El Niño Through a Displacement Lens: Mobility Outlook in East Africa – August 2026

01 Introduction

This outlook provides the first scenario-based estimates of flood-driven displacement during the 2026 October–December (OND) season in Somalia, Kenya, South Sudan and Uganda. As of August 2026, El Niño is established and forecast to strengthen through the end of the year, with a high likelihood of becoming very strong during OND[1]. The season is therefore developing under a climate configuration that has repeatedly been associated with severe flooding across the region[2], although El Niño does not produce the same rainfall or impacts in every season or location; outcomes will also depend on the Indian Ocean Dipole, where and when rain falls, river conditions and local vulnerability[3]. The estimates are tentative and will be monitored and updated as relevant.

The analysis sets out three scenarios representing different plausible ways the season could develop, based on the state of two ocean systems that strongly influence East African rainfall. For each scenario, the analysis estimates displacement at national and district levels and presents a wider estimate of people affected. The core model combines forecast rainfall with physical flood exposure, seasonal patterns, river-system information and past displacement. The scenarios assume that the wet signal in the current seasonal forecast materialises over flood-exposed areas and that recent relationships between rainfall, exposure and displacement remain broadly relevant. The analysis does not assign probabilities to the three scenarios; together, they describe a range of outcomes consistent with the seasonal forecast.

The outlook covers displacement caused by riverine flooding, flash and pluvial floods, storms and rainfall-triggered landslides. It excludes drought- and conflict-related displacement. Flooding can interact with conflict, access constraints and pre-existing vulnerability, but those interactions are not yet modelled.

The time window is limited to OND. This is the main El Niño-sensitive rainy season in Somalia, Kenya and Uganda. In much of South Sudan, the principal rains and flood peaks occur earlier in the year. The estimates there therefore represent only the OND and El Niño-related component of a larger annual flood burden.

02 Scenarios

Rains in the IGAD region during the OND season are governed by two ocean systems. The El Niño–Southern Oscillation (ENSO) describes sea-surface temperatures in the equatorial Pacific; during El Niño, rainfall over the equatorial Horn tends to be enhanced. The Indian Ocean Dipole (IOD) describes the temperature gradient between the western and eastern Indian Ocean; a positive IOD warms the western side, closest to the African coast, drawing moisture onshore.

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[1] See Climate Prediction Center: ENSO Diagnostic Discussion and WMO: Strong El Niño expected to intensify

[2] See ICPAC GHA_Climate_Outlook_2026.pdf

[3] See Saji, N., Goswami, B., Vinayachandran, P. *et al.* A dipole mode in the tropical Indian Ocean. *Nature* **401**, 360–363 (1999). https://doi.org/10.1038/43854

The two can occur independently, but when they align widespread heavy rainfall becomes more plausible - the wettest seasons on record in this region are those in which both were present and strong.

The scenarios draw on two things that serve different purposes. The Oceanic Niño Index (ONI) and the Dipole Mode Index (DMI) frame the climate storylines. They define what each scenario is as a physical state of the ocean, and they identify the comparable seasons in the historical record. The ECMWF seasonal forecast then supplies the rainfall used in the impact analysis - its 51 ensemble members represent plausible rainfall patterns for 2026[4], and it is the forecast that fixes where the central case sits and how wet the season is expected to be over the areas where people are exposed to flooding.

All three scenarios presented below are conditional on the El Niño forecast for 2026. They are not alternatives of strong El Niño, weak El Niño and no El Niño. Lower, Central and Severe are ordered rainfall-impact scenarios within an already wet outlook, distinguished by how strongly the Indian Ocean reinforces the Pacific signal. They are presented on equal footing; the labels describe increasing severity, not increasing or decreasing likelihood, and the reader should not treat "Central" as the most probable outcome.

Scenario A. Lower

El Niño with limited Indian Ocean reinforcement

This is the milder end of the outlook, not a normal or dry season. El Niño enhances the short rains, but additional reinforcement from the Indian Ocean is limited. Under this scenario, flooding would be more likely to remain concentrated in recurrent riverine corridors, low-lying settlements and established urban or flash-flood hotspots.

Scenario B. Central

El Niño reinforced by a positive Indian Ocean Dipole

Scenario B represents rainfall conditions consistent with stronger reinforcement between the Pacific and Indian Ocean signals, and it is anchored to what the 2026 ECMWF forecast currently indicates for the season. Rainfall is well above normal across a wider area, increasing the likelihood that riverine flooding occurs alongside local flash and urban flooding. This scenario is the report's central reference, but it is not presented as a deterministic forecast.

Scenario C. Severe

A compound wet extreme in which both drivers reinforce one another strongly

This scenario represents a very wet season in which the Pacific and Indian Ocean drivers reinforce one another - the kind of compound state seen only a handful of times in the historical record, most recently in 1997 and 2023[5]. It is substantially more severe and geographically widespread than the Central case. Two mechanisms also compound in this state

- Higher rainfall totals. Larger anomalies (above 2023 in many cases) increase the number of settlements exposed to flash, pluvial and urban flooding and raise the likelihood of floodplain inundation.
- Overlapping upstream and local rainfall. Heavy rain over highland catchments can raise downstream river flows while intense rain is also falling over lowland settlements, creating simultaneous riverine and local flooding.

Each scenario produces a range of possible displacement outcomes rather than one exact result. The headline figures and maps present the median estimate for each scenario (half of the modelled outcomes are lower and half are higher) conditional on that rainfall scenario occurring. Uncertainty around that median remains large, because rainfall explains only part of displacement. River levels, soil saturation, drainage, flood defences, settlement location and the extent to which movements can be assessed all affect the final outcome.

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[4] See Copernicus Climate Change Service, Climate Data Store, (2018): Seasonal forecast monthly statistics on single levels. Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S) Climate Data Store (CDS). DOI: 10.24381/cds.68dd14c3

