

1 **Living with Climate Change:**
2 **Climate change adaptation through supporting women fish**
3 **processing groups in Malawi**

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7 **Abstract:**

8 In recent years, research on climate change and human security has received much
9 attention among policy makers and academia alike. Communities in the Global South
10 that rely on an intact resource base and struggle with poverty, existing inequalities and
11 historical injustices will especially be affected by predicted changes in temperature and
12 precipitation. The objective of this article is to better understand under what conditions
13 local communities can adapt to anticipated impacts of climate change. The empirical
14 part of the paper answers the question to what extent local communities in the Chilwa
15 Basin in Malawi have experienced climate change and how they are affected by it.
16 Further, it assesses one of Malawi's adaptation projects designed to build resilience to a
17 warmer and more variable climate, and points to some of its limitations. This research
18 shows that not all adaptation strategies are suited to cope with a warmer and more
19 variable climate, and concludes that livelihood diversification can be an effective
20 adaptation strategy.

21

22 **Keywords:** climate change, Malawi, climate change adaptation, human security

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27

28 **1 Introduction**

29 It is a fact that anthropogenic climate change has and is going to have severe impact on
30 developing countries, especially those with a climate-sensitive economy (DARA, 2012).
31 Moreover, countries in the global South struggle with poverty, horizontal inequalities,
32 armed conflict, poor governance, and historical injustices, some of the additional
33 compounding factors that make them vulnerable (O'Brien et al. 2000). Therefore, by
34 framing climate change impacts as a human security concern fits with the discussion on
35 differential vulnerability, given the array of social, political, and economic factors that
36 make people vulnerable in the first place. The debate on the human security
37 implications of climate change has gained momentum in recent years. This is due to a
38 lively policy debate as well as to several publications in journals and books (Brzoska
39 and Scheffran 2013; Scheffran et al. 2012, Webersik 2010). Yet, climate change impacts
40 and their causal linkages with human security are complex and multifaceted, and
41 research needs to address “the limits of our capacity to understand complexity”
42 (Nicholson 2013: 158). Keeping this in mind, this research aims at contextualising
43 climate change adaption and its limitations in southern Malawi. Climate variability is a
44 perceived human security challenge among fishing communities in southern Malawi,
45 hence climate change adaption is becoming an important strategy for these
46 communities to cope with the anticipated changes. The term human security is
47 adequate in the context of climate change impacts as it includes issues pertinent to food
48 security, public health, or any type of loss in key livelihood assets as opposed to the
49 term security defined as freedom from physical force. The term human security
50 acknowledges the fact that humans are both victims and agents of change. While
51 humans are affected by climate change impacts, they are at the same time able to
52 mitigate the drivers of climate change as well as able to adapt to real and anticipated
53 changes. Countries of the global South are typically low-income countries and are least
54 responsible for anthropogenic climate change. Yet, given their predominantly climate-
55 sensitive economies, with rain-fed agriculture dominating, a large percentage of the
56 population economically dependent on agriculture, their low financial and institutional
57 capacity to cope with and to withstand natural hazards, they are most severely affected

58 by it. Current and future changes in temperature and precipitation variability, and
59 changes in the intensity of natural hazards will most certainly affect food security,
60 public health and agricultural productivity in low-income countries.

61 This reflects the notion that climate change is a 'threat multiplier' exacerbating existing
62 tensions, such as poverty. Even when climate change adaptation becomes unavoidable,
63 it needs to be sustainable. Some adaptation strategies, such as agricultural innovation in
64 the fisheries sector as demonstrated in this article, are important in the short-term to
65 relieve some of the pressures climate change may pose but may fail in the long-term in
66 securing a sustainable livelihood.

67 The purpose of this article is to better understand human-environmental interactions,
68 bearing in mind their complexity, more specifically climate change adaptation and its
69 limitations. By taking the example of Lake Chilwa Basin in Malawi, this article asks the
70 following research questions: To what extent have women in Lake Chilwa Basin
71 perceived changes in the climate, what have they experienced and how have they been
72 affected by it? To what extent do local climate change adaptation projects increase the
73 women' adaptive capacity? Evidence is drawn from a case study of the Lake Chilwa
74 Basin Climate Change Adaptation Programme (LCBCCAP) and its Women Fish
75 Processing Groups (WFPGs). Most important, this article demonstrates that some
76 adaptation strategies have limitations and are not suited to cope with a warmer and
77 more variable climate.

78 The article is divided in a theoretical and empirical part. The theoretical part evaluates
79 the role of climate change for human security, followed by a discussion on climate
80 change adaptation and its limitations. The empirical part draws from a field study in
81 Malawi, more specifically the Lake Chilwa Basin. This region is home to 1.5 million
82 people, most of them depending on its natural resources for sustaining livelihoods. This
83 section sheds light on how climate change affects local fishing communities in the Basin
84 and critically evaluates the long-term effectiveness and relevance of an adaptation
85 project implemented in these communities.

86 **2 Human security, climate change adaptation and its limitations**

87 **2.1 Climate change and human security**

88 Malawi is extremely poor, with a high population growth, it is highly dependent on
89 natural resources and is hence vulnerable to climate change. Despite existing and
90 functioning coping mechanisms of climate variability, such as selling economic assets,
91 agricultural diversification, and labour migration, climate change may have severe
92 impacts on rural poor and should therefore be considered as a real threat to the
93 population's human security. A study conducted by ActionAid finds that the country has
94 already seen an increase in the number of extreme weather events in terms of floods
95 and drought since the 1970s till 2006 (Action Aid 2006). Sustainable adaptation
96 strategies can therefore be seen as a means to avoid human insecurity. This article
97 argues that global environmental change, poverty, and society must be put into context
98 rather than purely focusing on the causal links between climate change impacts and
99 human security. A region in southern Malawi was selected with great demographic and
100 environmental challenges, to better understand what and why some adaption
101 mechanisms may work or may not function..

