



Samoa
Case-study in the framework of the project
ClimMig: Climate-related migration and the need for new normative and institutional
frameworks

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1. Outlining vulnerabilities – clarifying the context of the case study

1. 1. Samoa Economy and Development at a Glance

Samoa has a relative good level of human development, with high life expectancy (72.4 years in 2011) and literacy levels (main years of adults schooling: 10.3 in 2011).

The Gross Domestic Product per capita (GDP) was USD 2,872 in 2007. Samoa's economy is based on agricultural exports and workers' remittances, alongside light manufacturing and tourism. Services accounted for 62.7 per cent of GDP (tourism represents 25 per cent of GDP), industry 27.6 per cent of GDP and agriculture represented 9.8 per cent of GDP (2/3 of the workforce were employed in the agricultural sector which accounted for 90 per cent of the export earnings) in 2011. Youth unemployment rate was about 40 per cent in 2006 and the poverty rate about 27 per cent in 2012.

1. 2. Environmental and Climate profile

Samoa is located in the South Pacific Ocean in the Polynesian region, close to the Equator. It remains particularly isolated, half way between Hawaii and New Zealand. The country has a tropical climate with a rainy season (November to April), which is also the period during which devastating cyclones occur and a dry season (May to October). The annual mean temperature ranges from 24° to 32°C¹.

Of a volcanic origin, Samoa consists of two main inhabited islands (Savai'i, Upolu) and six smaller uninhabited islands with a total land area of 2,935 sq km². Soils are formed from eroded basalt and ash deposits and are mostly infertile. Its topography exhibits a narrow coastal plain with volcanic, rocky, rugged mountains in the centre of the island. The highest mountains are on Savai'i (1,858 m) and Upolu (1,116 m)³.

All areas receive more than 2,000 mm of rain per year, as there is no pronounced rain shadow for the mountains are oriented east/west. Higher mountains may however receive more than 8,000 mm of rain per year.⁴ Overall, 66 per cent of the precipitation occurs during the wet season.⁵

1. 2. 1. Natural Disasters and Environmental Degradation

Samoa is threatened by many natural disasters, including tropical cyclones, storm surges, volcanic eruptions, earthquakes, tsunamis and droughts (figure 1). Consequently, the islands face and need to cope with frequent strong winds, storm surges and rainfall flooding damages.

Figure 1 illustrates the intensity of different types of natural disasters affecting the country and the corresponding percentage of affected areas.

The figure clearly underscores that tropical storms are the main threat to Samoa, both in terms of land coverage and intensity of the exposure. Earthquake and volcanic eruption are

¹ Ministry of Natural Resources, Environment and Meteorology, Samoa, 2005:3.

² Ibid.

³ WWF, 2013: 6.

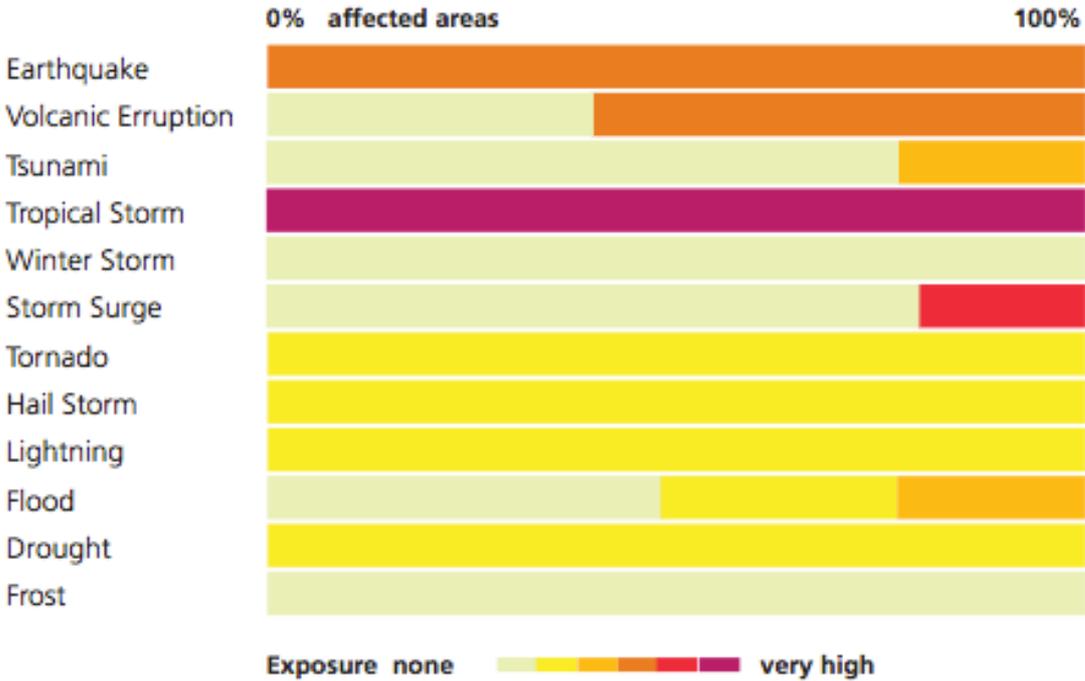
⁴ Whistler, 1980: 12.

⁵ Ibid.

the second main threats. What we also see is that about 20 to 30 per cent of the Samoan land is quite vulnerable to earthquake, volcanic eruption, tropical storm, storm surge, flood, and to a lesser extent, tornado, hailstorm, lightening and drought. This clearly highlights the overall vulnerability of the country. Additionally, only 4 per cent of the coastline is considered to be resilient to coastal hazards.⁶

A statistical review of historical weather events suggests that Samoa is struck by a category 3 cyclone about every 35 years.⁷

Figure 1. Samoa Hazard Profile⁸



From 1989 to 1993, Samoa was hit by severe cyclones every year. The cyclones Ofa in 1990 and Val in 1991 affected 195,000 and 88,000 people respectively and caused costs of approximately four times of the GDP.⁹ The tropical cyclone Heta that struck Samoa in February 2004 also caused considerable damages.

The worst tsunami faced recently by Samoa dates back to 2009. It killed 143 people, destroyed infrastructure and devastated the nation’s vital tourism industry. Indeed, as 70 per cent of the population and infrastructure in Samoa are located in low-lying coastal areas, damage was significant, particularly regarding buildings, homes, schools, churches, community halls, guesthouses and hotels. In addition, roads, water and electricity systems were disrupted and destroyed. Damage was also particularly severe in the agricultural fields including the loss of livestock, fishing boats, tools and other equipment. Tourism and business were particularly affected sectors of the economy, although the economy at large suffered from the disaster. Losses were estimated at USD 106 million, which represents about 17 per cent of the annual GDP.¹⁰

Yet, Samoa is not only affected by natural disasters, but also by different types of slow onsets disruptions and land degradation, with major impacts on water supplies, food

⁶ Government of Samoa, December 2009: 1.
⁷ Ministry of Natural Resources, Environment and Meteorology, Samoa, 2005 : 4.
⁸ Government of Samoa, op. cit.
⁹ Ministry of Natural Resources, Environment and Meteorology, Samoa, op. cit.
¹⁰ United Nations Human Rights, 2011.

production and natural resources.¹¹ Deforestation, land pollution and soil fertility – as a consequence of commercial felling/extraction, inappropriate agricultural activities and inappropriate land use – are the main threats. Furthermore, the prolific use of pesticides as well as the recent expansion in cattle farming causes problematic pollution of land and water.¹²

In addition, despite the introduction of conservation and mitigation strategies, mangroves suffer greatly from coastal development. Although protection of mangrove ecosystems is legally ensured under the Lands and Environment Act 1989, no practical measures have been adopted to enhance protection so far.¹³

Moreover, recent developments of indigenous energy resources cause negative impacts on biodiversity. For instance, the construction of the Afulilo hydroelectric dam led to the loss of a unique wetland forest in the world, which was to be registered for conservation.¹⁴

Finally, **coastal pollution and erosion** remain a high risk, caused by the extraction of sand, the destruction of mangroves and the inappropriate coastal reclamation and the over-exploitation of coastal fisheries. Corals as well are badly devastated by human and natural factors, especially recent cyclones, although most of the reef fronts exhibit healthy coral assemblages.¹⁵

1. 2. 2. Climate Change Risk Profile

Samoa is at risk of being affected by adverse effects of climate change, as the largest increase of temperature occurs in the zones south-west of the South Pacific Convergence Zone (SPCZ) and the islands are mainly located south or near this zone being therefore particularly vulnerable during the wet and cyclone season.¹⁶ According to the Ministry of Natural Resources, Environment and Meteorology, it is estimated that the average temperature increased by 0.3-0.8°C during the 20th century.