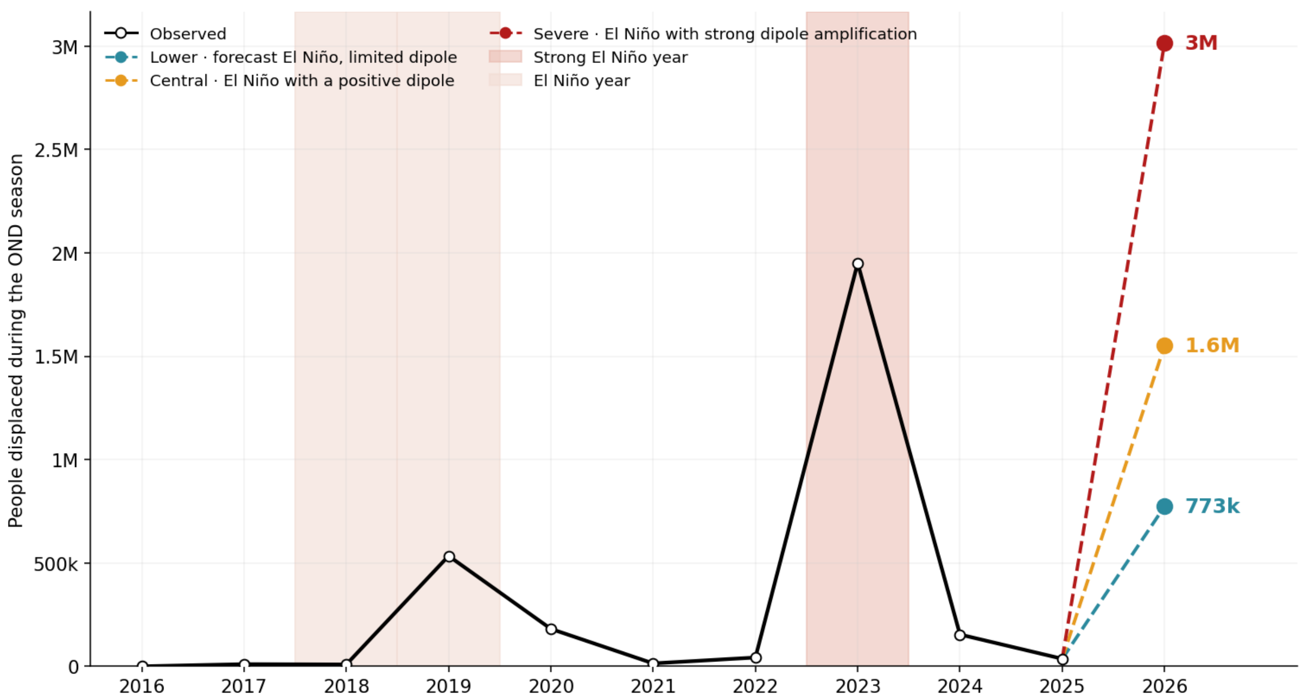
[5] See ONI and DMI: Monthly Climate/Ocean Indices (Time-Series): NOAA Physical Sciences Laboratory

03 Regional outlook

Across the four countries, the scenarios span approximately 773,000 people displaced in the Lower case, 1.6 million in the Central case and 3 million in the Severe case. These are rounded medians within broad uncertainty distributions. The corresponding affected populations range from 3.4 to 9.3 million. For comparison, the observed OND 2023 floods displaced over 1.95 million people across the same four countries[6].

The historical series below illustrates the volatility of recorded flood displacement. Regional totals remained comparatively low through much of 2016–2022, rose during the positive-IOD season of 2019 and increased sharply in 2023. This pattern is consistent with stronger and more widespread wet conditions increasing flood-displacement risk. As with any regional displacement dataset, however, some short-lived, localised or difficult-to-access movements may not be fully captured.

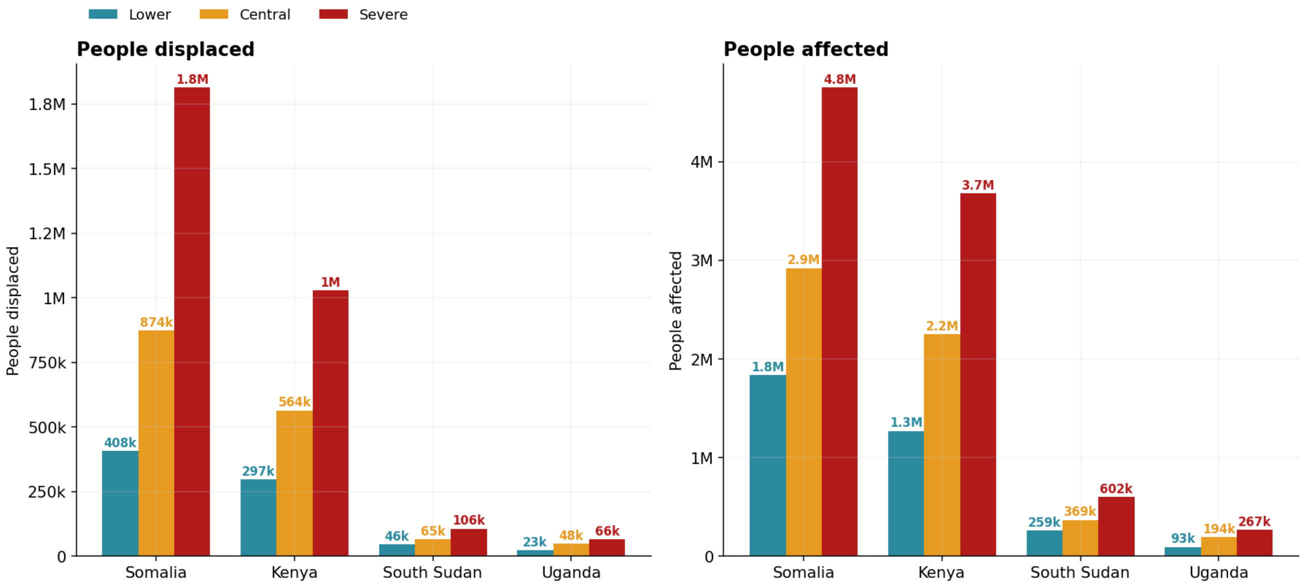
Figure 1. Flood-induced displacement across the four countries during OND season



Somalia accounts for the largest share in every scenario as large populations are concentrated along the Juba and Shabelle river systems and in recurrent pluvial-flood hotspots. Kenya's exposure is more dispersed across the Tana basin, eastern lowlands, cities and the coast. Uganda combines riverine, lakeshore, urban, flash-flood and landslide hazards. South Sudan's smaller OND estimate reflects the season covered, not low annual flood exposure.