102 **2.2 Climate change adaptation**

103 In the 1990s and early 2000s the climate change debate was mostly focused on how to
104 mitigate climate change. In recent years growing attention has been given to climate
105 change adaptation (Adger et al. 2009; Dodman and Mitlin 2011; UNFCCC 2011).

106
107 The literature provides a broad spectrum of understandings of the concept. Adaptation
108 has its origin from natural science and was later adopted by anthropologists and social
109 scientists and used in relation to human systems and human-environment systems.
110 (Smit and Wandel 2006). Adger et al. (2003: 192) provides a useful definition and refers
111 to climate change adaptation as "the adjustment of a system to moderate the impacts of
112 climate change, to take advantage of new opportunities or to cope with the
113 consequences".

114 Adaptation initiatives may be carried out by governments, IGOs, NGOs, CBOs or
115 individuals and may be either anticipatory or a reactive action. The aim of adaptation is

116 reduced vulnerability or increased resilience and it involves changing processes or
117 practices in social and ecological systems through reducing potential damages or
118 engaging in new opportunities (Adger et al. 2007). Climate change adaptation rarely
119 only focuses on factors related to climate change. Adaptation may incorporate any
120 practices or initiatives that increase resilience to elements constituting threats to
121 communities that may aggravate through climate change, such as poverty.

122 According to the Fifth Assessment Report of the IPCC (Niang et al. 2014; Boko et al.
123 2007) Africa is one of the most vulnerable continents to climate change due to its high
124 exposure (e.g. heavy reliance on climate sensitive agriculture) and low adaptive capacity
125 (e.g. poverty). Key adaptation strategies are diversification of livelihood activities,
126 adjustment in farming operations, income generating projects, selling of labour and the
127 move towards off-farm or non-farm livelihood incomes (Boko et al. 2007). The results of
128 this paper suggest that these adaptation strategies are relevant also for Malawi.

129

130 **2.3 Limitations of climate change adaptation**

131 Not all adaptation strategies are sustainable, with limited long-term effectiveness. For
132 instance, adapting to climate change may require human migration and resettlement.
133 This debate is highly contested and received attention among scholars (Tacoli 2009;
134 Baldwin 2016; Brzoska and Frölich 2016). Recent research in low-lying island states
135 demonstrates that local perceptions on climate change-induced migration differ from
136 the dominant political discourse on climate-induced migration in the same location, and
137 that not migrating can be both, a strategy to adapt or to fail to adapt (Kelman et al.
138 2015). Though there is little evidence that environmental-induced migration has the
139 potential to trigger violent conflict, it most certainly will create major challenges for
140 hosting communities, especially in regions that are already densely populated, for
141 example Malawi (Webersik 2012). Climate related outmigration could also change the
142 social fabric of those communities that stay behind. With shrinking populations,
143 markets and political institutions can get distorted making it more difficult for those left
144 behind to adapt to climate change (Barnett 2012). In other cases, adaptation strategies
145 that do not take into consideration the long-term impacts of climate change may prove
146 unsustainable. Livelihood diversification is a laudable approach, however, if farming

147 diversification activities or commercialisation of agriculture remain climate-sensitive,
148 the long-term adaptation effect may remain limited as the following case study in the
149 Lake Chilwa Basin in Malawi demonstrates. Other unintended social and environmental
150 consequences of climate change adaptation can stem from large infrastructure projects,
151 such as dam-building for hydropower and water storage, biofuel plantations, and water
152 relocation projects, all relevant for the African context (de Sherbinin et al. 2011). For
153 instance, the growing number of biofuel plantations bought by foreign investors has
154 triggered a debate on land grabbing in Africa (Matondi 2011). Most important, if people
155 are forced to relocate due to large infrastructure projects or land-use change, their
156 economic potential and environmental vulnerability need to be evaluated for current
157 and future climate change impacts, as well.

158 **3 Explaining the context of Malawi**

159 Malawi is one of the smaller countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, landlocked between
160 Mozambique, Zambia and Tanzania. Nyasaland, as it was previously known, was under
161 British rule from 1891 to 1964 when it gained its independence. After three decades of
162 one-party rule with Hastings Banda as president, Malawi held its first multiparty
163 elections in 1994 (CIA 2015). In contrast to the majority of the African countries,
164 Malawi has not experienced an armed conflict after independence (Uppsala Conflict
165 Data Programme 2012).

166 Malawi is one of the most densely populated countries in Africa with a population of
167 approximately 15,380 000 on an area of 94,276 square kilometres (EAD 2010; UNDP
168 2012). It has a high population growth of 2.80%, according to 2008 estimates (NSO
169 2012). It is one of the least-developed countries (LDCs) with a gross national income
170 (GNI) of USD 850 purchasing power parity (PPP) per capita and ranks as 171 out of 179
171 on UNDP's human development index (UNDP 2011). 74 per cent of Malawi's population
172 live on less than a dollar (PPP) a day (2004 estimate) (UNSTATS 2012).

173 According to the Government of Malawi, the country's economy is predominantly
174 agricultural and Malawi depends on just a few cash crops. One-third of the country's
175 gross domestic product (GDP) comes from agriculture, forestry and fishing. Agricultural

176 goods dominate Malawi's export commodities such as tobacco, tea and sugar. Together
177 they constitute nearly 80 per cent of Malawi's exports.

178 The country is highly vulnerable to the effects of climate change and variability in the
179 rainy season due to the country's dependency on natural resources. Changes such as
180 rainfall onset, dry spells and distribution patterns can seriously jeopardise the country's
181 economy (EAD 2010). Such changes also threatens the country's food security and puts
182 further pressure on Malawi's poor as most households rely on subsistence rainfed
183 farming for their livelihood (Kalanda-Joshua et al. 2011). Climate change may therefore
184 threaten the majority of Malawi's population, of whom approximately 90 per cent live in
185 rural areas (Stringer et al. 2009). Hence, future impacts of climate change and climate
186 variability will very much depend on the adaptive ability of the rural population
187 (Fischer et al. 2010).