- **Sea-Level Rise**

The sea-level rise is a serious problem in Samoa as 70 per cent of its population and infrastructures are located in low lying coastal areas.¹⁷

Based on an analysis of data covering a period of ten years it is assumed that sea-level rise in Samoa will be more substantial than the global projections of a 0.88 m rise between 1990 and 2100. Indeed, the South Pacific Sea Level & Climate Monitoring Project suggests a rise of 3.8 mm per year for Samoa¹⁸, which would imply from 2013 to 2100 a rise of 315 mm – more than 3 meters.

- **El Niño trends**

It is projected that the variations in the amplitude of El Niño will greatly impact the overall climate of Samoa. From recent experience, an El-Niño event of limited magnitude gives rise to periods of limited rainfall for a month. If this trend continues, Samoa will face extended

¹¹ Ministry of Natural Resources, Environment and Meteorology, Samoa. op. cit.

¹² ADB, 2006: 17.

¹³ Ibid.

¹⁴ Ibid.

¹⁵ Ibid.

¹⁶ Ministry of Natural Resources, Environment and Meteorology (Samoa), op. cit.

¹⁷ Ministry of Natural Resources, Environment and Meteorology (Samoa), op. cit.

¹⁸ See <http://www.bom.gov.au/pacificsealevel/index.shtml>.

periods of dry weather potentially triggering drought.¹⁹

- **Tropical cyclones**

There has been an increase in the frequency of tropical depressions, gale wind forces and tropical cyclones during the cyclone season from December to February. The most serious cyclones that hit Samoa in recent times were Ofa in 1990 and Val in 1991. Five tropical cyclones developed around the Samoa region and moved south in 2005, including Lola, Meena, Nancy, Olaf and Percy. The latter two were classified as major hurricanes (Class 5).²⁰

- **Precipitation Trends**

It is anticipated that precipitation at low latitudes will increase and decrease over land areas in the second half of the 21st century. However, at the local stage, it seems that drier conditions are more likely in the near future.²¹ This was the result of the analysis of local rainfall data and interannual variability projections linked more firmly to El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO)²² and interdecadal variability.

- **Temperature Trends**

It is estimated that the global average temperature will increase by 1.4-5.8°C over the period 1990 to 2100. In addition, the surface temperature is likely to become more El Niño like in the tropical Pacific: the eastern tropical Pacific warming more than the western tropical Pacific, with a relating eastward shift of precipitation.²³

Table 1 indicates findings of Samoa’s study of its meteorological data that was collected over 101 years. This study highlights that the average temperature during this period increased by 0.59°C. The maximum and minimum temperature has also increased by 0.67°C and 0.18°C respectively. Furthermore, Samoa is likely to continue experiencing the increases in temperature as well as drought periods.²⁴

Table 1. Climate Parameters in Apia²⁵

Climate Element:	Trend
Maximum Temperature	0.67 °C increase
Minimum Temperature	0.18 °C increase
Mean Temperature	0.59 °C increase
Precipitation	49.28 mm decrease

In summary, the projected climate change for Samoa will mean:

- Reduced overall annual rainfall, but higher occurrences of high intensity rainfall,
- Increased average temperature,

¹⁹ Ibid.

²⁰ Ibid.

²¹ Ministry of Natural Resources, Environment and Meteorology (Samoa), 2005.

²² The interaction of the atmosphere and ocean is at the root of the El Niño and La Niña events. During El Niño event, sea level pressure is lower in the Eastern Pacific and higher in the Western Pacific. The trend is reversed during La Niña event. This see-saw in atmospheric pressure between the eastern and western tropical Pacific is therefore called the *Southern Oscillation* or *SO*. Because the two terms are linked, El Niño and the Southern Oscillation are often subsumed in one expression: the *El Niño-Southern Oscillation* or *ENSO*. In addition, the term *ENSO Warm Phase* indicates an El Niño event, whereas the term of *ENSO Cold Phase* describes a La Niña event (The International Research Institute for Climate and Society, 2008).

²³ Ibid.

²⁴ Ibid.

²⁵ Source: Meteorology Division, Government of Samoa.

- c) Rising sea-levels, and
- d) Increased tropical cyclone frequency and intensity.

1. 2. 3. Vulnerability and Adaptation Strategies

Samoa's economy largely depends on its natural resources, which in turn depend on good stable climatic conditions for growth and sustenance. The 2009 tsunami and its effects underline how extremely vulnerable Samoa remains to natural disasters and other external shocks. At the root of this vulnerability are the impacts on economic and social structures in the context of the transition to a modern economy. Nine sectors are considered as critical in terms of vulnerability in Samoa.

Food and water securities are the main issues concerning vulnerability. Climate induced disasters result in the instability of food production levels to meet higher demands. This particularly affects access to food but also communities whose income-generating activities rely upon agriculture. Regarding water, drought obviously is a major threat. Yet, floods have a great impact on water quality and availability, due to the lack of adaptive strategies. Sea level rise is also likely to increase seawater intrusion into underground water aquifers, which already affects most of the coastal communities.²⁶ Beyond the economical loss induced, the lack of quality, accessibility and availability of water directly harms communities' livelihoods. Health remains therefore a major issue as climate change affects among other the frequency and spread in vector borne and water borne diseases.

The impacts of climate variability on settlement, be it rural or urban, are quite high. Indeed, rural communities face persisting damage to homes and properties in addition to unreliable water supply and quality; damage to plantations for subsistence and commercial purposes; coastal erosion; flooding of low-lying areas; and damage to cultural and heritage assets.²⁷ Their livelihoods are therefore seriously at risk. Moreover, climate change will also have great impacts on urban settlements, especially because of the increasing population and urban migration. These impacts will be reinforced by other internal factors, including the poor drainage systems, the lack of strategic planning, and the urban population pressure.²⁸

Consequently, coastal infrastructures and environment are also at high risk, as still unprotected without a serious management and implementation of the Coastal Infrastructure Management Plans (CIMP). Without these plans on infrastructures, the inland remains seriously vulnerable to floods.²⁹ Infrastructure assets will be the most vulnerable sector considering the high costs for construction and maintenance.

Incomes generated by tourism face therefore serious constraints. The loss of beaches, floods, degradation of the coastal ecosystems, saline intrusion and damage to important infrastructure, the loss of attractiveness of coral due to bleaching, as well as higher temperatures and humidity will certainly highly affect the tourism in Samoa, which is a core economical activity for the country.³⁰

The biological diversity is also at risk, as it is highly affected by tropical cyclones, drought, temperature fluctuation and changes in precipitation patterns. In many forests of Samoa, the number of birds has therefore declined, while in some cases, bird species populations have been decimated. Corals have been also highly damaged down to a depth of 10 meters

²⁶ Ministry of Natural Resources, Environment and Meteorology (Samoa), 2005: 7.

²⁷ Ministry of Natural Resources, Environment and Meteorology (Samoa), op. cit.

²⁸ Ibid.

²⁹ Ibid.

³⁰ Ibid.

because of the intensity of storms' waves.³¹

Finally, the loss of forestry should be a major concern for it plays a major role in environmental protection, watershed management, provision of wood and non-timber resources, and as a reserve of biodiversity. However, forests are highly vulnerable to the drought season, due to the increasing risk of forest fires. Samoa experienced four major forest fires during the dry periods of 1982-1983, 1997-1998, 2001-2002 and 2002-2003.