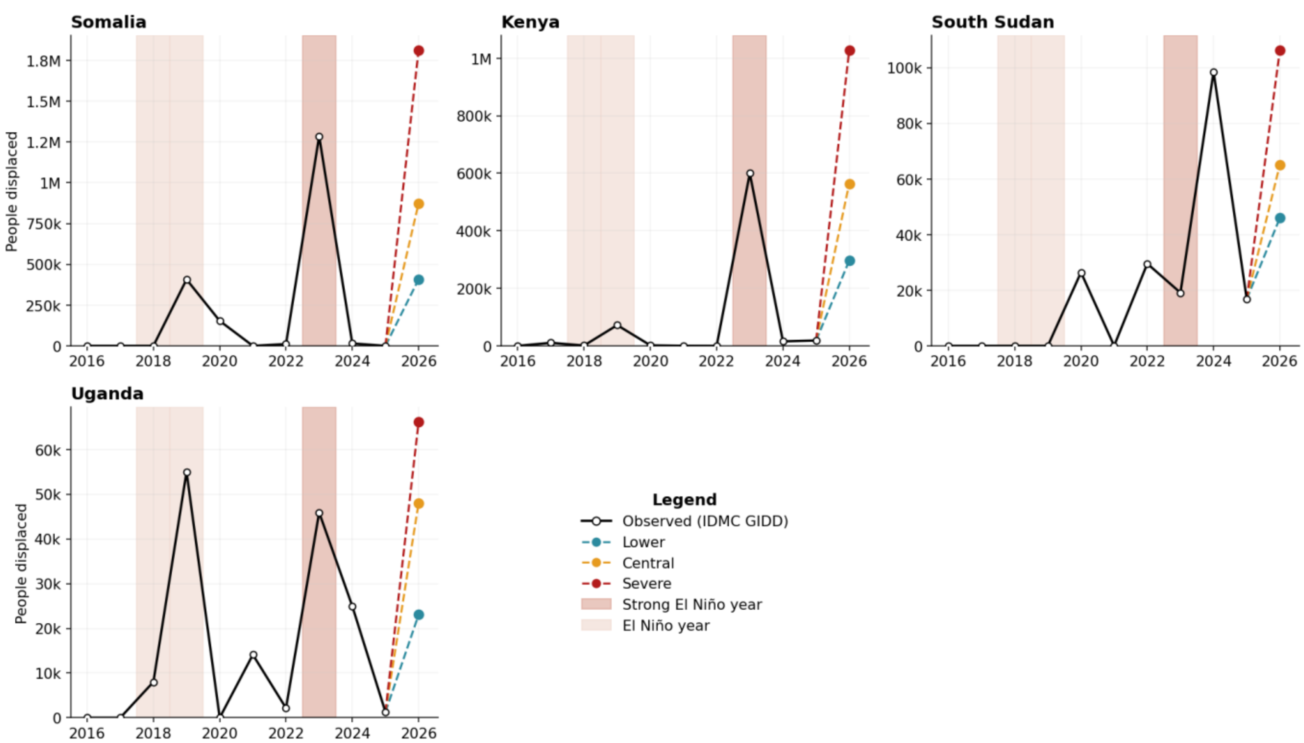
[6] See IDMC, Global Internal Displacement Database, https://www.internal-displacement.org/database/displacement-data/; IDMC, GRID 2024, https://www.internal-displacement.org/global-report/grid2024.

Figure 2. Estimated OND 2026 flood impact by country and scenario



04 Country outlooks[7]

Figure 3. Estimated flood displacement by country - OND 2026



[7] The maps shown here are for illustration purposes only. Names and boundaries on these maps do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by DRC.

Somalia

Somalia has the largest estimated flood-displacement total in all three scenarios. The number of people displaced rises from approximately **408,000 in the Lower scenario, to 874,000 in the Central scenario, and 1.8 million in the Severe scenario**. The increase reflects progressively wetter rainfall conditions over flood-exposed areas and the expansion of impacts beyond recurrent hotspots.

The subnational maps show that displacement risk is concentrated mainly in southern and central Somalia. In the Lower scenario, the largest estimates are concentrated in established flood-prone areas along the Juba and Shabelle river systems and in a smaller number of inland hotspots. Under the Central scenario, estimated displacement increases across the river corridors and in the Severe scenario, several districts in the south and centre move into the highest displacement categories, indicating a much broader event rather than an increase confined to one river basin.

Figure 4. Somalia, district-level estimated flood displacement. OND 2026

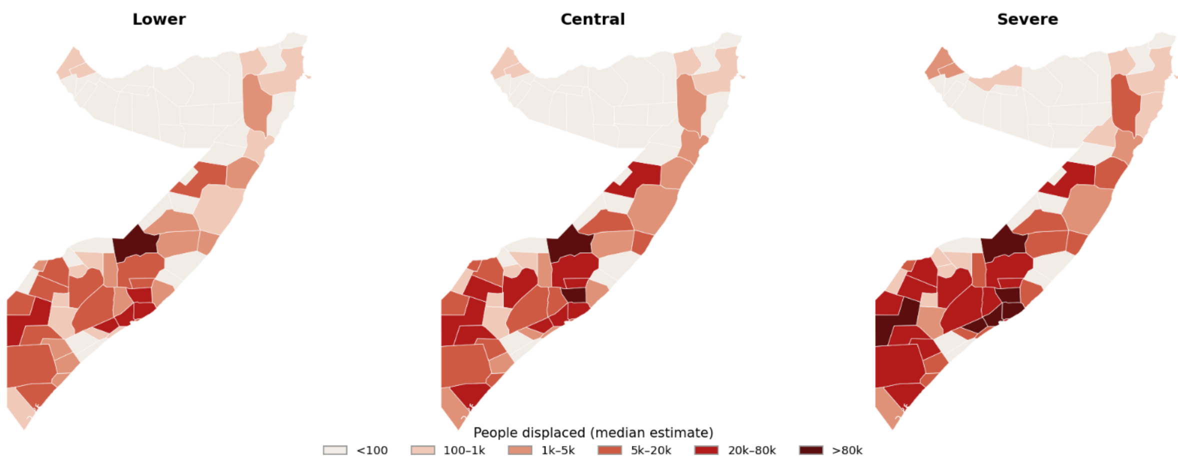
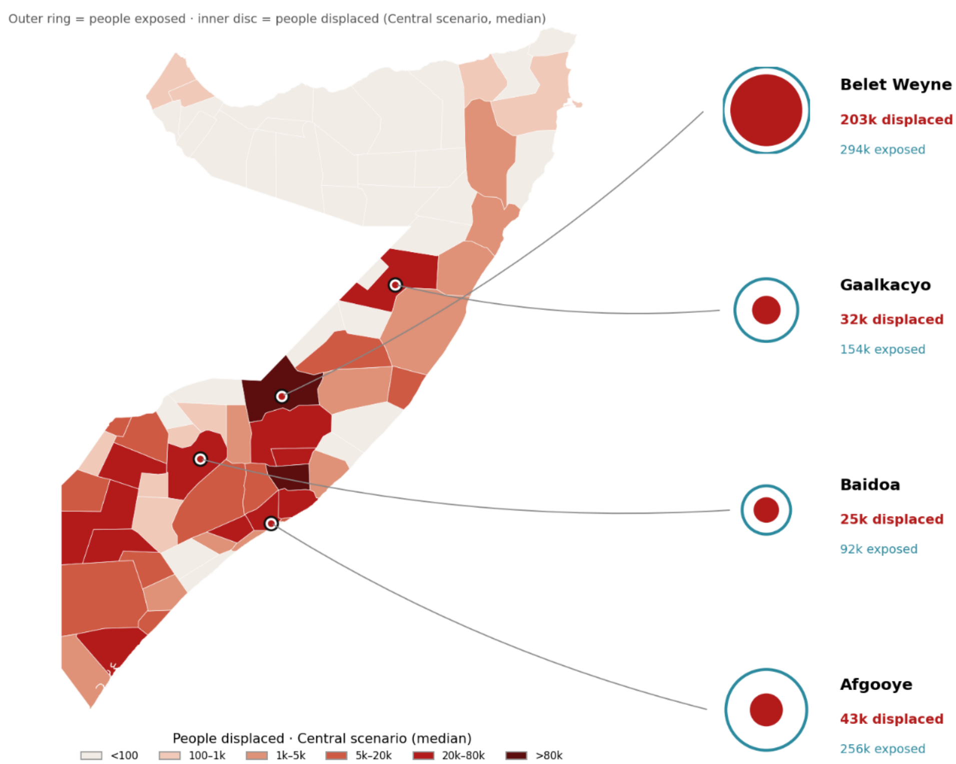