188

189 **3.1 Malawi and climate change**

190 There have been some studies conducted on Malawi and climate change.. UNDPs
191 Climate Change Country Profile concludes that Malawi is experiencing an increase in
192 mean annual temperature. From 1960 to 2006 the mean annual temperature has
193 increased by 0.9°C, an average rate of 0.21°C per decade (McSweeney et al. 2012). It is
194 predicted that the temperature will continue to rise by 1.1 to 3.0°C by the 2060s and
195 further by 1.5 to 5.0°C by the 2090s. Observations show a significant increase in the
196 frequency of hot days and nights throughout the year, with the highest increase during
197 the summer months (December, January and February). Vizy and colleagues moreover
198 predict a shortening of the growing season in southern Malawi (Vizy et al. 2015).

199 While data on temperatures shows significant changes, long-term precipitation trends
200 are more difficult to identify and predict.. McSweeney (et al. 2012) found no statistically
201 significant trends in precipitation. The future predictions of annual rainfall show no
202 substantial change but it is predicted that it will fall over a shorter period causing
203 heavier rainfall events. It is however noted that the different models predict a wide
204 range of possible outcomes. This is due to Malawi's geographical position, located as it is
205 between two regions of opposing climatic response to El Niño. Eastern equatorial Africa
206 usually receives above average rainfall during El Niño while south-eastern Africa tends

207 to experience below average rainfall. La Niña normally cause the opposite effect
208 (McSweeney et al. 2012).

209 A study conducted by the Department of Climate Change and Meteorological Services
210 (DCCMS) in Malawi, found that there are some long-term changes in precipitation and a
211 general decrease in precipitation is documented, but regional variations are also found.
212 Just as UNDP, they conclude that the mean temperature in the whole country is higher
213 than it was two decades ago with warmer winters and summers (EAD 2010). Further,
214 when debating climate change it is often stated that extreme events will increase. The
215 IPCC claims that there is not yet a sufficiently developed instrument to make possible
216 conclusions about whether extreme events have increased globally and thus they can
217 only answer to individual extreme events (IPCC 2012). For Malawi an increase in
218 extreme events would mean an increase in dry spells, seasonal droughts, intense rainfall,
219 riverine floods and flash floods (Njaya et al. 2011).

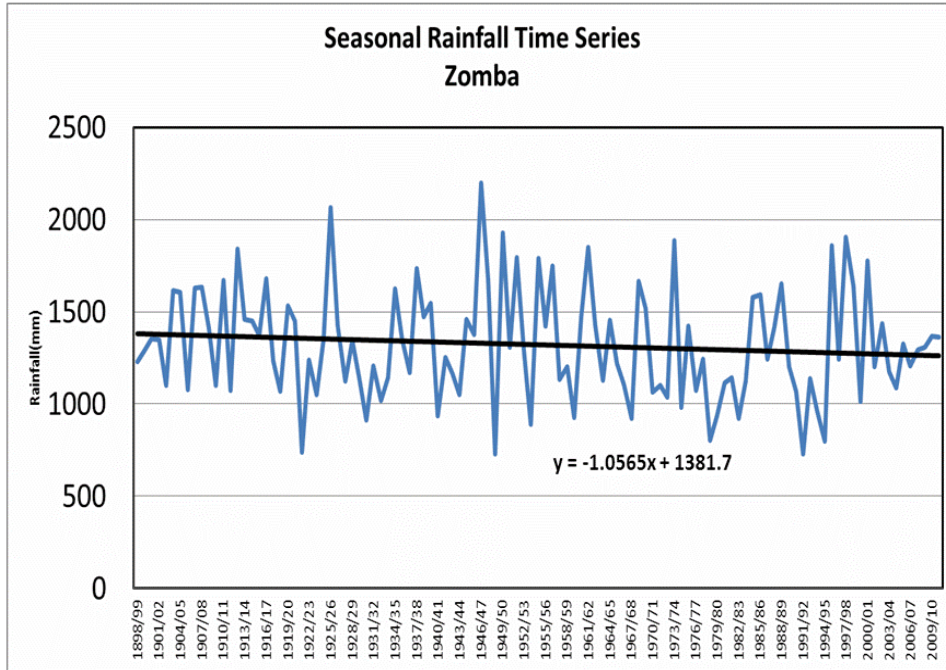
220

221 **3.1.1 Lake Chilwa Basin and climate change**

222 Some studies have also been conducted on climate change in the Lake Chilwa Basin. It
223 must be noted, however, that Lake Chilwa Basin is located in a climatically unstable
224 environment and fluctuations in rainfall and temperature has been recorded since the
225 1960's. It is therefore not clear if the climate is changing significantly (EAD 2000). Data
226 does however show a slight decrease in rainfall and an increase in temperature in the
227 Lake Chilwa Basin. Statistics from the Meteorological Department show that the mean
228 maximum temperatures in the basin have risen by approximately 1°C (EAD 2000). A
229 decrease in precipitation since the mid-1980s has also been documented in the basin as
230 shown in figure 1. The combined effects of higher temperatures and less rain is arguably
231 the reason for the gradual decrease in Lake Chilwa's water level discussed in section
232 5.2.2 (EAD 2000) (See figure 3). Scenarios of the basin predicts that air temperatures in
233 the basin will increase 2.6°C to 4.7°C by 2075 while scenarios of precipitation varies
234 from a 8.3 per cent increase to a 7 per cent decrease (EAD 2000). Moreover, local
235 studies show that there is a chance of shorter growing seasons in in the future in
236 southern Malawi due to global warming (Cook et al. 2015), and this trend is already
237 being experienced by the local population, as discussed in section 5.2.1.