In light of these high vulnerable sectors, the Samoa National Program of Action (NAPA) was developed and identified key adaptation needs. Its main objectives are firstly to develop and implement immediate and urgent project based activities to adapt to climate change and climate variability; secondly to protect life and livelihoods of the people, infrastructure and environment; thirdly to incorporate adaptation measures and goals into national and sectorial policies, and development goals; and fourthly to increase awareness of climate change impacts and adaptation activities in communities, civil society and government.³²

Migration is little addressed in the NAPA. Only "the assistance for relocation of communities inland" is indicated as a key adaptation need of the program.³³

1. 3. Political context

Samoa was the first island state in the Pacific to become independent from New Zealand's colonial power in 1962.³⁴ Since then, the country has enjoyed political stability. There are also no political prisoners in the country and the death penalty was abolished in 2004.

After its independence, Samoa became a part of the Commonwealth of Nations. Its political system is based on the Westminster model. It is a parliamentary democracy with a unicameral 49-member assembly, of which 47 members are elected by all Samoans aged 21 or over since 1992.³⁵

The Prime Minister, who embodies the head of the Government, appoints 12 parliamentarians to form a Cabinet. General elections are held every five years, but the Human Rights Protection Party has been in power for the last 23 years. The 1990 Village Fono Act gives village councils authority over village law and order, health and social issues.³⁶

The Constitution was established in 1960, it integrates traditional and democratic institutions and recognizes the separation of powers (legislature, judiciary and executive).³⁷

After independence, only the *Matai* (traditional chiefs) could vote and be candidates in parliamentary elections. Although in 1990 the Electoral Amendment Act introduced universal suffrage, the right to stand for elections remains with Matai holders.³⁸

1. 4. Human rights

³¹ Ibid.

³² Ibid.

³³ Ministry of Natural Resources, Environment and Meteorology (Samoa), 2005: 20
³⁴ ILO, 2009.

³⁵ Independent State of Samoa and European Community EDF 10. Country Strategic Paper and National Indicative Programme (for the period 2008-2013).

http://ec.europa.eu/development/icenter/repository/scanned_ws_csp10_en.pdf.

³⁶ Ministry of Finance, Economic Policy and Planning Division, Samoa. 2008.

³⁷ Ibid.

³⁸ Ibid.

Challenges to the implementation of human rights include cases of police abuse, poor prison conditions, lack of freedom of movements, and discrimination against non-Matai, women and children. The 2011 Universal Periodic Review of Samoa underscores major violation and concerns regarding the rights of women and children, especially concerning the principle of non-discrimination, and gender equality; the right to justice and fair treatment; and more broadly economical and social rights.³⁹

- **The right to equal treatment and non discrimination**

Both politics and culture remain influenced by the Matai privilege and power, and members of high traditional families enjoy advantages. Women and children are the two major groups facing daily and ongoing discrimination.⁴⁰

Protection of women

The constitution prohibits the abuse of women, but common societal attitudes turn a blind eye on physical abuse within the home. Constant efforts are required from the Samoan government towards a better inclusion of international standards within domestic legislation.⁴¹ The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UNIFEM) constantly reiterate that gender based inequalities and violence were widespread in the country.⁴² During the 2011 UPR process, the government recognized the scope of the problem related to the violation of women's rights and dignity⁴³, acknowledging that the country has one of the highest levels of physical and sexual violence by non-partner on women.⁴⁴

As a matter of fact, although generally rape is illegal, there is no law prohibiting spousal rape. As common societal attitudes discourage reporting on such assaults, many cases of rape were not reported to the police. In particular, Village *fono* (village chief councils) punished domestic violence offenders, but only if the abuse was considered extreme. Partly due to governmental and local NGOs efforts aiming at encouraging the reporting of rape incidents, there has been an increase in the number of reported cases of rape in recent years. Reported rape cases were treated seriously by courts, and the sentence rate was often high.⁴⁵

Changes are slow, especially in the more conservative parts of society, which supports the traditionally subordinate role of women. The Ministry of Women, Community, and Social Development is in charge of supervising and securing the rights of women. To promote the integration of women into the economic field, the government supports literacy and training programs, particularly for women who did not complete high school.⁴⁶

Protection of children

The lack of protection of children in Samoa was widely discussed during the 2011 UPR of Samoa, including issues related to international adoption, health care for children, sexual violence faced by girls, lack of access to education.⁴⁷

By law, education is obligatory up to the age of 14. However, the government did not effectively enforce the Compulsory Education Law because the income of children remains

³⁹ HCR-UNGA, 2011a:12-20; HCR-UNGA, 2011c:3.

⁴⁰ UNHCR, 2011b; HCR-UNGA, 2011a; HCR-UNGA, 2011c.

⁴¹ See HCR-UNGA, 2011a: 5-6.

⁴² UNDP/UNIFEM, 2007 : 303.

⁴³ HCR-UGNA, 2011.

⁴⁴ WHO, 2010: 29, cited in Government of Samoa, *Second Progress Report on Millennium Development Goals*, 2010.

⁴⁵ US. Department of State, 8 April 2011.

⁴⁶ Ibid.

⁴⁷ HCR-UGNA, 2011c: 9.

vital for some families.⁴⁸

Although the law and traditional norms prohibit severe abuses of children, they accept corporal punishment (except in schools). However, there has been a rise in reported child abuses (particularly incest and indecent assault cases), which may be due to citizens' increased awareness of the need to report these kinds of abuse.

Finally, despite the lack of prohibiting child pornography by criminal law, child pornography cases can be prosecuted under a provision of the law that prohibits distribution or exhibition of indecent material. Regarding this abuse, the maximum sentence is imprisonment for two years.

- **Freedom of Movement, Internally Displaced Persons, Protection of Refugees, and Stateless Persons**

Although the constitution guarantees freedom of movement within the country, the right to travel abroad as well as to emigration and repatriation, citizens are often banned from village activities or even banished from the village if they fail to conform to village laws or obey *fono* rulings. These cases of village banishment are rarely reported. Reasons for banishment are often murder, rape, adultery, and unauthorized claims to land and Matai title.⁴⁹

The government aims to cooperate with the Office of the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and other humanitarian organizations to provide support and protection to internally displaced persons, refugees, returning refugees, stateless persons, asylum seekers and other persons of concern, but in 2010 the need did not come up.⁵⁰

The constitution prohibits forced exile, and the government did not use it. As far as the status of refugees is concerned, it is granted by the constitution, however, there is hitherto no system of protection to refugees that has been established by the government. No request arose in 2010 with regard to refugee status, asylum of protection against the expulsion or return of refugees to their native country.⁵¹

All forms of discrimination are prohibited against persons of foreign origin, members of ethnic or linguistic minorities, refugees, asylum-seekers and migrant workers, by ensuring the enjoyment of their fundamental rights, irrespective of their migration status.

- **Right to social security and an adequate standard of living**

In a 2007 report, the UNDP stated that economic and social progress had been slow and uneven. Development had been hindered by Samoa's size, isolation from foreign markets, small domestic markets, high living costs, lack of natural resources, periodic devastation from natural disasters, inadequate infrastructure, and human capacity constraints.⁵²

Several reports raised major concerns with regard to access to health care, quality of the services available, malnutrition, problems with regard to pregnancy, etc.⁵³

The socioeconomic situation of Samoa is also particularly worrying. According to the UNDP job losses and redundancies were increasing during 2008, primarily due to the global financial crisis. Negative socio-economic impacts were visible in Samoa, such as the increase in the number of children selling various goods on the streets, crime, including theft

⁴⁸ UNHCR, 2011b.

⁴⁹ UNHCR, 2011b.

⁵⁰ US Department of State, 8 April 2011.

⁵¹ UNHCR, *ibid.*

⁵² UNDP, 2007, para. 3.

