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Odisha State Open University, Sambalpur, Odisha
Established by an Act of Government of Odisha.

DIPLOMA in
DISASTER MANAGEMENT
(DDM)

DDM-5
Recovery, Rehabilitation and Reconstruction

Block – VI

Recovery

Unit – I : Concept of recovery, livelihood and approach to reconstruction, Livelihood restoration

Unit –II : Speedy recovery, Linking Recovery with safe development, Creation of Long-term job opportunities

ଓଡ଼ିଶା ରାଜ୍ୟ ମୁକ୍ତ ବିଶ୍ୱବିଦ୍ୟାଳୟ, ସମ୍ବଲପୁର, ଓଡ଼ିଶା
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Sri Meghanad Behera – UNDP representative on Disaster Management **–Member**

DIPLOMA IN DISASTER MANAGEMENT

Course Writer

Dr Ashutosh Mohanty
HOD & International DRR Specialist
UT University, Dehradun , India

Dr Shaikh Sahanwaz Islam,
Assistant Professor ,
Capital Law College ,Utkal University
Bhubaneswar ,Odisha

Course Editor

Dr Manoranjan Mishra – Assistant Professor, Dept. of Geography, GM University Sambalpur **–Program Coordinator**

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UNIT-1 DISASTER RECOVERY

Unit Structure

1.1.Learning Outcome

After Reading this Unit , You will able ;

- Knowledge on Recovery Process and highlight the significance various agencies and communities role in Disaster Recovery
- Role of Local and Urban Bodies in Disaster Recovery
- Pre and Post livelihood Recovery and Reconstruction Mechanism
- Explain the relationship between the government bodies and NGOs in the areas of Disaster Recovery
- Functions of community based Organizations and Agencies to carry out the sustainable and long term recovery measures to manage hazards impacts of Disaster .

1. 2 Introduction

Disaster recovery is a multidimensional field requiring coordinated inputs from a number of agencies from different sectors . Disaster Recovery is a comprehensive process, which includes physical recovery,social recovery and economic recovery . Specialized government agencies, community based agencies and non governmentorganization always play pivotal role in disaster recovery and management processes. Even present

agencies and organizations are playing important role in Disaster Recovery. Since communities are key stake holders and first respondent to disaster Recovery , they play big role in each disaster management cycle as well as long term Disaster Recovery and Management Programme .

Disaster recovery and mitigation are important for sustainable development, especially in the developing countries, where the majority of its population vulnerable to numbers of disaster. Indeed, if proper mechanisms and infrastructure for disaster mitigation and management are put in place in these countries, disasters cannot end up completely crumbling development and claiming lives in such situations.The restoration, and improvement where appropriate, of facilities, livelihoods and living conditions of disaster-affected communities, including efforts to reduce disaster risk factors. The recovery task of rehabilitation and reconstruction begins soon after the emergency phase has ended, and should be based on pre-existing strategies and policies that facilitate clear institutional responsibilities for recovery action and enable public participation. Recovery programmes, coupled with the heightened public awareness and engagement after a disaster, afford a valuable opportunity to develop and implement disaster risk reduction measures and to apply the “build back better” principle.

1.3. Objective of the Study

This Unit highlights the concept of Disaster Recovery processes, role of Government and non government agencies in disaster recovery measures .This units it is also discusses functions of livelihood approach and reconstruction , livelihood restoration measures in disaster Recovery processes .As the emergency is brought under control, the affected population is capable of undertaking a growing number of activities aimed at restoring their lives and the infrastructure that supports them. There is no distinct point at which immediate relief changes into recovery and then into long-term sustainable development. There will be many opportunities during the recovery period to enhance prevention and increase preparedness, thus reducing vulnerability. Ideally, there should be a smooth transition from recovery to on-going development.Recovery activities continue until all systems return to normal or better. Recovery measures, both short and long term, include returning vital life-support systems to minimum operating standards; temporary housing; public information; health and safety education; reconstruction; counseling programs; and economic impact studies. Information resources and services include data collection related to

1.4. Concept of Recovery

Recovery is a process which regulates certain activities following a disaster, i.e. temporary housing, claims processing and grants, long-term medical care and counseling. In general sense it means the recovery phase starts after the immediate threat to human life has subsided. The immediate goal of the recovery phase is to bring the affected area back to normalcy as quickly as possible.