238

239 **Figure 1: Seasonal rainfall time series Zomba**



240

241 Source: Carr (2012)

242

243 **4. Methods**

244 The empirical part of this study is based on a case study of the Lake Chilwa Basin
245 Climate Change Adaptation Programme. LCBCCAP is a five-year joint programme
246 (2010-2014) implemented by Leadership for Environment and Development Southern
247 & Eastern Africa (LEAD SEA), WorldFish Centre (WFC) and Forestry Research Institute
248 of Malawi (FRIM). The programme is funded by the Norwegian Government through the
249 Norwegian Embassy in Malawi. LCBCCAP main objective is to secure the livelihood of
250 the 1.5 million people living in the Lake Chilwa Basin and enhance the resilience of the
251 natural resource base they depend on. To meet the objective, LCBCCAP develop and
252 implement basin-wide climate change adaptation strategies and works towards
253 increasing the capacity of communities to adopt sustainable livelihood and natural
254 resource management practices (LEAD 2011). The programme has a number of
255 projects in the basin and one of them is the WFPG, facilitated by WFC. The objective of

256 the WFPGs is to enhance adaptive capacity through fish processing. WFPG-project does
257 this by 1) improving traditional methods of processing fish in order to increase quality
258 and reduce wastage, which increases the women's income and savings, and 2) providing
259 the WFPG members with training, such as business management, climate change,
260 gender-issues and group dynamics. The majority of the women participating in the
261 programme were in the fish sector prior to the project.

262

263 The research for this article adopted a qualitative methodology and the data was
264 collected over two months from January to March 2012 by one of the authors, Hanne
265 Jørstad. The findings are based on semi-structured interviews and focus group
266 discussions with 18 women who were members of the three different WFPGs located in
267 separate locations around the lake, Swang'oma, Tadala and Kachulu.. In addition to
268 talking with the beneficiaries of the project interviews were also held with Leadership
269 for Environment and Development Southern and Easter Africa (LEAD), WorldFish
270 Centre (WFC) and Department of Fisheries (DoF).

271

272 The purposive sampling technique was chosen for this study in order to select
273 respondents that are relevant for the study. The sampling technique is commonly used
274 for qualitative research and especially small-scale projects (Bryman 2008, Denscombe
275 2007). Because purposive sampling is under the category of non-probability sampling it
276 entails that the respondents are not randomly selected but rather 'handpicked'. It also
277 implies that findings cannot be generalised to the enlarged population nor can one
278 assume that the respondents represent the overall population (Denscombe 2007).
279 However for this research it is not seen as necessary nor is it the intention for the
280 research to reveal the general Malawian's experience with climate change, but rather
281 focus on the specific case study of LCBCCAP and its women fish processing groups, how
282 these women experience climate change and if the project increases their long-term
283 adaptive capacity. To gain as broad understanding of the WFPG as possible, interviews
284 were carried out with members from all three groups. A notice was sent out to the
285 group members in advance, though it varied how many group members turned up for
286 the interviews. All respondents participated voluntarily and were thoroughly

287 introduced to the purpose and topic of the study. A local interpreter was used for all
288 interviews with the WFPG members due to language barriers.

289 **5 Living with climate change: Experiences from Lake Chilwa Basin.**

290
291 The scientific material presented above illustrates a Malawi in change. These studies are
292 further strengthened by testimonies from local communities in the Lake Chilwa Basin.
293 Findings from a case study of the Lake Chilwa Basin Climate Change Adaptation
294 Programme (LCBCCAP) and its Women Fish Processing Groups (WFPGs), revealed that
295 the women members of the groups have experienced and were impacted by changes in
296 the climate in the Lake Chilwa Basin.

297

298 **5.1 Local perceptions of climate change**

299 For the women in the Women Fish Processing Groups (WFPG), who rely on natural
300 resources for their food security and livelihood every day, climate change is part of the
301 present. The authors' study found that for the women in the WFPG climate change is
302 already affecting their lives. Out of the eighteen women that participated in the study,
303 all agreed that the climate is changing.

304 The major concern for the WFPG members is related to changes in rainfall pattern.
305 There are two main seasons in Malawi, one dry and one wet. The rainy season normally
306 starts in November and ends by the end of March and throughout the period they
307 expect daily rain. The rainy season is followed by a six months long dry season with
308 hardly any rain (Njaya et al. 2011). Any change to the start or end date of the rainy
309 season is regarded as a change in the rainfall pattern. In addition to the start and end
310 date of the season, the change in rainfall pattern also has to do with the frequency of
311 rain within the rainy season.

312 According to the respondents, the rainy seasons had become highly unpredictable in the
313 past four to five years as they had been delayed, inconsistent and short. The women
314 explained that they had experienced that the rain came as erratic, unpredictable rain
315 and there were longer drier periods within the rain season, also known as dry spells.