⁵³ See WHO, 2007; UNDP, 2006, para. 6.

and murder, and increased reports of violence against women and children.⁵⁴

- **Right to justice: Police abuses and detention conditions**

Living and detention conditions remain a major issue in Samoa. Overpopulation and dilapidation of prisons is a widespread phenomenon in Samoa. The Tafaigata men's prison contained 29 cells of various sizes, including eight large concrete cells that were about 30 feet by 30 feet and held 20 to 25 inmates each. Only basic provisions were made regarding food, water, and sanitation in the 24 older cells.⁵⁵ However, physical conditions were generally better in women's and juveniles' prisons than in adult male's facilities.⁵⁶

At end of the year, the Tafaigata men's and women's prisons, the Oloamanu Juvenile Center, and Vaiaata Prison received more than 300 inmates. Both men's and women's prisons contained more inmates than they were originally designed to hold, yet, exact numbers of inmates were not officially provided.⁵⁷

1. 5. Localising Climate-related Migration in the Context of the General Migration Situation

1. 5. 1. Demographic context

As for 2012 accessible data, Samoa has a total population of 194,320 inhabitants, 92.6 per cent of which are Samoans, 7 per cent Euronesian (persons of European and Polynesian origin)⁵⁸ and 0.4 per cent Europeans (2001 census).⁵⁹

Emigration of Samoans is a common phenomenon. The net emigration rate in 2012 was - 10.81 migrants per 1,000 inhabitants. There is a loss of 1 to 2 per cent of Samoan population because of emigration and 50 per cent of Samoans are dependent on income gained by working abroad.⁶⁰

The population growth rate is not high (0.596 per cent in 2012).⁶¹ The median age of the population is 22.5 years according to 2012 estimates.⁶² In 2010, 20 per cent of the total population lived in urban areas, with 36,000 inhabitants living in Apia (capital) in 2009.⁶³

1. 5. 2. Current Migration Situation in Samoa

There are three privileged destinations for international migrations in Samoa. A very high number of migrants move towards the former colonial power, New-Zealand. Since 2002, 1,100 Samoans residency permission have been granted each year and in 2006, 131,103 people originating from Samoa were living in New-Zealand. A considerable number of Samoans temporarily migrate to American Samoa, before emigrating to the United States.

Remittances account for USD 135 million in 2008,⁶⁴ around 25 per cent of GDP.⁶⁵ Remittances value is as high as the income from tourism.⁶⁶ The value of remittances from

⁵⁴ UNDP, 2009: 1.

⁵⁵ UNHCR, 2011.

⁵⁶ UNHCR, 2011.

⁵⁷ US Department of State, 8 April 2011.

⁵⁸ The World Factbook, 2013. Australia-Oceania – Samoa.

⁵⁹ The World Factbook, 2013. Australia-Oceania – Samoa.

⁶⁰ UNESCAP, ADB and UNDP, 2009-2010.

⁶¹ The World Factbook, 2013. Australia-Oceania – Samoa.

⁶² Ibid.

⁶³ Ibid.

⁶⁴ UNESCAP, ADB and UNDP, 2009-2010.

⁶⁵ Boland and Dallery, 2007; Browne and Mineshima, 2007.

New Zealand transferred by workers under the Recognized Seasonal Employer (RSE) Scheme has been continuously increasing, although only 4,000 total visas were given through this programme in April 2008. As a result of the international recession, the value of remittances decreased by 17 per cent during the six first months of 2009.⁶⁷

1. 5. 3. Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs)

Very few data are available on IDPs, as most internal migration flows remain undocumented in Samoa.

Yet, extreme weather events such as volcanism, cyclones, earthquakes and tsunamis, developed in previous sections, led thousands of Samoans to leave their home and regions of origin.

The 2009 earthquake and tsunami

5,274 Samoans were displaced as a consequence of the earthquake and tsunami, which hit Samoa on 29 September 2009 and affected about 2.5 per cent of the total population. It devastated the southern, eastern and southwestern coast of Upolu Island where 11,121 people live. Aleipata, Saleapaga, leap, Falealili, Siumu and the island of Monono were the most affected villages.⁶⁸

Communities in 23 coastal villages, mainly living along the southern coast of Upolu Island, were displaced and took refuge to higher inland.⁶⁹ However, thanks to the rapid rise of land from sea level, villagers did not have to run very far inland to be safe. Immediately after the disaster, temporary shelters and camps were established inland.⁷⁰

To oversee and coordinate the tsunami response, the Disaster Advisory Committee (DAC) with members from the Ministry of Women, Community and Social Development, Ministry of Finance, the National Disaster Management Organization, the UN and other international development partners was set up by the Samoan government. Nevertheless, the Samoan Diaspora provided significant support.⁷¹

An important part of the affected people have currently resettled away from the coasts, in traditional plantation areas, suffering from both a lack of number and qualitative infrastructure networks (water, electricity, roads). There is a significant need of basic services provision in these resettlement areas.⁷²

In a nutshell, Samoa appears as less vulnerable to environmental changes than its Pacific neighbours. Its governance system remains heavily marked by traditional legacies and cultural practices. Current migration arrangements seem to work for the benefit of the population and development processes have gained significant ground.

⁶⁶ UNESCAP, Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, 2007.

⁶⁷ AusAid, March 2012.

⁶⁸ Government of Samoa, December 2009.

⁶⁹ United Nations Human Rights. 2011.

⁷⁰ Ibid.

⁷¹ Ibid.

⁷² Government of Samoa, December 2009.

2. Legal, Normative and Institutional Frameworks

2. 1. *International normative and institutional framework: management and protection of internal and external migration and displacement*

2. 1. 1. International framework concerning migration, asylum and displacement and International Human Rights Law

On 12 December 1976, Samoa became member of the United Nations.⁷³ Since then, the government has ratified various human rights and international migration policy instruments, listed in the following table. Yet, as underscored by the following quote, the road to the embracement of human rights in Samoa as currently defined under international law is long:

“The term ‘human rights’ is unfamiliar or new to many Samoans. However, the practice of respect for human rights and entitlement of every Samoan to basic human rights has and continues to be a feature of Samoa’s culture. Samoan culture (fa’asamoa) promotes and protects human rights by providing the foundation of a peaceful and cohesive society. Despite the changes associated with modernization that have had an impact on Samoa, the fa’asamoa continues to connect its people to the values of respect for one another and the principles of reciprocity, whereby great store is given to the well being of the individual, the family and the community.”⁷⁴

As shown in table 2, Samoa became a signatory country of the **1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees** and on November 29th, 1994 it acceded to the **1967 Protocol relating to the Status of Refugees**. However, Samoa is not a State party to the 1954 Convention relating to the Status of Stateless Persons or the 1961 Convention on the Reduction of Statelessness.

Table 2: Samoa international obligations with regard to human rights

	Treaties and conventions	Ratification	Reserves and others
<i>International human rights treaties</i>			
Ratified	International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) (1966)	15 Feb. 2008	Yes (arts. 8(3) and 10(2)(3))
	Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) (1979)	25 Sept. 1992	None
	Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC)	25 Sept. 1992	Yes (art.28(1)(a))
	International Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance (CPPED).	Signature in 2007	Not ratified
Non ratified	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) (1966)	NR	-

⁷³ United Nations, 2006.

⁷⁴ HCR-UGNA, 2011b:2.

	International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (ICERD) (1966)	NR	-
	Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (CAT) (1984)	NR	-
	Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention (ITPC) (1989)	NR	-
	Convention of the Rights of all Migrants Workers on Members of their Families (1990)	NR	-
	CRPD Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006)	NR	-
<i>Other main relevant international instruments</i>			
	Geneva Convention (1949) and its Additional Protocols.	Yes	
	Convention relating to the Status of Refugees (1951)	21 Sept. 1988	No ratification of the 1954 and 1961 conventions
	Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court (ICC)	Yes	
	Eight fundamental conventions of the International Labour Organization (ILO)⁷⁵	Yes	

Source: HCR/UNGA, 2011c.

Samoa has had unsteady relation with treaty bodies.⁷⁶ For instance, Samoa submitted its initial, second and third periodic reports under CEDAW in May 2003 instead of 1993, 1997 and 2001 respectively.