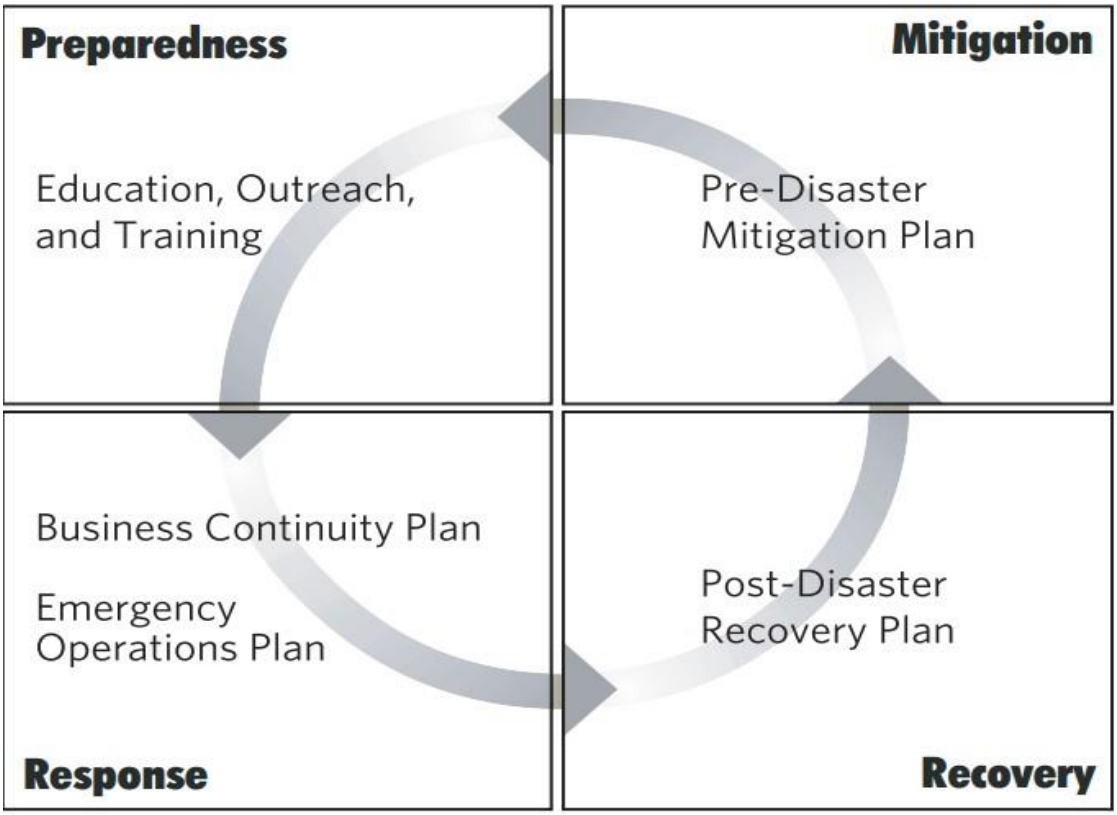
According to UNISDR (2009), recovery is "the restoration, and improvement where appropriate, of facilities, livelihoods and living conditions of disaster-affected communities, including efforts to reduce disaster risk factors." UNISDR notes that recovery programmes, coupled with the heightened public awareness and engagement after a disaster, provide a valuable opportunity to develop and implement disaster risk reduction measures and to apply the BBB principle. It is an important component of risk reduction strategy and if implemented systematically, the recovery process prevents the affected community from sliding into further poverty and deprivation.

The National Policy on Disaster Management 2009 recognizes 'recovery' as one of the six elements within the disaster management continuum where it is linked to physical, social and economic assets within the overall context of 'safe development'. The International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (ISDR) defines recovery as the "decisions and actions taken after a disaster with a view to restore or improve the pre-disaster living conditions of the stricken community, while encouraging and facilitating necessary adjustments to reduce disaster risk".

While emergency response is vital as it is aimed at saving human lives and providing relief, the ultimate objective of any crisis management is restoration of devastated livelihoods. The disaster recovery programmes usually proceed in three distinct stages to facilitate a sequenced, prioritized, and flexible multi-sectoral approach. Three recovery stages, in which appropriate policies and programmes tend to be planned and implemented are: a) Early, b) Mid-Term, and c) Long-TermRecovery efforts following rescue and relief in any disaster can be classified into short term and long term. The short term activities for recovery are debris clearance, providing semi-permanent shelter and ensuring sanitation and restoring lifelines, while the long term activities involve building a safer and more sustainable livelihood.