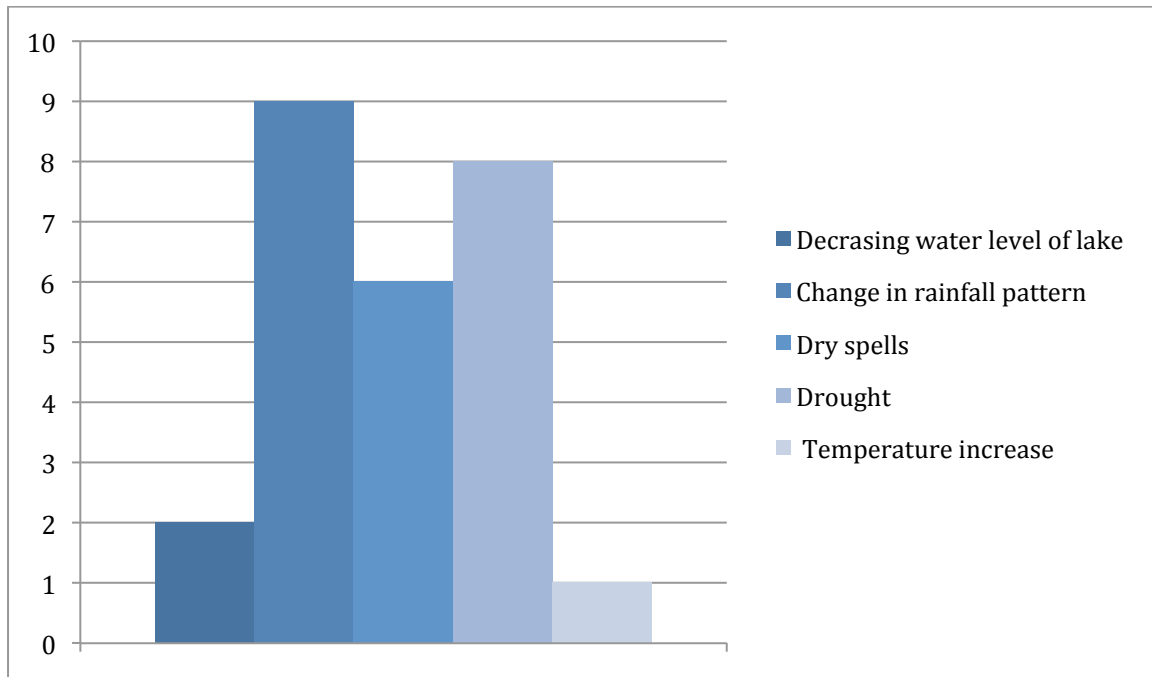
316 The rainy season of 2011-2012 is a good example of the recent trend. The women
317 expected the rain to start in October-November, but instead it started in late December
318 and ended in February instead of March. When the rain came, it was erratic and
319 frequently interrupted by dry spells.

320 Even though there is no significant reduction in the annual rainfall, unpredictable rainy
321 seasons can be just as challenging for subsistence farmers as a reduction in rainfall.
322 Despite the scientific evidence of significant warmer annual mean temperatures and a
323 significant increase of hot days (McSweeney et al. 2012), the women did not put much
324 emphasis on it when asked specific experiences with climate change. In fact, only one
325 woman spoke of warmer temperatures explaining that it had become increasingly
326 difficult to work outside during the day due to higher temperatures. The woman
327 however linked it to the fact that there are fewer trees than before due to over-
328 exploitation of trees for firewood. Without the shade from the trees, the temperatures
329 felt significantly warmer.

330 As mentioned earlier, Malawi is a country that is prone to extreme weather events such
331 as flood and drought and since the late 1970's the country has experienced an increase
332 of such events (Chipotha and Mphepo 2011). Out of eighteen women, eight had noticed
333 an increase in droughts, and six women had mentioned dry spells. Floods were not
334 mentioned, but it should be noted that the area is not prone to floods (See figure 2).

335

336 **Figure 2: The respondents experience with climate change**



337

338 Source: Author's research 2012.

339

340 **5.2. Climate change impacts in the Lake Chilwa Basin**

341 The authors' study found that the climatic changes the women experienced had a
342 significant impact on their everyday life such as their food security, subsistence farming
343 and livelihood. In other words, climate change exacerbates some of the most important
344 human security issues of rural poor.

345 **5.2.1 Food security and subsistence farming**

346 In the Lake Chilwa Basin 85 per cent of the population rely on rainfed subsistence
347 farming for their food consumption (Njaya et al. 2011). Since it is impossible to cultivate
348 without irrigation during the dry season, which the majority do not have access to, it is
349 crucial that the rainy season is predictable and stable for the households to be able to
350 cultivate sufficient amounts for the whole years. According one of the women from
351 Swang'oma " It is the fourth year that we have had poor harvest because of the poor
352 rain season". A woman from the same area explains, "during the past years the rain
353 been unpredictable and there has been several dry spells when the rain first came. Then
354 it has stopped before the maize matured".

355 The women had tried different types of crops such as hybrid maize, groundnuts, pigeon
356 peas and cassava, but none have produced satisfying results.

357 One of the main challenges for smallholder farmers in Malawi is to know when to plant.
358 Farmers have usually relied on their local knowledge to make decisions regarding
359 sowing (Kalanda-Joshua et al. 2011). According to the WFPG members, it used to be
360 common to plant when the first rain came. Previously it was considered optimal as the
361 rain usually continued to come consistently. Now they find that the rain is not as
362 predictable as dry spells often occur right after the first rain. When a dry spell occurs
363 the planted crops will fail to grow and consequently the households will have to replant.
364 One of the women from Kachulu explains how the unpredictable rain is increasing their
365 vulnerability. “This season I have planted maize three times, but every time it has
366 withered due to lack of rain. Because of the poor rain I am becoming poorer as it is
367 expensive to replant. I cannot afford to replant again, so I will have to purchase food
368 instead”. As a consequence of the poor and unpredictable rain season, the women are
369 being pushed further into poverty.

370 Several studies have similar findings (Action Aid 2006, Nagoli 2010, Kalanda-Joshua et
371 al. 2011). In Action Aid’s (2006) study on climate change and smallholder farmers in
372 Malawi, farmers complained about changes in the rainfall pattern and higher
373 temperatures, which has made it difficult to know when to plant and additionally
374 reduced the harvest. Climate variability is therefore making local knowledge less
375 reliable and it is threatening their main source of knowledge (Kalanda-Joshua et al.
376 2011).

377 As a consequence of the uncertainties in the rainy season and the harvest, the women
378 felt that they no longer could rely on subsistence farming. The majority of the women
379 therefore cultivated less and bought bigger proportions of their food from markets. It is
380 however viewed as a luxury that many cannot afford. The women had however been
381 able to increase their income and savings substantially through the WFPG and were
382 therefore capable of doing so. This may also pose a threat to sustainability of the
383 adaptation strategy, also discussed later in this article, as women of the WFPG may

384 decide not to continue with subsistence farming, making them more vulnerable when
385 the lake will dry up once again.

