring that the needs of migrants are addressed from the planning phase. This includes creating sustainable urban infrastructure, affordable housing, and employment schemes for migrants in destination areas.

b. Strengthen Local Governance: Empower local governments and community-based organizations, such as the Young Mizo Association (YMA), to manage migration-related challenges in their regions. This includes engaging local stakeholders in the planning and implementation of migration governance strategies.
c. Create Long-Term Resilience Strategies: Support long-term resilience-building strategies in vulnerable regions that combine climate adaptation, economic development, and migration management into one cohesive framework. This could include multi-stakeholder dialogues that bring together local authorities, NGOs, and migrant communities.

Conclusion

This study examines migration in Mizoram as a result of interacting environmental, socio-economic, and structural pressures, rather than merely labor mobility or individual economic choice. It highlights how environmental degradation, recurrent hazards, and declining agricultural viability influence livelihood decisions, promoting mobility as an adaptive response. Additionally, educational mobility, employment constraints, and uneven regional development reinforce migration patterns beyond conventional economic explanations. Thus, in the Mizo context, migration reflects a broader transition wherein environmental stress and livelihood transformation shape internal mobility.

The findings reveal a significant mismatch between migration realities and governance frameworks in India. Migration policy and legal protections focus primarily on labor regulation and welfare, leaving environmentally influenced internal migration largely unrecognized. Consequently, migration often redistributes vulnerability instead of resolving it, with environmental insecurity in origin areas replaced by social, economic, and legal precarity in destination areas. This gap underscores the limitations of policies treating migration as a sector-specific issue rather than a structural outcome of environmental and developmental changes.

The study introduces rooted resilience, framing migration not just as mobility but as a sign of declining environmental and livelihood stability in the origin areas. This shifts migration governance from reactive to proactive strategies that focus on environmental risk reduction, livelihood sustainability, and migrant protection. The paper advocates for a climate-sensitive migration governance approach that acknowledges the adaptive potential of mobility while enhancing conditions that enable communities to stay in their preferred locations.

The insights from this study, while focused on Mizoram, are relevant to environmentally fragile regions in India, where gradual environmental changes affect migration decisions without adequate institutional adaptation. Developing governance frameworks that integrate environmental resilience, adaptive mobility, and legal protection is crucial to making migration a pathway to stability rather than a distress outcome. Future research with empirical evidence could enhance understanding of how governance influences migration decisions at the household and community levels.

References

Alanís-Anaya, R. M., Legorreta-Paulin, G., Mas, J.-F., & Granados-Ramírez, G. R. (2017). Susceptibility to gravitational processes due to land cover change in the Río Chiquito-Barranca del Muerto subbasin (Pico De Orizaba Volcano, México). *Journal of Mountain Science*, *14*(12), 2511–2526. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11629-016-4268-9

Ateia, J., Bona, P., Schmieglitz, S. (2018). Labour Market Access and Labour Opportunities for Refugees. Examples from Freiburg. In: Kury, H., Redo, S. (eds) Refugees and Migrants in Law and Policy. Springer, Cham. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-72159-0_15

Barman, J., Biswas, B., Das, J. (2022). Mizoram, the Capital of Landslide: A Review of Articles Published on Landslides in Mizoram, India. In J. D. Bhattacharya (Ed.), *Monitoring and Managing Multi-hazards: A Multidisciplinary Approach* 97-104. Springer Cham. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-031-15377-8_6

Devendiran, C. (2015). Unemployment among educated youth in Mizoram: A way forward. *Mizoram University Journal of Humanities & Social Sciences, 1*(1), 42–52.

Doevenspeck, M. (2011). The Thin Line Between Choice and Flight: Environment and Migration in Rural Benin. *International Migration*, *49* (S1), 50–68. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2435.2010.00632.x

Hlawndo, L., Sailo, G. L., Kanagaraj E. (2015). Migration and Development: Perceptions and Experiences of Migrants in Aizawl, Mizoram. In D. R. Vadhera (Ed.), *Development Of North East India, Multidimensional Perspective, 2,* 444–525. Delhi: Manglam Publishers & Distributors Delhi-110053

Hmar, L. (2021). Origin and early migration of the Mizo. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Research*, 7(1), 52–57.

Ivanova, A., Singh, D., Rai, P., Richards, C. A., Vasconcelos, H., & Goldsby, M. G. (2024). Climate hazards and human migration: literature review. *Environmental Research 3(4)*. https://doi.org/10.1088/2752-5295/ad6fc4

Kumar, S. K. (2020). Migration policy reforms in India: Some reflections. In Rajan, S.I. (Ed.). India Migration Report 2010: Governance and Labour Migration (1st ed.). 243-250 Routledge India.