Nature of Recovery:

The damage caused by floods, earthquakes and cyclones is on a much larger scale than other disasters and recovery after these disasters poses a challenge. In disasters like drought, the relief phase is prolonged and since there is no damage to the infrastructure and property, the rehabilitation is confined to restoration of livelihoods which can get subsumed in normal development programmes.

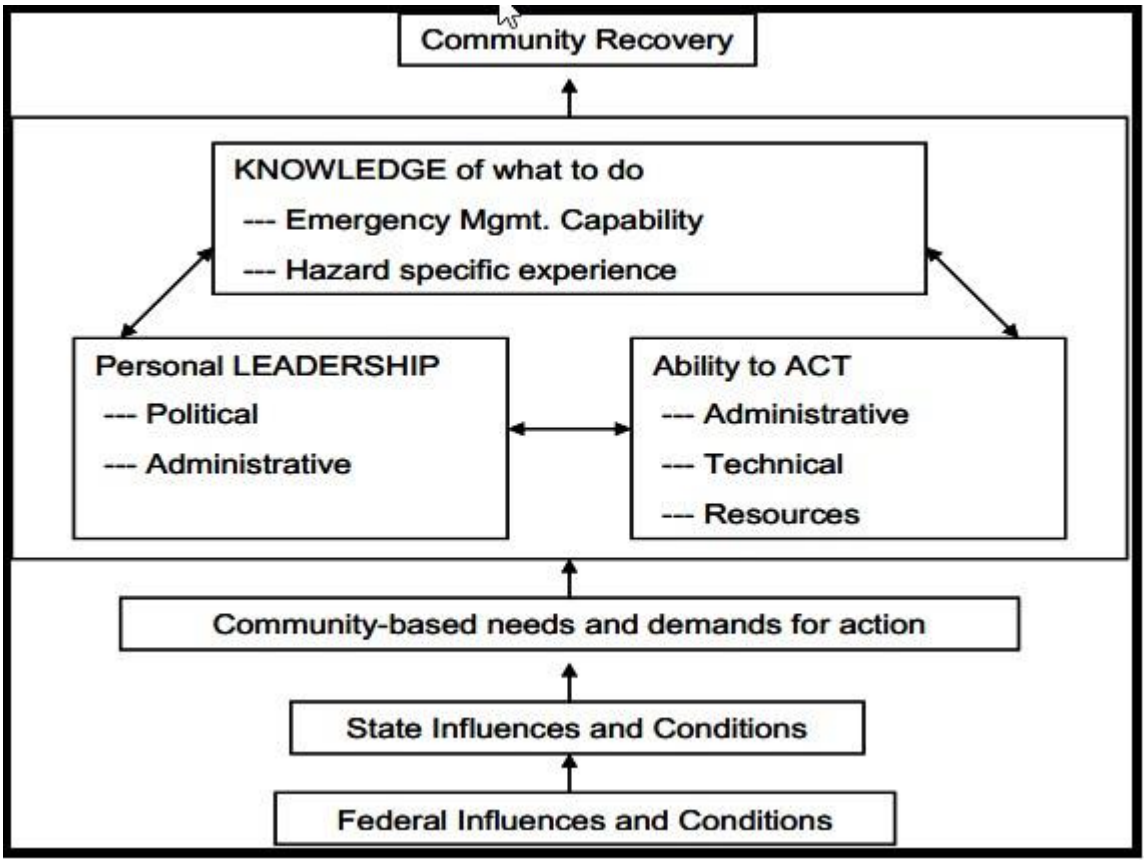


Recovery in case of epidemics is more in the form of sanitising the locality against any future recurrence and may also involve counseling of the victims. Industrial disasters being quite varied in nature, the rehabilitation in major ones like the 'Bhopal Gas Tragedy' could involve rehabilitation efforts spanning over a generation of victims apart from restoring livelihoods and providing social and psychological assistance.

Rehabilitation following disasters such as landslides and avalanches is localised and is of a similar nature as in earthquakes but on a smaller scale. Finding safer sites near such locationsoften poses challenges and resistance.