386

387 **5.2.2. Impacts on livelihoods**

388 The poor rain seasons and higher temperatures also had a negative effect on the
389 women's business. With fish processing as their main income generating activity they
390 were highly dependent on the fish stock in the lake.

391 Lake Chilwa is a closed drainage lake, meaning that no water flows out of the lake. Thus,
392 the water level is a direct result of the amount of rainfall that falls during the annual
393 rain season and the amount of water that evaporates. Because Lake Chilwa also is
394 shallow it is prone to drying. When it dries it takes one to two years for the lake to refill
395 and about three to four years for the fishery to recover (Njaya 2011). One of the
396 concerns related to climate change is that higher temperatures and a possible reduction
397 in precipitation will cause the lake to dry up more frequently. In the past century the
398 lake has dried nine times: 1903, 1913-1916, 1922, 1934, 1943-1949, 1967, 1973, 1975
399 and most recently in 1995-1996 (Chapotera 2012).

400

401 **Figure 3: The Landsat images show the size of Lake Chilwa in October 1990 and November 2013**
402 **and the changes in the internationally recognised wetland areas (in bright green) surrounding the**
403 **lake**



404

405 Source: USGS 2014 <https://www.flickr.com/photos/usgeologicalsurvey/11963785293/in/photostream/>
406 <https://eros.usgs.gov/imagegallery/image-week-2#lake-chilwa-top>

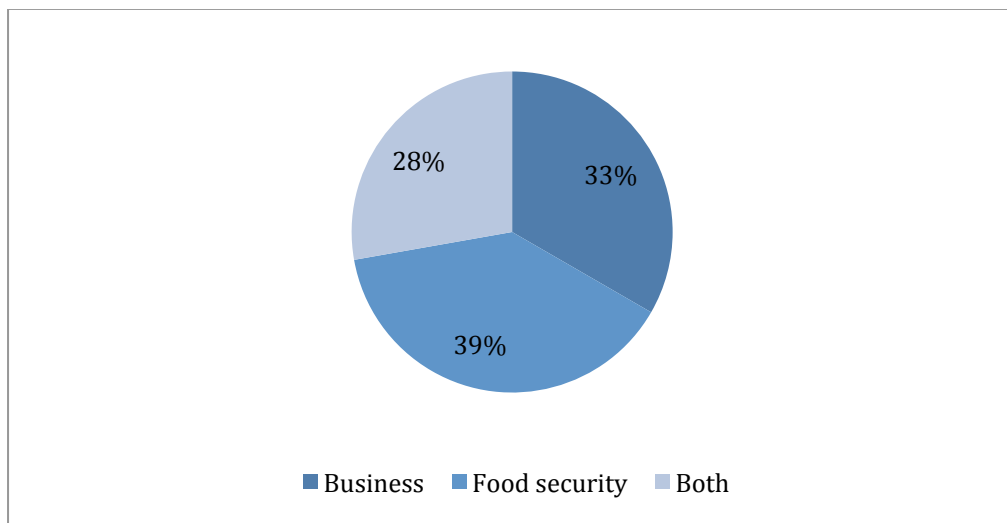
407

408 When the water level sinks the fish stock is reduced, which increases the price of the
409 remaining catch and reduces the women’s income. If the lake dries completely the
410 women are temporary out of business for two to four years. During the data collection
411 the women were worried that the lake would dry within 2013. The drying of the lake
412 was considered the biggest threat posed by climate change. When asked if she
413 considered climate change a threat, a woman from Tadala responded, “Yes, the lake will
414 dry up and I will not have a business”. Another woman from the same area expressed
415 the same concern “Yes, lower water level in the lake is threatening my fish business”. As
416 figure 3 demonstrates, the lake did not dry up at the end of 2013 but lost quite some
417 wetland areas, especially in the northern part of the lake, and as a consequence,

418 decreased in size. In 1993 and 1994 the region had similar records that caused the lake
419 to dry the following year (Ngozo 2012).

420 Unpredictable rainy seasons have made subsistence farming challenging and there is a
421 concern that Lake Chilwa will dry up more frequently. It is questionable whether or not
422 the changes are a result of climate change and hence a long-term trend or if it is a result
423 of climate variability and therefore a short-term trend. Nevertheless, the WFPG
424 members express that the changes are serious threats to the livelihood and food
425 security of the whole Lake Chilwa Basin (See figure 4). Figure 4 shows the respondent's
426 perception of how climate change affects their lives. Six of the respondents explained
427 that it affected their business and another seven said it affected their crops and hence
428 their food security. The last five respondents stated that their food security is
429 threatened because their business has been reduced. In the figure, this response is
430 shown as 'both'. The study therefore indicates that climate change may have
431 devastating effects on the most fundamental needs for the rural poor. Such issues may
432 further exacerbate into health issues such as malnutrition, starvation and diseases.

433 **Figure 4: The respondents' perception of how climate change affects them**



434

435 Source: Author's research 2012.

436 **6 Climate change adaptation, its success and limitations in Malawi**

437 Climate variability and climate change will have serious implications for rural poor in
438 Malawi that depend on natural resources for their livelihood and food security.
439 Adaptation programmes are developed in order to reduce the vulnerability of the poor
440 to present and future events of environmental hazards. LCBCCAP is such a programme.
441 While there are undoubtedly positive outcomes from the WFPG-project, there are also
442 certain limitations that are important to recognise as these may have a significant affect
443 on the members' ability to adapt to climate change.