Figure 5. Somalia flood displacement under central scenario. Flagged districts



Two main flood-displacement patterns are visible. The first follows the Juba and Shabelle river systems, including Belet Weyne, Bulo Burto, Jowhar, Afgooye, Luuq and downstream settlements. These areas are exposed both to rainfall falling locally and to river flows generated upstream in the Ethiopian highlands[8]. Under the central scenario, we estimate displacement in these districts of approximately 200,000 in Belet Weyne, 23,000 in Bulo Burto, over 70,000 in Jowhar, 43,000 in Afgooye and almost 20,000 in Luuq The second includes locations such as Baidoa and Gaalkacyo, where intense local rainfall, surface-water accumulation and limited drainage can cause flash, pluvial or urban flooding outside the main mapped river floodplains. Under the Severe scenario, one of the main concerns is that high flows on the Juba and Shabelle could occur at the same time as intense rainfall over Somali settlements and lowlands. This would increase the likelihood of riverine flooding, flash flooding and urban waterlogging occurring simultaneously across several districts.

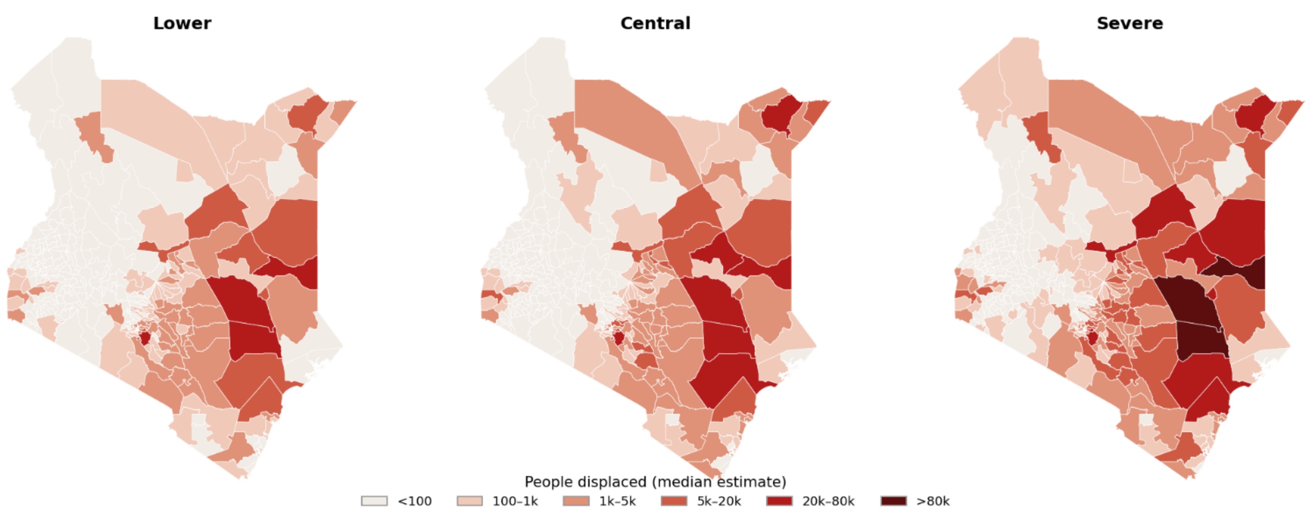
The Central scenario estimate is lower than the displacement recorded during the OND 2023 floods[9], but the Severe estimate would be over 40% higher than the 2023 total. These comparisons indicate the relative scale of the scenarios, but not that the same districts would be affected in the same way. River levels, embankment failures, local drainage conditions and the timing of upstream and local rainfall will determine where the largest displacement occurs.

Kenya

Kenya's flood-displacement risk is more geographically dispersed than Somalia's and reflects several different flood mechanisms. Estimated displacement rises from approximately **297,000 people in the Lower scenario, to 564,000 in the Central scenario and 1.03 million in the Severe scenario.** The Central scenario estimate is relatively close to the number recorded during OND 2023.

The Tana River basin remains one of the clearest concentrations of risk in all three scenarios. Bura and surrounding settlements are primarily exposed to riverine flooding, with impacts influenced by rainfall across the wider upstream catchment as well as local conditions along the river. Under the Central scenario, Bura is estimated to record around 69,000 displacements.

Figure 6. Kenya, district-level estimated flood displacement. OND 2026



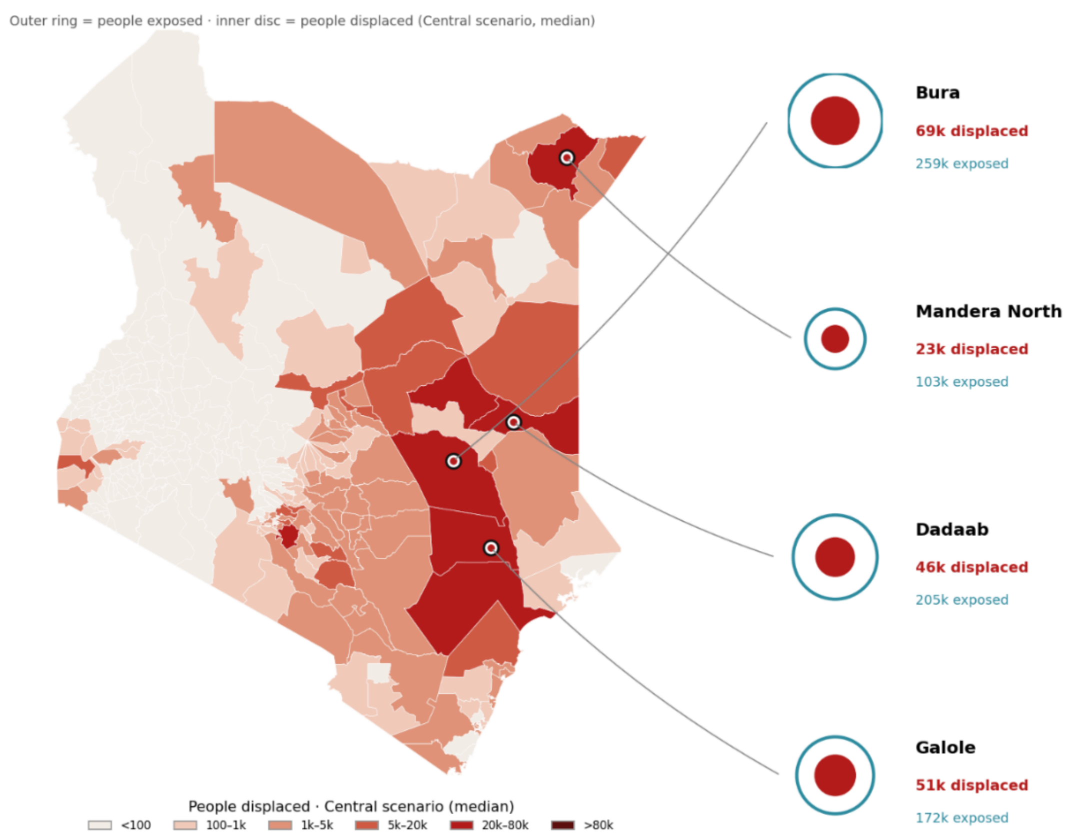
Risk also increases across the northeast. Mandera and neighbouring districts combine river overflow with rapid runoff and flash flooding in normally dry terrain. Mandera North is estimated to record approximately 23,000 displacements under the Central scenario, rising to over 35,000 under the Severe scenario. Farther south, Dadaab is estimated at approximately 46,000 displacements in the Central scenario, but could rise to over 90,000 under the Severe scenario.