Disaster Recovery implies that this process is not a set of orderly actions triggered by the impact of a disaster upon a community. It will consist of several related activities such as the following:

- Damage assessments
- Debris clearance, removal and its environmentally safe disposal
- Restoration and even upgrading utilities including communication networks
- Re-establishment of major transport linkages
- Temporary housing
- Detailed building inspections
- Redevelopment planning
- Environmental assessments
- Demolition
- Reconstruction
- Integrating DRR into various development initiatives
- Financial management
- Economic impact analyses



The salient provisions of the recovery framework include the following:

1) Institutional arrangements: Ensuring institutional mechanisms at the national, state, district, and local (urban and rural) levels that clearly defines roles and responsibilities in recovery

2) Coordination: There is considerable interdependence between stakeholders – government, international agencies, private sector, civil society organizations – in realizing the objectives of recovery and inter-agency coordination is extremely important

3) Public-Private Partnerships (PPP): Participation ofthe private sector has to be leveraged for larger public good and the Public-Private Partnerships is one effective way to facilitate the private sector involvement in recovery

4) Information and Communication Technology (ICT): Effective use of ICT in recovery programme, disseminating messages among all stakeholders, and providing information on all aspects of recovery programme

5) Decision Support System (DSS): Setting up an adequate DSS that includes Management

Information System (MIS), databases, deployment of spatial data management technologies

6) Pool of Expertise: Pooling of professional skills and expertise in diverse areas

7) Community Participation: Ensuring the pro-active involvement of communities, proper community outreach, empowerment, and gender equity in programme formulation and implementation

8) Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E): M&E is animportant component required for promoting transparency in the recovery processes and itshould include technical and social audits.

1.5 ROLE OF NGOs IN THE RECOVERY PROCESS

The Non-governmental Organisations have a major role to play in post-disaster recovery phase. As has been demonstrated in the aftermath of some disasters such as the Orissa Cyclone and the Gujarat Earthquake, NGOs do have a crucial presence in the disaster-affected regions. Immediate response aspects usually handled by NGOs include food, shelter and clothing needs. Possibly, the most prompt and well-organised response to natural disasters in the country has come from the religious organisations. Inspired volunteers from these organisations are quick to move directly to the village and are able to meet the people's needs in a pre-trained capacity of camaraderie. Let us now look at some instances of NGO participation.

A severe earthquake measuring 6.4 in magnitude on the Richter Scale struck the Marathwadaregion of Maharashtra State, Village Killari, about forty kilometres south of Latur District-'Headquarters, near the boundary of Latur-Osmanabad districts in the early morning hours of 30th September 1993. People woke up to intense vibrations and shaking of the earth. By 3:55 a.m, enormous damage had been caused - killing about 10,000 persons and destroying about 200,000 dwelling units in 13 districts along with a huge loss to public and private property. The major cause of damage being the poorly constructed houses with locally available stones.

The response of the charitable and religious organisations was tremendous - undertaking mass feeding programmes and free distribution of essential items such as clothes and utensils etc. Organising community kitchens in villages following the Cyclone in Gujarat in 1998, Super Cyclone in Orissa in 1999 and Earthquake in Gujarat in 2001, or organising 'langar' (Community Kitchens) at the place of worship (usually located on higher ground) are just a few examples of their laudable work.

The growing use of HAM radio or amateur radio in facilitating communication of essential information has also helped the functioning of NGOs in disaster-affected areas. Amateur Radio enthusiasts in the country, as we have read in Unit 4 of this Course, have

been participating in emergency relief operations very effectively. While they cannot possibly replace the first line of communication provided by police and other government agencies, they are able to provide backup communication and relevant information to relief agencies, which otherwise may not have access to government information immediately. HAM radio network has been useful in Maharashtra Earthquake (1991), and also more recently in Gujarat. More NGOs are now developing skills in amateur radio phony, which is a useful tool for action during emergencies.

1.5.1 Standardisation of Relief Response by Various Agencies

Following a series of major natural disasters, namely Maharashtra Earthquake (1991), Chamoli Earthquake (1999), Orissa Cyclone (1999), Bhiij Earthquake (2004), Andaman & Nicobar Islands Tsunami (2004) and Muzzafarabad Earthquake (2005), there has been an overwhelming response from all parts of the country with people rushing in to provide all sorts of relief aid. Much of it has been of little use to the affected community either due to the nature of relief material (perishable goods, unsuitable clothes etc.) or poorly organised relief material, which makes collection and distribution difficult.