444
445 The authors' study found that the members of the WFPG were satisfied with their
446 involvement in the LCBCCAP programme, mainly due their economic betterment
447 despite the challenging environment described above. Their income and savings had
448 increased¹, they were no longer dependent on their own harvest for food consumption
449 as they had enough money to purchase food (despite the poor harvests being a
450 substantial concern), they enjoyed working in a group instead of individually and were
451 pleased with the different training LCBCCAP offered them (See table 1 and figure 5). The
452 programme had also managed to increase the fish value chain in the lake. Because of the
453 new strategies that the women were using there was less waste and the women were
454 able to produce a product with higher quality and better taste, hence they could also
455 increase the price of the fish product. These are all positive outcomes and the LCBCCAP
456 has in many ways contributed towards enhancing the women's financial and social
457 position, but there are some concerns.²

458

¹ Data on income and savings was only available from two WFPG as the Kachulu group had not been up and running long enough for the data from their group to be relevant. It should be noted that the data on income and savings is drawn from the women's memory and thus its reliability is questionable since several of the women note that they had little knowledge of how to manage their income prior to training from the project. The information provided by the women is nonetheless a reflection of the positive impact the project has had on the their income and savings.

² It should be noted that during the time of data collection in January 2012 the WFPG were still in the start-up face as the groups had only been active for six to eight months and the LCBCCAP is still developing their projects as they are learning from the their experience and from the feedback given by the WFPG members.

459 **Table 1: Respondents' income before and after joining a WFPG**

Respondent	Present Income (MKWA)	Previous Income (MKWA)	Difference	Increase in income
S7	3000	1000	2000	200 %
S8	5000	1250	3750	300 %
S9	2000	1500	500	33 %
S10	600	300	300	100 %
S11	2000	1000	1000	100 %
S12	2500	600	1900	317 %
T13	3000	1000	2000	200 %
T14	3000	1000	2000	200 %
T15	4000	1500	2500	167 %
T16	5000	1000	4000	400 %
T17	2000	1000	1000	100 %
T18	5000	500	4500	900 %
Mean	3091	971	2120	218 %

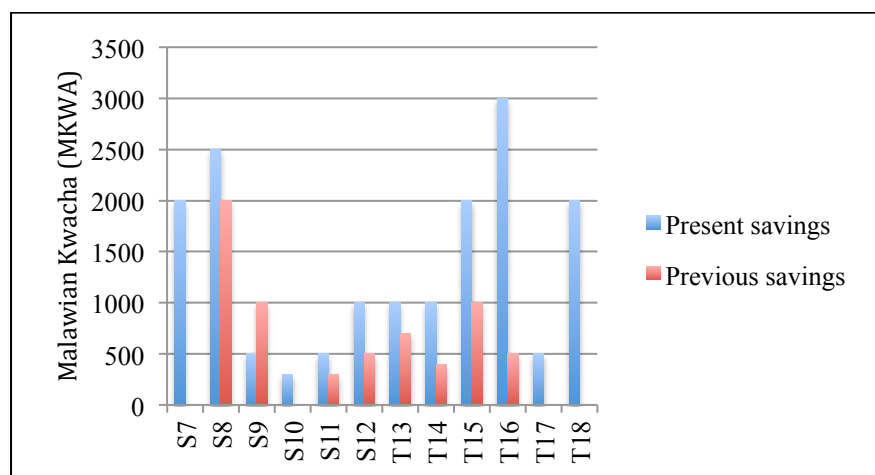
S: Swang'oma WFPG, T:Tandala WFPG

460

461 Source: Author's research 2012.

462

463 **Figure 5: Respondent's savings before and after joining a WFPG**



464

465 Source: Author's research 2012.

466

467 It is problematic that the women's livelihood is dependent on Lake Chilwa. In the last
 468 century the lake has dried up nine times and it is considered normal that it happens
 469 every ten to twenty years (Chapotera 2012, Njaya et al. 2009). It is therefore not a

470 question whether the lake will dry again, but when. Further, a concern is that climate
471 change, with higher temperatures and more unpredictable precipitation, will cause the
472 lake to dry even more frequently. Previous experiences have proven that when the lake
473 dries completely the whole fish sector collapses. However, according to Njaya et al.
474 (2011) the people who depend on the lake are well adapted to the cycles of change.
475 When the lake dries there are large-scale shifts from fishing to farming, pastoralism and
476 other occupations. Migration is also common. However, migration may be problematic
477 as it puts extra constrain on the natural resources in the area where people migrate and
478 conflicts may arise between the locals and the migrants. This is a concern that also
479 LCBCCAP is worried about in the Lake Chilwa district (Ngozo 2012).

480 Nine out of eighteen WFPG members remember the last time the lake dried in
481 1995/1996 well. Looking back at how communities and individuals were able to cope at
482 that time gives valuable insight into people's ability to adapt to present and future
483 climate changes. The women were asked about what they remember and it how they
484 responded to the incident. They mentioned that the fish sector collapsed and people
485 started migrating to other areas to find work and food. They got involved with casual
486 day labour, known as *ganyu* or utilised the empty land of the lake to cultivate vegetables.
487 Others started processing maize flour instead of processing fish and the women were
488 forced to walk further to fetch water.

489 The findings indicate that the communities struggled when Lake Chilwa dried in
490 1995/1996. In order to survive people engaged in alternative income generating
491 activities or migrated to find employment and food. During a new incident, the women
492 will most likely have to take the same measures as their source of income will vanish.
493 While it indicates that they are able to cope, it does not indicate that LCBCCAP has
494 significantly increased their adaptive capacity as their reliance on the fish and farming
495 sector still makes them highly vulnerable to future events. It can therefore be argued
496 that LCBCCAP should bear this in mind and design adaptation strategies that are not
497 solely dependent on a sector and a resource that is threatened by climate change like
498 the WFPG-project is.