[8] See FAO SWALIM: Somalia Water and Land Information Management

[9] See OCHA, Eastern Africa El Niño Impact Snapshot (December 2023), https://reliefweb.int/report/somalia/eastern-africa-el-nino-impact-snapshot-december-2023

The Severe map shows a marked expansion of higher displacement estimates across the eastern corridor, from the northeast through the Tana basin and into southeastern Kenya. Urban and coastal flooding remain important but are less fully represented in the maps. Nairobi and other urban centres face flooding caused by overwhelmed drainage, construction in low-lying areas and short periods of intense rainfall. Mombasa and the coastal strip may experience a combination of pluvial flooding, river overflow and coastal influences. Because the underlying physical hazard layer captures riverine flooding more effectively than urban or coastal flooding, lighter shading in these areas should not be interpreted as an absence of risk. Short-range rainfall forecasts, drainage information and local impact reporting will be particularly important for identifying where urban flooding is developing.

Figure 7. Kenya flood displacement under central scenario. Flagged districts

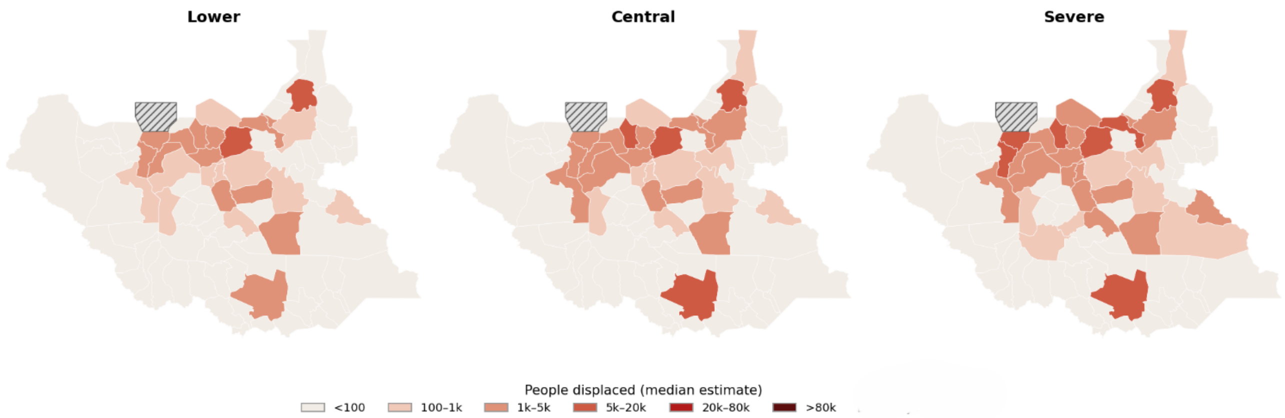


South Sudan

South Sudan differs from the other countries in the outlook because much of its flood risk is chronic and river-driven, rather than closely tied to the OND El Niño rainfall signal. Large populations live in and around the Sudd wetlands and along the White Nile system, particularly in Upper Nile, Unity and Jonglei. These areas can remain inundated or waterlogged for long periods as flows accumulate from upstream catchments and move slowly through the wetland system.

Estimated displacement rises from approximately 46,000 people in the Lower scenario, to 65,000 in the Central scenario and 106,000 in the Severe scenario. The maps show that risk remains concentrated around the White Nile and the Sudd rather than spreading evenly across the country. Under the Central scenario, the largest estimates are in Upper Nile, followed by Unity and Jonglei. Estimated displacement in Upper Nile rises from about 19,000 under the Central scenario to more than 48,000 under the Severe scenario, while Unity rises from approximately 15,000 to 38,000 and Jonglei from around 16,000 to 36,000.

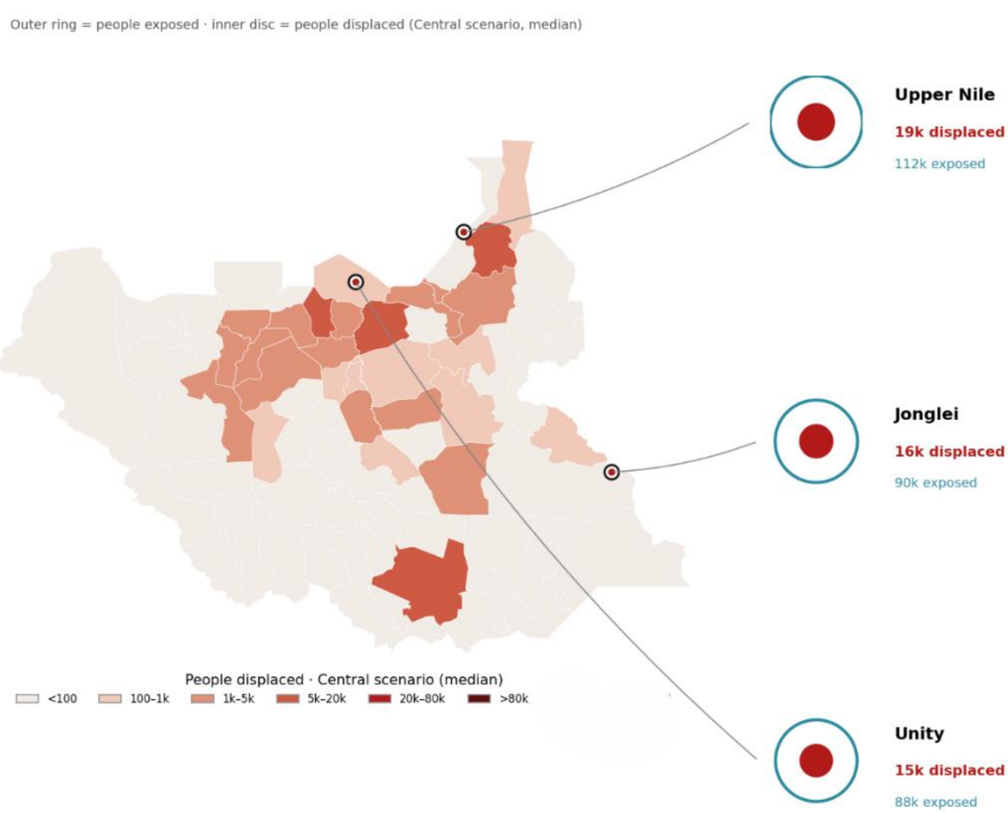
Figure 88. South Sudan, county-level estimated flood displacement. OND 2026



The experience of 2024 also helps explain why South Sudan is treated differently in the analysis. Over 95,000 people were displaced by flooding during OND 2024, considerably more than in OND 2023, even though 2024 was not an El Niño year. River discharge also remained high across 2023, 2024 and 2025. This indicates that South Sudan's OND flood displacement does not respond consistently to El Niño alone. Persistent river levels and accumulated water within the Sudd can sustain major flooding even in a neutral climate year. Our model therefore includes a chronic flood baseline, with the scenario rainfall signal added on top of that existing burden.