The UPR report compiled by OHCHR underscores the lack of a national human rights institution accredited by the International Coordinating Committee of National Institutions for the Promotion and Protection of Human Rights (ICC).⁷⁷ The response of the government confirmed the need for such a national institution and added that “Samoa would continue to work closely with its development partners and regional institutions in the development and establishment of a model that would best suit the culture and existing policy and legal framework of Samoa”.⁷⁸

According to the government, “Samoa does not have an over-arching legislation specifically to protect human rights. The Constitution of Samoa however guarantees for every Samoan protection and certain freedoms and equal treatment before the law. In addition, there is

⁷⁵ Including International Labour Organization Convention No. 29 concerning Forced or Compulsory Labour; Convention No. 105 concerning the Abolition of Forced Labour; Convention No. 87 concerning Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise; Convention No. 98 concerning the Application of the Principles of the Right to Organise and to Bargain Collectively; Convention No. 100 concerning Equal Remuneration for Men and Women Workers for Work of Equal Value; Convention No. 111 concerning Discrimination in Respect of Employment and Occupation; Convention No. 138 concerning Minimum Age for Admission to Employment; Convention No. 182 concerning the Prohibition and Immediate Action for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour.

⁷⁶ HCR-UGNA, 2011c: 4.

⁷⁷ HCR-UGNA, 2011c: para 3.

⁷⁸ HCR-UGNA, 2011a : para 3 & 8.

legislative protection for other specific elements of economic, social and political rights."⁷⁹ Yet, if the Constitution of the Independent State of Samoa supports the protection of certain fundamental human rights, several major issues remain, including the under-representation of women, domestic violence and poor prison conditions as it was highlighted in chapter 1.4.

2. 1. 2. International Climate and Environmental law

Samoa has also ratified the major treaties on Climate and Environmental Law, such as:

- **UNFCCC** United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (1992), on 29 November 1994⁸⁰
- **Kyoto Protocol** (1997), on 27 November 2000
- **UNCCD** United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification (1994), on 21 August 1998⁸¹
- **CBD** Convention on Biological Diversity (1992), on 9 February 1994

Samoa was one of the first countries to receive funding from the Global Environment Facility (GEF) under the LDC Fund to develop its National Adaptation Programme of Action (NAPA) that was therefore published in 2005. The 'Samoa Climate Change Synthesis Report: National Adaptation Programme of Action 2004' was extended to produce the 2005 NAPA. The drafting of this report "created opportunities for synergies with other multilateral agreements particularly the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD), and the United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification (UNCCD) for collaborative and integrated actions in adaptation responses. A nationally driven set of criteria for prioritization has also been developed and utilized to prioritize the adaptation actions in the national program."⁸²

A few years later, during the Samoa UPR process, the government of Samoa recalled that "Samoa is also focused on the development of infrastructure in particular basic infrastructure to ensure the right to live secure and healthy lives and protection from natural disasters and adverse impacts of climate change."⁸³

2. 2. Regional Normative and Institutional Framework: Management and Protection of Internal and External Migration and Displacement

2. 2. 1. Bilateral relationship between Samoa and New-Zealand

A Treaty of Friendship was promulgated between the two countries in 1962. In 1982, the close relationship between Western Samoa and New Zealand particularly flourished. As a matter of fact, in July 1982, in the context of the case *Lesa v Attorney-General* [1982] 1 NZLR 165, the New Zealand court rejected the argument that the legislative fiction under which Western Samoa had been treated as if it were part of New Zealand had the effect of giving persons born in Western Samoa between 1928 and 1949 the status of New Zealand citizens. This decision was confirmed by the court in London and had a significant impact as up to 100,000 Western Samoan citizens could potentially enter and live in New Zealand as New Zealand citizens. In the light of the situation thus created, the Attorney General stated to

⁷⁹ HCR-UNGA, 2011b : para 7.

⁸⁰ United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, 2013.

⁸¹ UNCCD, 2012.

⁸² Ministry of Natural Resources, Environment and Meteorology (Samoa). 2005 :2.

⁸³ HCR-UNGA, 2011b :14.

the New Zealand Parliament that:

“...in view of the close relationship between New Zealand and Western Samoa, and because the Privy Council's decision also had implications for Western Samoa, even though it related solely to New Zealand law, the Government, rather than bring down instant legislation, decided to consult the Government of Western Samoa (...) So in the spirit of the 1962 Treaty of Friendship between Samoa and New Zealand we sat down to talk to each other (...) From all these talks emerged the protocol that I signed for New Zealand on 21 August 1982”.⁸⁴

Under this **Protocol to the Treaty of Friendship (1982)**, New Zealand is officially required to consult Samoa on immigration and citizenship matters affecting Samoa.⁸⁵ The New Zealand citizenship right was granted on application to all Western Samoans in New Zealand.

Furthermore, the New Zealand **Recognised Seasonal Employer (RSE) Policy** allows Samoans migration through seasonal employments up to seven months in the horticulture and viticulture sectors. All Pacific Islands Forum countries, apart from Fiji, are eligible under the RSE. From 1 July 2010 to 30 June 2011, a total of 1,038 Samoans migrated to New Zealand under the RSE scheme.⁸⁶

As far as the Ministry of Prime Minister and Cabinet of the Independent State of Samoa is concerned, the RSE policy aims to achieve the following outcomes:

- “Samoa maintains the integrity of the system and its reputation as a reliable source of workers for the horticulture and viticulture industries who comply with the rules,
- Samoa secures a fair portion of the seasonal work opportunities under the scheme, and
- Samoan workers are able to generate savings and relevant experience which may contribute to the development of Samoa”.⁸⁷

2. 2. 2. Bilateral relationship between Samoa and Australia

From 1 July 2012 to 30 June 2016, the **Seasonal Worker Program (SWP)** has been opened, replacing the Pacific Seasonal Worker Pilot Scheme, which ended on 30 June 2012. The SWP is part of the Immigration and Citizenship department's Special Program visa category, which authorizes employers who are approved as Special Program Sponsors to sponsor people from eligible countries to participate as seasonal workers. Samoa, along with East Timor, Kiribati, Nauru, Papua New Guinea, Solomon Islands, Tonga, Tuvalu and Vanuatu, is eligible for this programme.⁸⁸

2. 2. 3. Interregional cooperation in the context of climate change

Despite the efforts made by the New Zealand government concerning employment and citizenship policies with regard to Samoans, it has not agreed formally to receive migrants from Pacific countries because of the impact of global warming on their livelihoods.

⁸⁴ Ibid (see 3.3).

⁸⁵ New Zealand Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade, 2012, <http://www.mfat.govt.nz/Countries/Pacific/Samoa.php#immigration>.

⁸⁶ New Zealand Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade, 2012, <http://www.mfat.govt.nz/Countries/Pacific/Samoa.php#immigration>.

⁸⁷ Ibid.

⁸⁸ Australian Government – Department of Immigration and Citizenship. « Seasonal Worker Program ». <http://www.immi.gov.au/skilled/seasonal-worker/>.

Interestingly enough, the granting of New Zealand citizenship to Samoans citizen by right did not lead to a specific framework for environmental migrants. Neither the government of Australia nor governments from other independent Pacific countries have made any commitments to accommodate/accept people displaced because of the adverse impacts of climate change.

However, Samoa is part of a great number of regional associations and programs that are involved in climate change, environment and human rights, including the Secretariat of Pacific Community (SPC),⁸⁹ the SPC Applied Geoscience and Technology Division (SOPAC),⁹⁰ the University of the South Pacific (USP),⁹¹ the Secretariat of the Pacific Environment Programme (SPREP)⁹² and the Pacific Island Forum (PIF).⁹³ All of these regional associations act as important lobbies, particularly at the regional stage.