499 Livelihood diversification is recognised as an effective strategy for rural poor to
500 decrease their vulnerability towards environmental and economic shocks, and hence
501 climate change (Simtowe 2010). Nelson et al. (2009) explain that there is a correlation
502 between the diversity of livelihood strategies and adaptive capacity due to the
503 possibility to substitute between alternative livelihood strategies. By having more than
504 one source of income it is possible to spread the risk in case there is a poor season
505 within one sector. A study conducted on fishermen in the basin from the 1970s
506 identified that the wealthiest fishermen in the basin were the ones who had diversified
507 their income (Njaya et al. 2011). LCBCCAP also view diversification as an effective
508 adaptation strategy as they state that

509 It is recognized that resilience to climate change involves household's
510 diversifying their livelihood strategies to have options for managing drought,
511 floods, and temperature increases. Thus, in communities throughout the Basin,
512 the project will work to identify ways in which to diversify and enhance their
513 livelihoods, increase productivity of ecosystems and rural incomes, and reduce
514 vulnerability to economic and environmental shocks (LEAD et al. 2009: 15).

515

516 While most women cultivated some small plots of land for subsistence, the majority of
517 the women however, were not diversifying their livelihood strategies to an extent that
518 would compensate for the loss of income from fish processing and marketing. Out of
519 eighteen women only two reported that they had another income generating activity
520 and only one women were planning on introducing a new strategy. The two women
521 were involved in beer brewing and boat construction and the third woman wanted to
522 start cultivating rice. The rest were relying on fish processing as their source of income.
523 Eight out of the women did however mention that they were involved with *ganyu* when
524 facing economic difficulties. *Ganyu* refers to casual daily wage labour. It is often
525 unskilled agricultural labour and is a common livelihood strategy in Malawi (Simtowe
526 2010). While it serves as a backup strategy for poor seasons, it is not a reliable source of
527 income. Further, out of the ten women who were married, eight of the husbands were
528 working either in the fish sector or as farmers, hence also their income was dependent
529 on natural resources. This is problematic because the lake dries due to low precipitation
530 over more than one year, which will also have a negative effect on the agriculture sector.

531 Overall the study found that the WFPG members and their household had a weak
532 income base that is highly vulnerable to climate change due to their dependence on
533 natural resources and their low livelihood diversification (See table 2).

534 **Table 2: Livelihood diversification**

Respondents	Wife		Huband
	Main source of income	Other sources of income	Main source of income
K1	Fish processing	Ganyu	Fish sector
K2	Fish processing	Ganyu	Farmer
K3	Fish processing		Fish sector
K4 (separated)	Fish processing	Ganyu, beer brewing	N/A
K5	Fish processing	Building boats	Fish sector
K6 (widow)	Fish processing	Ganyu	N/A
S7	Fish processing		Farmer
S8	Fish processing	Ganyu	Fish sector
S9	Fish processing		Non-NR based
S10 (widow)	Fish processing		N/A
S11	Fish processing		Fish sector
S12	Fish processing		Non-NR based
T13 (divorced)	Fish processing		N/A
T14	Fish processing		Farmer
T15 (widow)	Fish processing	Ganyu	N/A
T16 (separated)	Fish processing		N/A
T17 (widow)	Fish processing	Ganyu	N/A
T18 (separated)	Fish processing	Ganyu	N/A

K: Kachulu, WFPG, S: Swang'oma WFPG, T:Tandala WFPG

535 Source: Author's research 2012.

536

537 The case study of the LCBCCAP and WFPG illustrates the importance of designing
 538 climate change adaptation strategies that take into consideration future environmental
 539 events and how the strategies will affect the beneficiaries' adaptive capacity during the
 540 event. Enhanced capacities within the fish sector will be of little value when the lake
 541 actually dries. Without an income the WFPG will be pushed further into poverty.

542 In order for LCBCCAP to improve the WFPG-project and further reduce the women's
 543 vulnerability towards climate variability and climate change, diversification may be a
 544 step in the right direction However, for diversification to be an effective adaptation
 545 strategy for the WFPG members it is necessary that the additional income sources do
 546 not react similar to a change in the climate as the fish sector. Finding a source of income
 547 that is not dependent on a natural resource may very well be the best option.

548

549 **7 Conclusion and lessons learned**

550 Climate change poses a significant threat to human security in Malawi, much due to the
551 population's dependency on climate-sensitive resources for their livelihood, high
552 poverty rates and thus limited adaptive capacity. This study presents empirical
553 evidence of fishing communities' experiences with changing climate patterns around
554 the Lake Chilwa Basin in Malawi and how these threaten their livelihood and
555 subsistence farming and thus exacerbating poverty and food insecurity in the region.
556 The changing climate is having a significant impact on the rural poor's human security.
557 It is pushing the people living in the Lake Chilwa Basin further into poverty by affecting
558 the natural resources they depend on.

559 The study of Women Fish Processing Groups in the Lake Chilwa Basin in Malawi
560 demonstrates that local communities vulnerable to climate change can at least to some
561 extent adapt to climate change impacts using low-cost strategies based on local
562 practices. Adaptation is key, and if functioning well, it can perhaps help to avoid
563 tensions over the loss of a natural resource base.

564 However, if adaptation strategies fail the participants' adaptive capacity may in fact
565 decrease as they have invested their time in a project that failed, pushing them further
566 into poverty and making them more vulnerable to climate change.

567 The example of Lake Chilwa and the likely increase in frequency of drying illustrates
568 that for adaptation strategies to increase the rural poor's vulnerability to the long-term
569 as well as the short-term impacts of climate change, it is essential that they take into
570 account the affect of climate change on the natural resources that the communities rely
571 on. Adapting existing income-generation activities may prove to be insufficient.
572 Strategies that focus on reducing the overall dependency on climate-sensitive natural
573 resources by diversifying livelihoods will arguably increase the communities capacity to
574 adapt to and cope with adverse effects of climate change to a greater extent. In sum,
575 limitations and unintended consequences of climate change adaptation strategies need
576 to be taken seriously to ensure effective and lasting adaptation.

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