In response to these unwanted situations, there have been a number of initiatives for developing standards and norms for relief material and relief distribution. One such initiative is the "Sphere Project", which has developed the charted and associated set of Minimum Standards of Relief. The Sphere Project, a joint effort of many international NGOs, is now being actively disseminated in India.In Orissa, a State Level Workshop on Strategic Planning in Rehabilitation and Development held in December 1999 discussed, among other things, setting up of standards for - Family Relief Kits that could answer basic questions such as - "How much per kit needs to be given? when will it reach the people? etc." While many national and international NGOs, which have traditionally been responding to disasters have developed standard kits, much remains to be done in majority of the cases, where unorganised and spontaneous relief flows in after any major disaster.

In an attempt to develop standardised models and put them to use in the field, Sustainable Environment and Ecological Development Society (SEEDS), an NGO working in the area of disaster management and sustainable development carried out relief work in Village Eval in Gujarat when the Earthquake struck in 2001. Relief kits were organised for over 100 families. Each-kit comprised about 20 kg. of dry rations (wheat flour, rice, lintels, sugar, salt, tea), 11-piece utensil set, a bucket and a mug, 7 piece bedding set (floor mats, blankets/sheets), 22 pieces of clothing (men's, women's and children's), and candle and matchbox packs.

The kit was distributed in an orderly manner through a system of 'roll a call' from the records register of families maintained by the local NGO. Women members from families were called one by one to collect their "kits. At the end of the distribution, each family in the village had been covered. Some additional items such as children's clothes, biscuits and floor mats were given to the village school headmaster for the use by school children who had been forced to attend the school in the open, as their school building had got destroyed in the Earthquake.

1.5.2 NGO Networking and Disaster Recovery

Following the Super Cyclone in Orissa, 1999, at the behest of the UN House located in the state capital of Bhuvaneshwar, a coordination mechanism between NGOs, UN organisations and the state government was evolved. Representatives from the three sectors regularly met to update each other on the relief and rehabilitation activities. A unique venture like this ensured that all relief material that reached the state was evenly distributed in all the affected areas. During such meetings, participants could inform each other of the needs of the area they were catering to. .These coordination meetings have led to the development of a number of programmes on infrastructure, livelihood and habitat at the state level. Standard Family Relief Kits have also been developed on the basis of mutual deliberations. NGO coordination and networking has been found to be useful both in the case of Orissa Cylcone (1999) and

Gujarat Earthquake (2001). Such NGO networks are found to have better contacts at the grass roots level, which ensures that a post-disaster response is more evenly spread out. Also, by following a common set of standards and norms, there is greater transparency in implementation.

Following the Orissa Cyclone, Orissa Disaster Mitigation Mission (ODMM) was launched on October 30, 1999 due to the efforts *of* a state-wide network of voluntary organisations in Orissa called SANHATI that took the lead in organising a get-together of interested voluntary organisations and individuals. The ODMM had among its partners and supporters some established NGOs, Community-based Organisations, National and International Development Support Organisations. The initial concern was how and to what extent the organisations could reach out to the people in the affected areas.

The preliminary objectives before the mission were to:

i) Facilitate faster movement of relief to the remote, inaccessible and difficult areas
ii) Plan scientifically for the restoration of livelihood, habitat and social infrastructure in the affected areas; and
iii) Prepare a disaster mitigation plan for the state.

Relief work in Orissa was carried out under four major heads reflecting the Mission's primary focus - Food, Shelter, Health and Disposal of Carcasses. In Gujarat, an NGO network formed during the Cyclone in 1998 - 'Abhiyan' became active once again after the January 2001 Earthquake. Currently, many corporate and international donor agencies are routing their rehabilitation funds through this Consortium.

1.5.3 The Government-Ngo Cooperation

As we have read in our earlier Units of this Course, in August 1999, the Government of India appointed a High Powered Committee (HPC) to look into the factors that needed to go into the preparation of a Disaster Management Policy at the national level. Over a

span of 2 years,HPC carried out a nationwide NGO consultation in which more than 600 NGOs participated. The consultations were coordinated by four nodal NGOs, which acted as regional coordinators. An effort was made by the HPC to address this problem by organising a nationwide network of NGOs with an acronym VASUDEVA, which stands for 'Voluntary Agencies for Sustainable Universal Development and Emergency Voluntary Action'. It was formed with the intention of creating a bridge between the NGOs and the government sector as also within the NGOs working in the field of disaster management in order to activate disaster management network.

The National Centre for Disaster Management (NCDM, which has now been made an autonomous institute called National Institute for Disaster Management) was identified as the convener, while the four nodal NGOs, which had convened the four regional consultations, were identified as respective conveners for the four regional networks of the country. 'VASUDEVA' was thus envisaged to ultimately become a people's movement for disaster management. Its formation marks a positive step taken by the government, acknowledging the important role played by the NGOs in responding to disasters, and government's efforts in institutionalising networks through regional consultations.