The framing of a regional response in terms of resettlement was initiated in the **Pacific Islands Forum's Niue Declaration on Climate Change**. That declaration acknowledges “the importance of retaining the Pacific’s social and cultural identity and the desire for Pacific peoples to continue to live in their own countries where possible”. Therefore, there remains a substantial need of resettlement options in the region where it is not possible for Pacific peoples to survive in their own country.⁹⁴

2. 3. Samoan Normative and Institutional Framework: Management and Protection of Internal and External Migration and Displacement

2. 3. 1 Constitutional Rights Relevant for Environmental-Related Migrations

The first Constitution of Samoa was adopted in 1960. The current version dates from 2008. It defines Samoa as an independent state, free and sovereign. Only a few constitutional rights are relevant for environmental-related migrants.⁹⁵

Part II on the fundamental rights stipulates in article 13 the right of **freedom of speech, assembly, association, movement and residence**. It further contains that each citizen of Samoa has the right “to move freely throughout Samoa and to reside in any part thereof”.⁹⁶ Another reference that enables to better appreciate the context in which environmental migration could occur, is expressed in part IX, where the Constitution delineates fundamental rights regarding the **access to land and titles**. Article 100 lays down that “a Matai title shall be held in accordance with Samoan custom and usage”. Article 101 states that “all land in Samoa is customary land, free land or public land”. Article 102 defines that there can not be any alienation of customary land, in the sense that “it shall not be lawful or competent for any person to make any alienation or disposition of customary or of any interest in customary land, whether by way of sale, mortgage or otherwise howsoever, nor shall customary land or any interest therein be capable of being taken in execution of be assets for the payment of the debt of any person on his decease or insolvency”. Finally, article 104 from the same part lays down that “all land lying below the line of high-water mark shall be public land”.⁹⁷

⁸⁹ SPC, 2011.

⁹⁰ SOPAC, 2013.

⁹¹ USP, 2012.

⁹² SPREP, 2012.

⁹³ The Pacific Island Forum Secretariat (PIF). “Member Countries”. <http://www.forumsec.org/pages.cfm/about-us/member-countries/>.

⁹⁴ Ibid. and Pacific Islands Forum Secretariat, 2008.

⁹⁵ Constitution of the Independent State of Samoa 1960. http://www.wipo.int/wipolex/en/text.jsp?file_id=198468.

⁹⁶ Constitution of the Independent State of Samoa 1960. http://www.wipo.int/wipolex/en/text.jsp?file_id=198468.

⁹⁷ Ibid.

Article 105 from Part X on emergency powers in the case of an emergency refers to the **proclamation of the state of emergency**. It lays down that “if the Head of State is satisfied, acting in his discretion after consultation with Cabinet, that a grave emergency exists whereby the security of economic life of Samoa or of any part thereof is threatened, whether by war, external aggression, internal disturbance or natural catastrophe, he may by proclamation (...) declare that a state of emergency exists”. It further states that “a proclamation of emergency shall remain in force for a period of thirty days, if not sooner revoked, but the provision of this clause should not preclude the issue of a further proclamation before the expiry of the period for which the immediately preceding proclamation is in force”.⁹⁸

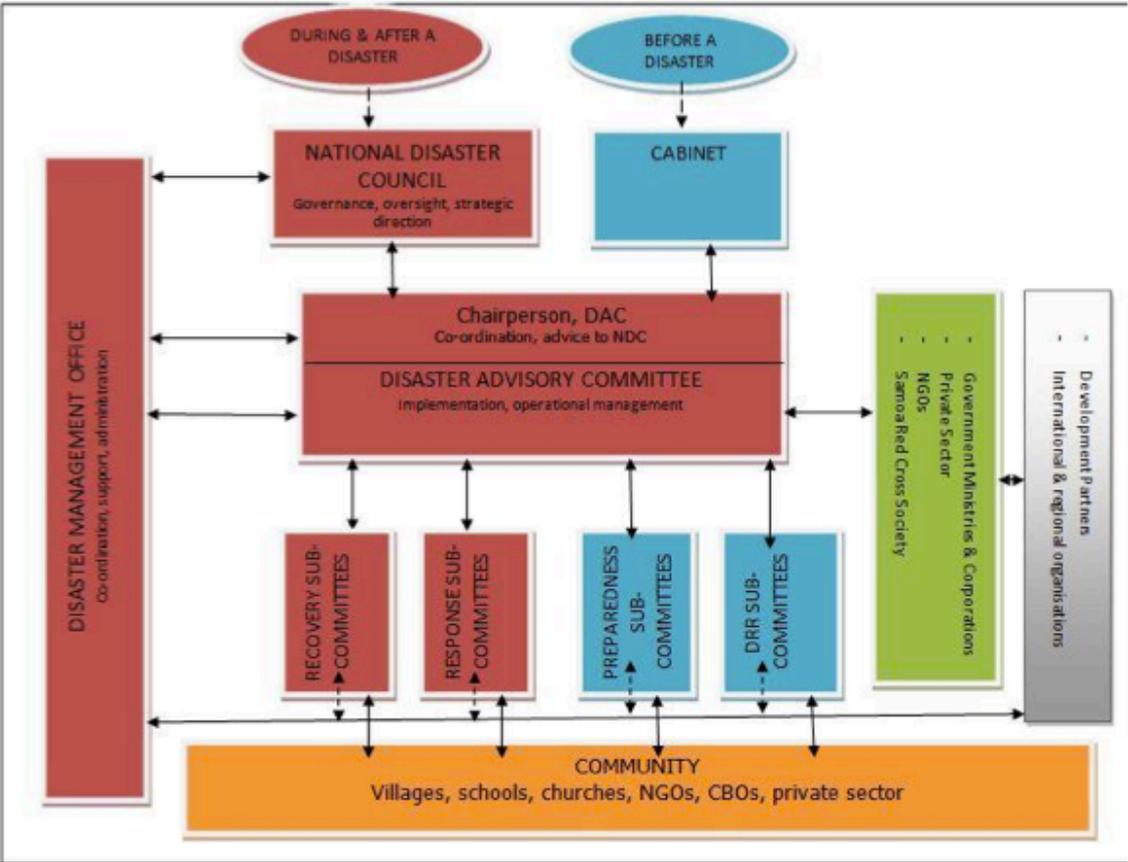
⁹⁸

Ibid.

2. 3. 2. The Disaster Management Organisational Structure

The Disaster Management Organisational Structure in Samoa is illustrated with the **diagram 1** below.

Diagram 1. National Disaster Management Core Organisational Structure⁹⁹



The **Disaster Management Office** (DMO) and **Disaster Advisory Committee** (DAC) are the core institutions responsible for the coordination and implementation of all disaster mitigation, preparedness, response and recovery programmes.¹⁰⁰

The **National Disaster Council** (NDC) is in charge of supervising and approving all disaster management activities, as advised by the DAC. It takes care of reviewing and approving plans, policies and programmes, notably the National Disaster Management Plan (NDMP) (that will be developed in part 2.3.3.).¹⁰¹

The NDC plays a key role during the disaster response phase as it is responsible for drawing the strategic direction for the DAC. It also carries out high level strategic decision-making, especially regarding intergovernmental and international relationships and it may advise the Head of State on the need for a proclamation of emergency.¹⁰²

The NDC meets as often as necessary to fulfil these tasks, furthermore it regularly meets in

⁹⁹ Source: National Disaster Council, 2011: 11.
¹⁰⁰ The National Disaster Council (Samoa), 2011: 11/12.
¹⁰¹ The National Disaster Council (Samoa), 2011: 12/13.
¹⁰² The National Disaster Council (Samoa), 2011: 13.

October every year in order to keep informed on the pre-cyclone season preparations undertaken by DAC.¹⁰³

The members of the NDC are:

- The Prime Minister, Chairperson,
- The Minister of Natural Resources, Environment & Meteorology (as Minister in charge of the Disaster Management function), Deputy Chairperson, and
- Other Ministers the Prime Minister appoints.¹⁰⁴

During the disaster response's phase, the DAC is responsible for the management and coordination response programs from the National Emergency Operations Centre and for reporting to the NDC for decision-making. Its responsibility is to develop policies and plans, notably the NDMP and supporting documents, for approval by the NDC.¹⁰⁵

The NDC authorises the DAC to approve or reject the response agency and community plans prepared under Part IV of the Disaster & Emergency Management Act 2007. If these plans are approved by the DAC, they are included in the NDMP.¹⁰⁶

Another task of the DAC is to implement disaster management policies and plans, such as hazard and risk assessment, hazard mitigation, education, public information, warning systems, and training.¹⁰⁷

The Chairperson of the DAC is the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of the Ministry of Natural Resources, Environment and Meteorology within which the DMO is located. The deputy Chairperson of the DAC is nominated by the DAC. The DAC includes both Governmental and NGO representatives.¹⁰⁸

The **DMO** is responsible for ensuring the ongoing coordination, development and establishment of disaster management programs and activities in Samoa.¹⁰⁹

The secretary of the DAC and NDC is the Assistant Chief Executive Officer (ACEO) responsible for the DMO. He is in charge of overseeing all administration and activities of the DAC and the NDC.¹¹⁰

The DMO undertakes the service delivery role for national disaster management, including:

- “Leadership for and relationship building across the disaster management sector
- Supporting the development and implementation of plans and policies for mitigation, preparedness, response and recovery (including this Plan)
- Support to DAC agencies in their development of their own plans and procedures
- Set-up, maintenance (including training for staff), and operational co-ordination of the National Emergency Operations Centre (NEOC)

¹⁰³ Ibid.