The Central estimate of approximately 65,000 displaced people is significantly larger than the OND 2023 total of 19,000, but it remains well below the displacement recorded in 2024. The comparison reinforces that these figures should not be interpreted as South Sudan's total flood burden for 2026. They represent the displacement associated with the OND scenario on top of a wider and potentially larger flood emergency shaped by upstream flows and persistent inundation.

Figure 99. South Sudan flood displacement under central scenario. Flagged states

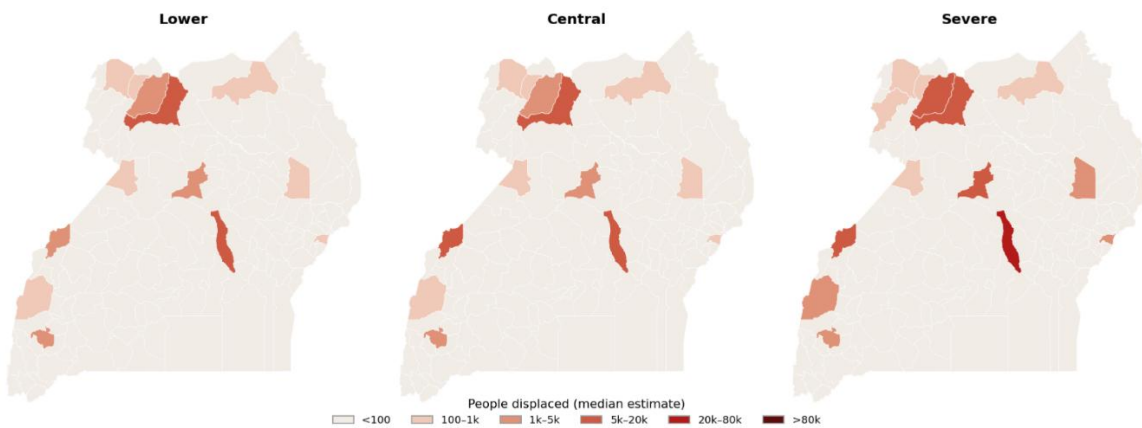


Uganda

In Uganda, estimated displacement rises from approximately 23,000 people in the Lower scenario, to 48,000 in the Central scenario and 66,000 in the Severe scenario. The Central estimate is larger than the more than 45,000 displacements recorded during OND 2023.

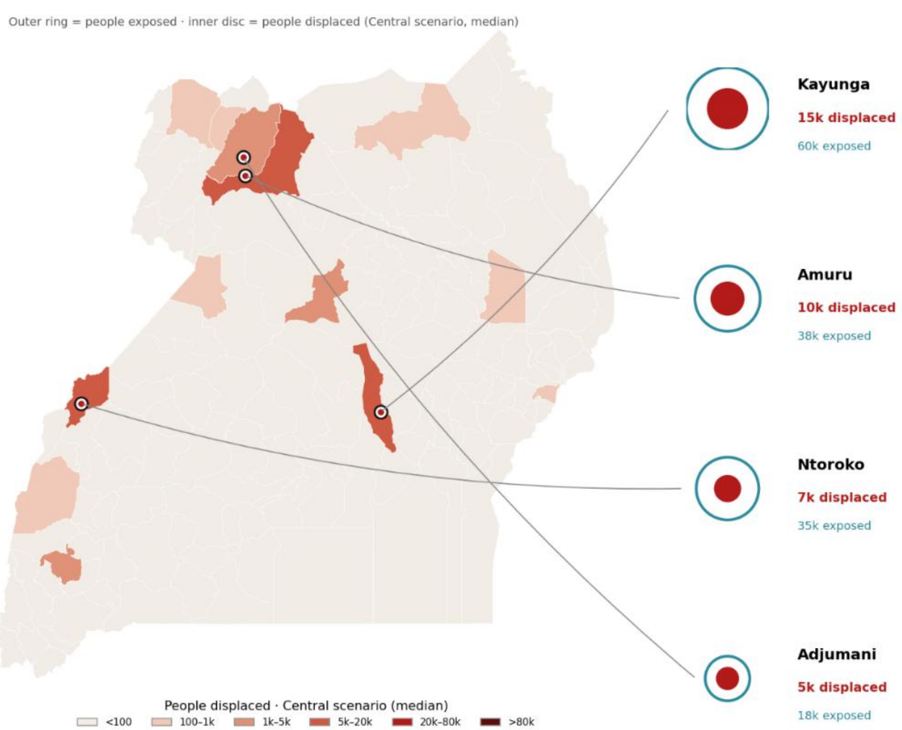
The maps show a dispersed pattern rather than one continuous flood corridor. Kayunga is a hotspot, with an estimated 15,000 people displaced and 60,000 affected under the Central scenario. Its exposure is associated with the Nile and Lake Kyoga system, where high water levels and local rainfall can affect low-lying settlements and agricultural areas.

Figure 100. Uganda, district-level estimated flood displacement. OND 2026



Other highlighted locations represent different flood mechanisms. Amuru, with approximately 10,000 displaced under the Central scenario, is more exposed to intense local rainfall and surface-water flooding. In western Uganda, Ntoroko is vulnerable to flooding around the Semliki–Lake Albert system and to rapid runoff from surrounding highlands. The maps also show smaller concentrations of risk in the north, west and east. In eastern Uganda, intense rainfall can trigger both flash flooding and landslides around Mount Elgon, while western districts near the Rwenzori foothills face rapid runoff, river flooding and slope-related hazards. The model also estimates potential displacement in Tororo.

Figure 111. Uganda flood displacement under central scenario. Flagged districts



05 Methodological approach & limitations

The model answers two linked questions: how large could a flood-displacement event become and where could impacts concentrate? Rainfall is important for estimating event scale. Exposure, seasonality, river systems and historical impact patterns are key for identifying geography.