In Orissa, the NGOs have implemented successful cyclone rehabilitation projects in the recent past. The NGOs have supported livelihood initiatives within which the beneficiaries have been trained and provided with support to establish vocations. Masons trained by the 'Gram Vikas' an NGO, are able to find good work opportunities within the area. Non-conventional livelihood options such as masonry in new construction techniques, cycle rental shops etc., are being made available to beneficiaries and these appear to be having far more potential than the conventional basket-weaving and rice-pounding kind of options being adopted by other agencies.

New avenues create a new demand and besides finding space for themselves, they provide an overall impetus to the economy. On the other hand, creating new self-help groups practicing the same traditional vocations merely increases competition with fellow

artisans in a market with limited elasticity. The approach is innovative, as it first creates a demand, say for masons 'through promotion of permanent housing, and then services this demand through entrepreneurial development.

Latur Earthquake brought together organisations that played a vital role in developmental-" activities in different parts of the country. These organisations came forward to help the government in long-term rehabilitation and reconstruction programmes comprising physical development of villages, and socio-economic support to the affected community. As many as 23,000 new houses in 49 villages were constructed on entirely new site^ with the help of NGOs. The organisations comprised religious and charitable agencies that in turn were provided with financial infrastructure and research support by a number of private corporate houses, public sector organisations, as well as research and development agencies.

1.5.4 Role Of Community-Based Organisations

In recent years, various formal and non-formal organisations have played an increasingly important role in disaster reduction. Because of their significant links with grass roots development, these organisations often perform complementary roles with other established organisations. The role of panchayats, schoolteachers, social welfare workers, women's groups, and other socio-cultural organisations in disaster reduction should, thus, not be underestimated. Religious institutions and their structures have also' been involved in a number of ways. For instance in Jamaica, Hurricane Committees are organised on a parish basis. Immediately after the impact of a disaster, many people look towards religious organisations for guidance, emotionalsupport and comfort. The 'coping abilities' of vulnerable communities are, many a time, linked to their religious beliefs. The same phenomenon was observed in Punjab, particularly during the floods of 1993, when 'gurudwaras' played a major role in relief and rehabilitation activities, and served as temporary shelters too.

It is universally accepted that governments must have the main responsibility for managing disasters. It is one of the governmental tasks to ensure that the national

resources, of which the majority falls under governmental control, are utilised (before, during and after a disaster) in the best possible way. The organisational structures needed for managing disasters are best founded on existing government structures. Creation of *ad hoc* arrangements for disaster purposes have proved to be ineffective. In this light, PRIs have a significant role to play, as they bridge the gap between the government at the higher levels, and the community as well as the NGOs at the grass roots levels.

Local authorities and project staff are the implementers of the development programmes of the government at the community level. It is this group that actually coordinates most of the disaster reduction work. The national and regional planners also exercise a major influence on the mitigation of disasters. But it is ultimately at the policy-making level that the decisions are taken on when and how the national disaster management programmes are to be developed. These are the programmes that the NGO sector needs to be working with in order to arrive at an integrated strategy for participatory disaster management.

1.5.5 Self-help Groups: Case of Pani Panchayats in Maharashtra

Maharashtra has been experiencing droughts for many years. The people in the region had accepted it and even learnt to live with it. But the spell has been broken now due to concerted efforts. Fifty km from Pune is the village of Mahur, which though receives 500 mm of rain every year on an average, had been forced to cope with drought conditions. This was the situation till 2003. The high run-off in this hilly region used to leave little water for cultivation. The villagers depended on rainfed agriculture. The rate of migration was high with one member of every family living in Mumbai.

But now, fiom an undeveloped, rocky, barren area, Mahur is showing signs of prosperity. The village is now dotted with fields of lilies, tube roses and other flowers, chickpeas, custard apple and maize. In 1971, the state government had built a minor irrigation dam in the village to store rainwater. "For ten years, we did not know how to make proper use of it," remarked SrirangBaluGole, whose solo efforts transformed this tiny village. He

had heard about a scheme, which would help people draw water through pumps. He mobilised some villagers to learn more about it.