¹⁰⁴ Global Logistics Cluster, April-May 2012.

¹⁰⁵ The National Disaster Council (Samoa), 2011: 13/14.

¹⁰⁶ Ibid.

¹⁰⁷ Ibid.

¹⁰⁸ Ibid.

¹⁰⁹ Global Logistics Cluster, April-May 2012.

¹¹⁰ Global Logistics Cluster, April-May 2012.

- Planning and coordination of DAC simulations and sector training
- Monitoring implementation of disaster management programs
- Administration of the activities of the DAC and NDC”.¹¹¹

Finally, the **Village Council and village organisations** are responsible for coordinating disaster mitigation and preparedness programs and activities at the community level, as well as managing the village response activities to hazards. These responsibilities include:

- Begin community response,
- Disseminate information,
- Manage shelters,
- Assess the damages and
- Coordinate relief activities.¹¹²

It is the role of the **Ministry of Women, Community & Social Development** to support, monitor and liaise with Village Councils and organisations as they implement disaster management activities, and to keep the DAC informed of the level of village preparedness.¹¹³

2. 3. 3. Adaptation Strategies to Climate Change

A number of climate change programs, projects and activities have been carried out in Samoa since it signed the UNFCCC. The main governmental programs presenting key climate change adaptation strategies and priority fields in this area are the **Pacific Island Climate Change Program** (1999-2001), the **First National Communication to the UNFCCC** (1999), the **NAPA** (2005) and the **National Disaster Management Plans** (2006-2009 and 2011-2014).

- 1) The **Pacific Island Climate Change Program** (PICCAP): Samoa was one of ten countries of the Pacific that participated in the program from 1997 to 2001. PICCAP was a multi-country regional project funded by the Global Environmental Fund (GEF) (USD 3,400,000 for phases I and II), implemented by UNDP and executed by the Secretariat of the Pacific Regional Environmental Programme (SPREP) to assist participating countries to prepare their initial communications under the UNFCCC. Samoa prepared its initial national communication and submitted it to the Conference of the Parties (COP) in November 1999.¹¹⁴
- 2) The **First National Communication to the UNFCCC** was submitted by the Government of Samoa in 1999. It firstly highlights the geographic, demographic and economic conditions of the country and then describes the Greenhouse gases (GHG) emissions inventory of the country. Furthermore, the document points out the country’s vulnerability to climate change in regard to the population, food security, the urbanization and water resources, the land use, deforestation and land degradation, the coastal and marine resources as well as human health.¹¹⁵ Finally, it defines the

¹¹¹ Ibid.

¹¹² Ibid.

¹¹³ The National Disaster Council (Samoa), 2011: 15.

¹¹⁴ GEF, UNDP, SPREP. « Pacific Adaptation to Climate Change – Samoa. Report of in-country consultations ». <http://www.sprep.org/att/irc/ecopies/countries/samoa/162.pdf>.

¹¹⁵ Government of Samoa, 1999.

adaptation priority areas, which include: the enhancement of extreme events forecast; the appreciation of the impacts of the climate change on the agricultural sector; the appreciation of coral reef ecosystems, coastal erosion processes, and land that is vulnerable to floods; the appreciation of the impacts of extreme events on infrastructure, human health, agriculture; the development of a national policy framework to support the implementation of effective adaptation strategies and mitigation activities; the integration of institutional enhancement, community participation, and the development of national capacity and expertise at the local and at regional levels; and the improvement of regional information on future climate and sea-level changes and indirect effects of such changes.¹¹⁶

- 3) The **NAPA** was implemented by the Ministry of Health, the Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment, the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries, the Government of Samoa, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and GEF in 2005.

The main vision of the programme is “to achieve a high level of community capacity for adaptation to adverse impacts of climate change”.¹¹⁷

The NAPA’s main objectives include:

- a) To set up **immediate project based activities to adapt to climate change and climate variability**;
 - b) To **protect life and livelihoods of the people, infrastructure and environment**;
 - c) To **integrate adaptation measures and objectives into policies at the national and sectoral levels, and development goals**;
 - d) To raise awareness of communities, civil society and government on **climate change impacts and adaptation strategies**.¹¹⁸
- 4) The **NDMP** has been produced for the period 2011-2014 (it is a revision of the former plan established for the period 2006-2009). The NDMP is prescribed by Part II of the Disaster and Emergency Management Act 2007. This plan has to be reviewed every three years and following each disaster in Samoa.¹¹⁹ It is funded by the DAC and approved by the NDC of the Government of Samoa under Part III of the *Disaster & Emergency Management Act 2006*.¹²⁰

This NDMP aims to achieve the following objectives, which are monitored by the DAC:¹²¹

- a) To reduce the impact of hazards on Samoa;
- b) To ensure that all communities and response agencies are ready to respond to any disaster;
- c) To put in place mechanisms to enable prompt and effective response to disasters in Samoa;
- d) To ensure that processes and systems are in place for long term recovery and

¹¹⁶ Ibid.

¹¹⁷ Ministry of Natural Resources, Environment and Meteorology (Samoa), 2005: 16.

¹¹⁸ Ministry of Natural Resources, Environment and Meteorology (Samoa), 2005.

¹¹⁹ Global Logistics Cluster, April-May 2012.

¹²⁰ The National Disaster Council (Samoa), November 2006.

¹²¹ The National Disaster Council (Samoa), 2011:9.

rebuilding after disasters;

e) To strengthen disaster resilience of communities that are exposed to hazards so that they are able to reach and maintain an acceptable level of functioning and structure.

2. 4. The Role of Australia, New Zealand's and Europe in development cooperation

The regional dimension is important in the Pacific, as illustrated by the breadth of its regional institutions that was highlighted in chapter 3. 2. 3. Indeed, New Zealand's and Australia's location in the Pacific strongly influences their foreign policy and aid programs, that are engaged both at regional and bilateral levels. New Zealand considers itself as a Pacific nation, and thus as having a particular responsibility for, and interest in its Pacific neighbors. Its aid program is therefore particularly focused on this region. In 2009-2010, 84 per cent of expenditure through New Zealand's core bilateral aid programs went to the Pacific.¹²²

The development of Samoa relies on important aid support. As a matter of fact, the net Official Development Aid (ODA) is USD 147 million (2010), about 27.1 per cent of GNI. The top 10 donors of gross ODA (2009-2010 average) are Australia (USD 30 million), Japan (USD 21 million), AsDB Special Funds (USD 19 million), New Zealand (USD 14 million), IDA (USD 14 million), EU Institutions (USD 10 million), IMF (USD 4 million), GEF (USD 2 million), USA (USD 1 million) and UNDP (USD 1 million).¹²³

2. 4. 1. The New Zealand-Samoa relations

As it was said earlier, the special relationship between New Zealand and Samoa is underlined by the *1962 Treaty of Friendship*, agreed on at the time Samoa became independent after a period of New Zealand trusteeship from 1919 to 1962. Since then, several agreements have been concluded between New Zealand and Samoa, aiming to strengthen the bilateral cooperation between the two States, including the following:

1) Joint Commitment for Development

The core objectives of this partnership signed in Apia on July 2011 focus on an increased revenue and employment for **tourism**; the development of Samoa **private sector**; the reduced dependence on imported diesel for Samoa energy needs and also an **increased access to renewable energy sources**; an **enhancement of agricultural incomes and employment**, particularly those linked with tourism and energy industries; an improvement of Samoa's **education**, especially enhanced retention in schools and student achievement; an increase of **scholarships and training**, in order to make the workforce more adaptable to the market needs; and an improvement of **health**, especially regarding non-communicable disease and immunization.¹²⁴

2) Support in Disaster Management Response

The solidarity and support of New Zealand following disasters is particularly important, as highlighted after the **tsunami** that struck Samoa in **September 2009**. Indeed, the Government of New Zealand immediately committed to grant NZD 2 million to the immediate disaster relief effort, mobilized emergency personnel, and organized relief supplies and their

¹²² Government of New Zealand, 2011.