Lalthangliana, B. (1980). *History of Mizo (in Burma)*. R. L. Rina, Zawlbuk Agency

Lalzara. (2024). Cyclone Remal claims 27 lives in Aizawl district; landslides and floods damage public infrastructure. *Directorate of Information and Public Relations* https://dipr.mizoram.gov.in/post/cyclone-remal-claims-27-lives-in-aizawl-district-landslides-and-floods-cause-damage-to-public-infrastructure

Lin, Q. (2011). Influence of Dams on River Ecosystem and Its Countermeasures. *Journal of Water Resource and Protection 3*, 60-66. DOI: 10.4236/jwarp.2011.31007

Loiwal, M. (2017). Mizoram is facing the worst floods in 50 years; and hundreds are homeless. *India Today*. https://www.indiatoday.in/india/story/mizoram-flood-manipur-flood-monsoon-tlawng-river-982769-2017-06-14

Madurga-Lopez, I., Murray, U., McKeown, P. C., Pacillo, G., Laderach, P., & Spillane, C. (2023). Climate-related migration and the climate-security-migration nexus in the Central American Dry Corridor. *Climatic Change*, *176*(6).

Mallick, K. (2021). Narmada Bachao Andolan (NBA): Save the Narmada. In *Environmental Movements of India: Chipko, Narmada Bachao Andolan, Navdanya* (pp. 59–82). Chapter, Amsterdam University Press.

Mügge, L.M. (2011). Diversity in Transnationalism: Surinamese Organizational Networks. International Migration, 49: 52–75. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2435.2011.00692.x

Nabong, E. C., Hocking, L., Opdyke, A., & Walters, J. P. (2023). Decision-making factor interactions influencing climate migration: A systems-based systematic review. *Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Climate Change*, *14*. DOI:10.1002/wcc.828

Pachuau, A. L., Devi, O.H. (2020). Shifting Cultivation and Environment: A Study of Subsistence to Profit in Mizoram. *Mizoram University Journal Of Humanities & Social Sciences Vol 6*, 47–61.

Pautunthang, N. (2021). Internal Migration in Mizoram: Highlights of Census Data. *Praxis International Journal of Social Science and Literature Vol-4, Issue-8*, 103-117 DOI: 10.51879/PIJSSL/040814

Peri, D. (2023). *Refugee influx into Mizoram from all around and new concerns. The Hindu* https://www.thehindu.com/news/national/refugee-influx-into-mizoram-from-all-around-and-new-concerns/article66930789.ece

R. Srivastava, A. (2017). Internal and international migration in South Asia: Drivers, Interlinkage and policy issues. *United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization*.

Ralte, L. (2015). Farming in Mizoram: Jhumming and the role of women . *International Journal of Multidisciplinary Research and Development Vol-2, Issue 7*, 496-500.

Ratnamala, V ., Lalremdiki, A., Kumar, M. S ., Maart, R (2017). Race, Space and the City: Racism against Mizo Migrants in Metropolitan Chennai City. *Contemporary Social Scientist 9(2)*, 104-110

Sati, V. (2019). Shifting cultivation in Mizoram, India: An empirical study of its economic implications. *Journal of Mountain Science Volume 16* (9), 2136–2149. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11629-019-5416-9

Sati, V. (2022). Mizoram: Land and People. In V. Sati, *Chapter 2- Climate of Mizoram* (p. 19). Today & Tomorrows Printers and Publishers

Scissa, C. (2021). Recognition and protection of environmental migrants in international law. *E-International Relations*. https://www.e-ir.info/2021/06/24/recognition-and-protection-of-environmental-migrants-in-international-law/

Sharma, A. (2024). Migration: Concept, Factors, Impacts and Migration in India. *International Journal for Multidisciplinary Research*, *6*(4). 1-8 https://doi.org/10.36948/ijfmr.2024.v06i04.24649

Sitharam, T.G., Sil, A. (2014). Comprehensive seismic hazard assessment of Tripura and Mizoram states. *Journal of Earth System Science, 123 (4)*, 837–857. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12040-014-0438-8

Soni, J. (2021). *Transforming Agriculture in Mizoram from subsistence to sustainability.* Kolasib: ICAR Research Complex for NEH Region Mizoram Centre

Sow, P., Adaawen, S. A., & Scheffran, J. (2014). Migration, social demands and environmental change amongst the Frafra of Northern Ghana and the Biali in Northern Benin. *Sustainability*, *6*(1), 375–398. https://doi.org/10.3390/su6010375

Szaboova, L., Adger, W. N., Safra de Campos, R., Maharjan, A., Sakdapolrak, P., Sterly, H., Conway, D., Codjoe, S. N. A., & Abu, M. (2023). Evaluating migration as successful adaptation to climate change: Trade-offs in well-being, equity, and sustainability. *One Earth*, *6*(6), 620–631 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.oneear.2023.05.009

Verma, R. (2014). Landslide Hazard in Mizoram: Case Study of Laipuitlang Landslide in Aizawl. *International Journal of Science and Research*, 3 (6), 2262-2266.

Verma, R., Malsawmtluanga, Blick, J. (2025). Appraisal of Geoenvironmental threats posed by Indo-Myanmar Kaladan Multi-Modal Transit Transport Project (KMTTP) in southern Mizoram, India. *Disaster Advances*, *18*(7), 61–67. https://doi.org/10.25303/187da061067

Wu, G., Li, J., Tian, Y., & Yu, J. (2024). Revealing the power of informal social support: Impact on rural migrants' entrepreneurial income. *International Migration, 63*(2), 1-20. https://doi.org/10.1111/imig.13340