Funds were raised through 'Gram GauravPratishthan', which was set up in 1974. The government also provided some amount as subsidy and the remaining amount was raised by the villagers, As a result, the 'RenukamataUpsaJalSinchanPrakalp' took off in 1981. Three 30 hp pumps were installed to draw water in the fields of 35 members who had 50 acres between them, which was harnessed for irrigation. The scheme was unique. Water was not distributed randomly nor did the largest landowner ever get a lion's share. Instead, each landowner was allowed to irrigate only 2 acres of land and water was distributed equally. One trained person ensured that no one was denied his share. Now, more than two decades later, SrirlngGole looks back with pride as he says. "Earlier, I used to get only five quintals of Bajri, now I get 50. From floriculture alone, I make Rs. 10,000 a month.

However, not all farmers have been equally successful. Some earn Rs.2,000 to Rs.2,500a month from floriculture, while others work for daily wages. But overall, the village seems to have risen from its penury. Cropping paterns have changed for the better. Farmers nowcultivate short-term seasonal crops, which fetch better returns. Flowers and fruits are the favourites. The farmers also grow pulses and grains for their own sustenance.

1.5.6 Advantages of PaniPanchayats

The experiment in Mahur is one of the 50 such projects in Purandar, Ambegaon, Maval and PhaltanTalukas of Pune where the principles of PaniPanchayat scheme are in force. Vilas Salunkhe, the brain behind the scheme and a mechanical engineer by profession once pointed out that he had no connection with the villages or the problems of the poor, he had an urban background. But in 1972, moved by the devastating drought in the state, he visited PurandarTaluka where he saw nearly 40,000 people engaged in breaking stones as part of employment guarantee schemes. As he could not fathom the connection between stone cutting and drought, he approached the authorities in vain to find an explanation to this strange way of tackling the drought.

In 1974, he set up the 'Gram GauravPratishthan' at Naigaon village in PurandarTaluka, which was severely affected by drought. He realised that providing employment was one thing but making the people self-reliant was the,, key issue. According to him, the Pratishthan was the first example of micro- watershed development programme, and land and water management. In Naigaon, annual rainfall fluctuates between 250 and 500 mm, but most of it runs off in seasonal streams. To prevent this, a percolation tank was built and the fields were lined with contour bunds. For five years, Vilas Salunkhe experimented in water and soil conservation, designing low-cost community irrigation schemes, water regeneration and various other techniques to improve production.

It was not easy to convince people who are generally sceptical and reluctant to share w ter. A number of social hurdles had to be overcome. Besides producing nearly 200 quintals of foodgrains, the farm in Naigaon generated employment for 15 persons. The who[1]- area was covered with hundreds of trees. However, once water was harvested, the question of its management and distribution cropped up. In 1980, Vilas Salunkhe decided that apart from micro-watershed development, the economic needs of the village also had to be met. Various experiences pertaining to farm work in Naigaon proved that half an acre of irrigated land woud sustain one person and on this basis, each family could have a maximum of 2.5 acres of irrigated land. Another concept, revolutionary at that time, was Vilas Salunkhe's insistence that the community should contribute 20 per cent of the costs.

He evolved a few principles, the first being that water should be distributed to every villager, regardless of his landholding. "Instead of saying 'land to the tiller', people should say 'water to the tiller'. It is water that should be distributed on a per capita basis", he suggested. Emphasis was placed on cultivating short-term cash crops requiring less water for irrigation. Even the landless must have access to water, so that the question of land distribution also comes into the picture. According to Salunkhe, when equal rights are given to water sharing, land will automatically be shared. He has always felt that if such ideas could be incorporated into planning, their replication would not be a problem.

'In 1981, the Centre appointed a Committee headed by K.B. Shivaraman to oversee the development of backward areas. After visiting the area, under the PaniPanchayat Scheme, it was felt that the scheme could help solve the problems of drought-hit Maharashtra by making some minor policy changes, as social justice and water distribution are the only ways of ensuring a solution to the people's problems. Even the Planning Commission had recommended the incorporation of the PaniPanchayat Scheme in the 20-point Programme. But it needs more than a mere recommendation to make a concept operative. It has to be a part of the national strategies as well as community mind-set.

At present, 1600 families in 20 villages have benefited from the PaniPanchayat Scheme. Over 3,000 acres of land can now sustain 10,000 people. '/lost of these villages are in drought-affected and even in high rainfall areas where seasonal migration is common. Now, because of the availability of water, reverse migration is taking place, though on a small-scale. Of the 1,200 big dams in the country, 687 are in Maharashtra. However, recurring droughts indicate that these dams have not helped to mitigate the proL.em of water scarcity. Once the villagers are self- reliant, their energies turn to afforestation. In Mahur, there are plans to plant trees on barren hillsides. This idea has caught on in most of the project areas. In terms of sustainability, the scheme has proved that water management is die basis of economic growth beyond doubt.