Data and modelling choices

Observed national displacement totals come from IDMC's Global Internal Displacement Database. Event-level information from IOM DTM, UNHCR PRMN[10] and other assessments is used to understand how displacement has been distributed within countries. Historical rainfall is drawn from CHIRPS, while the 2026 seasonal forecast and its historical hindcast come from ECMWF. Riverine flood exposure is derived from Joint Research Centre flood-hazard maps overlaid with WorldPop population data[11]. GloFAS river discharge is also included to identify areas exposed to large river systems and to flows generated in upstream catchments.[12]

A model is built to estimate a rate of displacement among people exposed to flooding. The number of people living within mapped flood zones forms the underlying exposure measure, while a country-specific baseline accounts for persistent differences in flood vulnerability, infrastructure, preparedness and the completeness of displacement monitoring. The model then estimates how this displacement rate changes when seasonal rainfall is unusually high, relative to each location's own historical climate. It also includes a lagged rainfall term to reflect that flooding and displacement may continue after the heaviest rainfall has occurred.

A negative-binomial model is used because flood displacement is highly uneven. Most district-seasons record little or no displacement, while a small number experience very large events. The fitted relationship indicates that a one-standard-deviation increase in seasonal rainfall is associated with an estimated 2.8-fold increase in displacement. This central value is drawn from a resampling of the historical data whose plausible range is wide and right-skewed, roughly two- to four-fold, and that full range is carried through into the scenario estimates rather than being reduced to a single number. The relationship is applied only within the span supported by the historical evidence. A version of the model that allowed this sensitivity to differ by country was tested and set aside, as several countries record too few flood seasons to estimate a stable country-specific value, so a single pooled relationship is used.

The wider historical record is used to estimate this relationship, i.e., how displacement tends to change as seasonal rainfall becomes more extreme, while the observed 2023 floods provide a recent country-specific reference for the overall magnitude of the estimates. For each country, rainfall under the Lower, Central and Severe scenarios is compared with the rainfall experienced in 2023 over comparable flood-exposed areas, and the recorded 2023 displacement total is adjusted upwards or downwards using the relationship estimated from multiple years of historical data, with an additional adjustment for population growth. The resulting figures are therefore strongly influenced by the scale of displacement recorded in 2023, although they do not assume that 2026 will reproduce either its rainfall or its geographic pattern. This approach is used because severe flood-displacement events are individually infrequent and unevenly recorded, so the event-level record is thin in many places. Estimating displacement directly from that record would be highly sensitive to sparse observations and to persistent differences in reporting between countries. Anchoring the estimates to a recent and extensively documented event provides a more credible starting scale, while the historical record and the 2026 forecast determine how that scale changes. At the same time, any exceptional circumstances specific to 2023 may influence the results, which is why the figures are presented as broad scenario estimates rather than precise forecasts.

The national estimates are distributed across districts using mapped flood exposure, the additional population exposed to flash and urban flooding, historical patterns of OND displacement, the importance of the OND rains in each area,

[10] See IDMC Global Internal Displacement Database, https://www.internal-displacement.org/database/displacement-data/; IOM DTM, https://dtm.iom.int/; UNHCR Protection and Return Monitoring Network (PRMN)

[11] See Rainfall: CHIRPS - https://www.chc.ucsb.edu/data/chirps. Forecast: ECMWF, Seasonal forecast monthly statistics on single levels. Flood hazard: JRC global flood-hazard maps JRC Data Catalogue - Collection - European Commission with WorldPop population, https://www.worldpop.org/.

[12] See GloFAS river discharge, https://global-flood.emergency.copernicus.eu/

major river systems and the rainfall pattern of the selected scenario. Where a country's within-country displacement records are detailed enough to be reliable, the recent multi-year pattern of where flooding has occurred is also used to guide the distribution; where those records are too sparse or concentrated in a single place to be trusted, the distribution rests on physical exposure alone. This means that two areas receiving similar rainfall can carry very different displacement estimates, because the number of people exposed, the type of flood hazard and their previous experience of displacement differ.

Rainfall nevertheless explains only part of displacement. At country level, the remaining year-to-year variation is large. Similar rainfall conditions can produce very different outcomes depending on exactly where the heaviest rain falls, existing river levels and soil saturation, drainage and flood defences, settlement patterns and the extent to which movements can be assessed. All estimates are accompanied by ranges that incorporate uncertainty in the rainfall relationship, this unexplained year-to-year variation and the distribution of impacts between districts. The results should therefore be interpreted as scenario-conditional ranges rather than exact forecasts. People affected are reported alongside people displaced; the affected figures are a planning convention scaled from the displaced estimate according to how much of a district's population sits within the flood zone.

Building the scenarios

The scenarios are built in three linked stages. First, historical combinations of the ONI and the DMI define the three climate states and place them in context. Since 1950, an El Niño with limited Indian Ocean reinforcement has been a fairly common short-rains state; an El Niño accompanied by a clearly positive dipole has been less frequent; and the compound extreme in which both drivers are strong is rarer still, with 1972, 1997 and 2023 among its clearest instances. These frequencies describe how unusual each climate state has been in the past. They are not the probability that displacement will reach a given level in 2026, and should not be read that way - not least because 2026 is not a random draw from history. A strong El Niño is already expected, so the season is unlikely to resemble the milder states; how wet it ultimately becomes will depend on the Indian Ocean, on where and when the heaviest rain falls and on conditions on the ground.

Second, the rainfall level for each scenario is set from the ECMWF forecast and the historical configurations together. The Central case is anchored to the ECMWF forecast, specifically to where the 2026 ensemble sits over each country's flood-exposed and seasonally relevant districts, relative to the rainfall experienced in 2023. The Lower and Severe cases are placed a fixed step below and above the Central case, with the size of that step taken from the historical spread between the three climate configurations. The result is an ordered set of standardised rainfall anomalies per country (one for each scenario) that reflects both the actual 2026 forecast and the historically-observed distance between a limited-reinforcement season and a compound extreme.

Third, the selected rainfall anomaly is translated into a potential displacement outcome using the model specification described above. It is combined with the number of people living in mapped flood zones, the additional population exposed to flash and urban flooding outside those zones, historical patterns of flood displacement, the importance of the October–December season in each area and the presence of major river systems. This produces a scenario-conditional estimate of the possible national displacement total and an indication of how that impact could be distributed across districts.

Because 2023 is the most recent severe flood season, it is worth being clear about where it falls. By climate configuration, 2023 was a Scenario C season. The El Niño was strong (ONI 1.96) and the Indian Ocean Dipole strongly positive (DMI 0.86). By rainfall magnitude the picture is more even across countries than the displacement totals suggest. Over flood-exposed areas, the 2023 rainfall anomaly falls between the Central and Severe cases in Somalia, Kenya and Uganda, and sits at the top of the range in South Sudan. What differs is how much displacement that rainfall produced. Somalia and Kenya were hit hard in 2023, so for them Scenario B describes a season a little milder than 2023 and Scenario C one clearly worse, and their Central estimates sit at or below their 2023 outcomes. South Sudan and Uganda recorded far less displacement in 2023, and the 2026 forecast is wetter for both, so their estimates rise above their 2023 outcomes. No scenario is presented as a repeat of 2023. That year is used to calibrate the scale of the estimates, not as a template for 2026.