¹²³ OECD. "Aid Statistics, Recipient Aid at a Glance – Samoa". <http://www.oecd.org/dac/stats/WSM.gif>.

¹²⁴ Government of New Zealand, 2011.

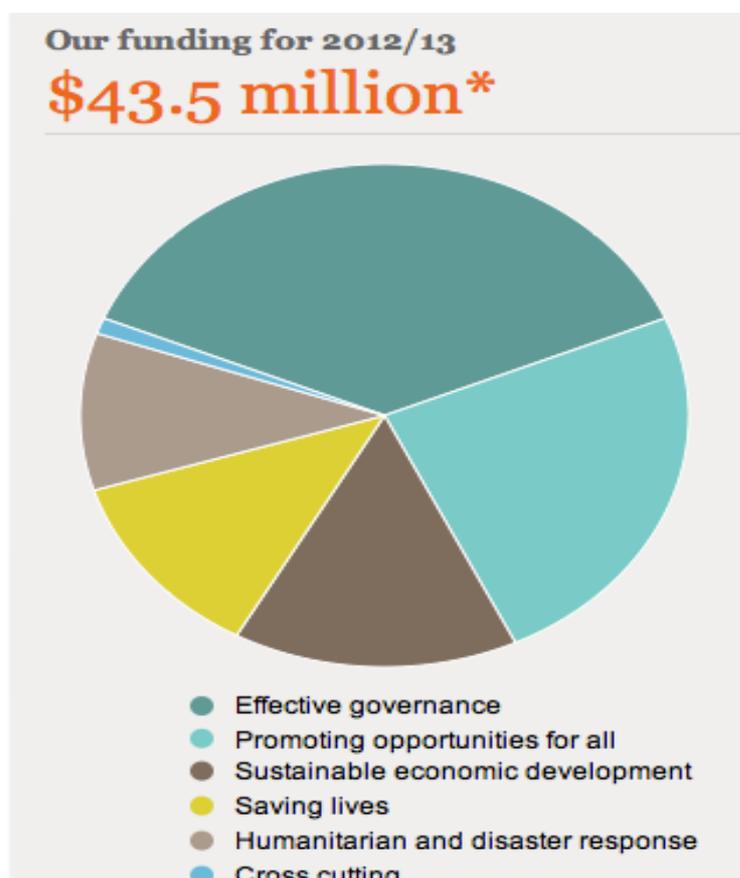
transport.¹²⁵

New Zealand and Australia each contributed AUD 5 million to the Government of Samoa to assist its tsunami recovery and reconstruction efforts and another AUD 4 million to help rebuild the tourism industry, which was the key sector to ensure Samoa's recovery from the disaster.¹²⁶

2. 4. 2. The Australia-Samoa relations

The Australia-Samoa cooperation partnership is underpinned by the **Samoa-Australia Partnership for Development**, which aims to improve the standard of living for Samoans experiencing hardship and to achieve the Millennium Development Goals.

Figure 2. The Australian aid in Samoa, by sector for 2012-2013.¹²⁷



*Of this, the country bilateral program manages AUD 26.7 million. Regional and global AusAID-managed initiatives account for AUD 13.4 million and other Australian Government Departments manage AUD 3.4 million.

Australia invested AUD 123.6 million in Samoa over the period 2009-2012. There have been important outcomes from these investments.¹²⁸ They include:

- a) Helping to eliminate school fees for 37,000 primary students since 2009, helping Samoa's achievement of near universal primary enrolment.

¹²⁵ New Zealand Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade, 2010.

¹²⁶ Ibid.

¹²⁷ Source: AusAID.

¹²⁸ Australian Government and AusAID, 2013.

- b) Supporting over 600 children with disabilities to attend school since 2009, by providing transport to and from school, tailoring learning materials and training for teachers in regard to sign language and other specialized skills.
- c) Supporting public health campaigns, by providing health screening, vaccinations and health education services to 23,302 people in 155 villages in 2011.
- d) Delivering over 16,000 **emergency shelters, water and relief items** to 4000 survivors of Cyclone Evan (December 2012).¹²⁹

However, the 2012-2013 aid budget for the Samoa program was reduced by AUD 3.1 million after the Australian Government's announced the reprioritisation of resources on 17 December 2012.

With the aim to fund **emergency relief and early recovery** from cyclone Evan and a new priority activity aiming at **improving the lives of people with a disability**, another AUD 2.25 million was reallocated to the Samoa program in January 2013. The net overall reduction of the budget is estimated to be AUD 850,000.¹³⁰

Australia remains committed to providing development assistance to Samoa, with an expected AUD 43.5 million of grant for the period 2012-2013.¹³¹ Its cooperation goals will be:

- a) To repair or rebuild 18 schools and 9 health facilities destroyed or damaged by Cyclone Evan,
- b) To build eight new health facilities, provide equipment and training to 50 health professionals and enhance information available to health policy makers to launch into non-communicable diseases and improve primary health care,
- c) To enable 37,000 primary school children (out of 167 primary schools) to access better education materials and resources, and
- d) To support on-going reform to state-owned enterprises, as well as improvements of the Samoan Government procurement and audit systems.¹³²

2. 4. 3. The EU-Samoa relations

The European Union became a cooperation partner of Samoa's development in 1975, when the country first signed the Lomé Convention. Under this convention, the European Development Fund (EDF) resources focused on economic and social infrastructure, energy provision, micro programmes in rural areas and water supply as well as sanitation. The European Commission (EC) assistance particularly focuses on the **water and sanitation sectors** in the context of the 9th EDF Cotonou Agreement, under which € 20 millions (Envelope A) and another € 7.1 million (Envelope B) were allocated to the country. The EC is the main donor in this sector.¹³³

The 9th EDF Cotonou Agreement defined this focal sector as "the improvement of the improvement of the quality of public health through the development, management and conservation of water resources and the disposal of waste water, in the framework of sustainable development of Samoa's economic and social environment".¹³⁴

The achieved results, partly from the 8th EDF intervention, have been an increased access to safe and reliable water from 41 per cent to 47 per cent of the total population in 2005. Besides, under the 9th EDF Water Sector Support Program (WaSSP), a further 53,500 rural

¹²⁹ Ibid.

¹³⁰ Ibid.

¹³¹ Ibid.

¹³² Ibid.

¹³³ Independent State of Samoa and European Community, 2008.

¹³⁴ Independent State of Samoa and European Community, 2008: 21-22.

villagers (30,600 in Upolu and 22,900 in Savaii) will have access to safe and drinkable water, that is approximately 30 per cent of the total Samoan population.¹³⁵

The cooperation will also deal with the improvement of effectiveness of existing water supply systems, the reinforcement of hygiene education programs and the safe collection and disposal of septage.¹³⁶ The EC cooperation in this sector supports the past and current Government of Samoa's efforts, especially embodied by the *Water For Life* process and the development of a *Water for Life: Sector Plan and Framework for Action*.¹³⁷ In addition, the EU also provides support to Microproject Programs under the Envelope B. In particular, additional 1,6 million were allocated for the fourth phase of Microprojects Program regarding disaster preparedness and risk reduction.¹³⁸

The country's strategic document clearly underscores environmental vulnerabilities as a main challenge to overcome in the coming years. Key sectors of cooperation are therefore ensuring food security, sustainable development, lifestyle improvements and reduction of poverty.¹³⁹

Overall, Samoa remains highly dependent upon international aid. International and regional assistance should play a key role in the development of normative frameworks to address environmentally-induced migration. For the moment, these are insufficiently developed.

¹³⁵ Ibid.
¹³⁶ Ibid.
¹³⁷ Ibid.
¹³⁸ Ibid.
¹³⁹ Ibid: 53.

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