Hydrology and different flood mechanisms

Flooding does not follow local rainfall instantaneously. Water falling in the Ethiopian highlands can take days or weeks to travel down the Juba and Shabelle, and river peaks may coincide, or fail to coincide, with heavy local rain. GloFAS discharge helps identify where large rivers and upstream catchments matter. River forecasts and gauge observations should be be used to update this seasonal outlook as the event approaches.

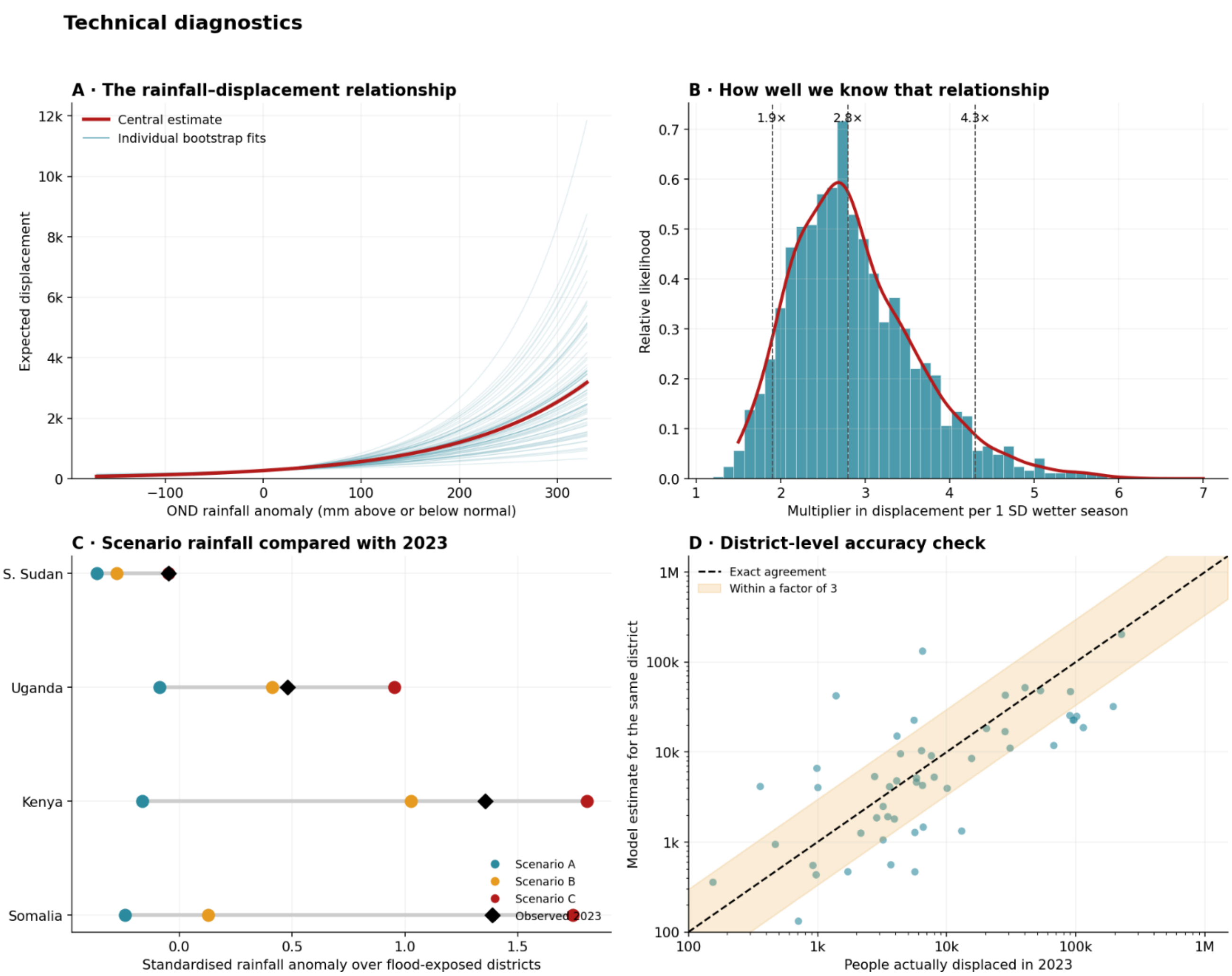
County-specific adjustments

The same core framework is used throughout, with some parameters adapted to reflect well-documented local flood dynamics. In a few settings, additional context is incorporated where flooding is known to behave differently from the general riverine pattern, for example where local assessments better capture the observed impact geography, or where flooding is partly chronic and not driven by El Niño alone.

Diagnostics

Panels A and B below show the fitted rainfall sensitivity and the uncertainty around it. The central relationship implies about 2.8 times as much displacement for each additional standard deviation of seasonal rainfall, but the range of plausible relationships is wide and right-skewed. This supports using broad scenario ranges rather than treating the central value as precise.

Figure 122. Technical diagnostics



Panel C compares the scenario rainfall anomalies with 2023 by country. It shows why a single "2023 analogue" would be misleading. 2023 falls between the Central and Severe cases for Somalia, Kenya and Uganda.

Panel D compares modelled and observed district displacement in 2023. The model is more useful for identifying the broad geography of risk than the exact district count. Reproducing 2023 is primarily a calibration test because some exposure choices were tuned against that season. The independent 2019 test is more demanding. Performance is adequate for Somalia and Uganda but the model substantially overestimates Kenya. Thus, the national medians and district values should be treated as estimates within wide ranges, not as predictive caseloads.

Limitations

These are scenario-conditional estimates. They are suitable for identifying areas that may require further monitoring, but they are not suitable as exact forecasts or fixed district caseloads.

- Estimates uncertainty is large. Residual year-to-year variation is large and the upper end of the uncertainty distribution can be several times the central estimate
- Cross-country comparison is unsafe because recorded displacement also reflects monitoring completeness
- Conflict and drought are excluded, although they interact with flood impacts and displacement in several settings
- South Sudan is only partly covered. Its principal flood seasons fall outside October–December, so these figures represent the El Niño-attributable component of the flood risk, not the whole of it
- Flash, urban and coastal flooding are handled through an empirical adjustment rather than direct measurement. Kenya is the country most affected by this gap
- The scenarios describe magnitude and geography, not timing. The model does not represent when within the season flooding arrives
- This outlook draws on the long-range seasonal forecast as of July 2026. Long-range outlooks should always be used alongside updated monthly, sub-seasonal and short-range national forecasts as the season approaches

Founded in 1956, the Danish Refugee Council (DRC) has worked for 70 years to support displaced people in their pursuit of a dignified life. As Denmark's largest humanitarian NGO and a leading international organisation, DRC works in nearly 30 countries with a dedicated team of around 6,000 employees and thousands of volunteers.

DRC advocates for the rights of and solutions for displacement-affected communities, and provides assistance during all stages of displacement: In acute crisis, in exile, when settling and integrating in a new place, or upon return. DRC supports displaced persons in becoming self-reliant and included into hosting societies. DRC works with civil society and responsible authorities to promote protection of rights and inclusion.

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