The PaniPanchayat Model has attracted attention in some parts of the country. Such as in Bihar's Palamau District, and some districts in Kamataka. Vilas Salunkhe observed that the replicabiHty of the Project was tested in the tribal area of Yavatmal by convincing the people, as the government had been spending crores of rupees under the tribal sub-plan. In Yavatmal, after the adoption of the scheme, a woman who owns 40 acres can now earn Rs. 4000 a month by renting it out to 20 farmers. Water ^s available, but it has to be harvested and managed properly. Though there are schemes where volumetric water supply has been provided, lack of community participation render them useless. Sharing water not only means using water judiciously but also making sure that everybody has a right to it.

1.6 Livelihood and Approach to Reconstruction

Natural disasters, wars and development projects all lead to large scale impacts on life, property, infrastructure, and social and cultural relationships. In both man made and natural disaster situations the impacts *can* be mitigated to a large extent through adequate planning and preparedness. Negative impacts of manmade disasters can be managed, if social, ecological and economic consequences of our actions are considered and development decisions made accordingly. On the other hand, while we can be adequately prepared for a natural disaster, we cannot totally eliminate its impacts.

Causes and long term consequences:

In order to design a response strategy that addresses sustainability issues, it is important to understand the systemic causes and the long-term consequences of a catastrophic disaster. A problem tree to this affect was constructed by Marcus Oxley of CARE Australia; an expert in disaster emergency and relief operations.

Unsafe building practices that result in large scale damage are, in fact, a resultant of a fatal combination of lack of know-how about safe building practices, lack of

technological options for safer building and a fatalistic attitude regarding the possibility of a disaster. These are often coupled with misplaced priorities that lead to more money spent on facades and embellishments in houses than on safe construction practices in economically better off households; and reinforced by poverty that prioritizes the daily meal over a safe shelter. These anomalies are at the *root* of why disasters take such a heavy toll as in Orissa in 1999 or Gujarat this year. A catastrophe such as the super cyclone or a major earthquake, pulls (especially) the poor down into its vortex.

The consequences are, of-course the most obvious and immediate, loss of life, property and infrastructure. The more long term and difficult outcome increased vulnerability to elements, loss of livelihoods, increased poverty, economic recession, malnutrition, leading to out-migration from villages, enhanced social disparities and strife.

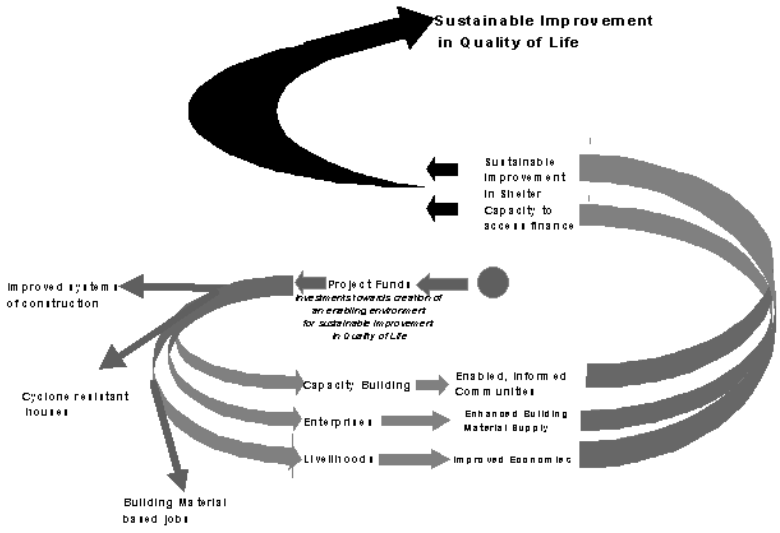
Mechanisms of response

Post disaster response has been typically at three (now four) levels.

- **Relief** immediately after the calamity, lasting from the first 24 hours to about two to three months and catering to immediate shelter, food, water and medical assistance.
- **Reconstruction** following relief and extending to a period of approximately two years, aimed at rebuilding the basic physical infrastructure and shelter to enable people to begin afresh; and
- **Rehabilitation**, that looks at more long term inputs of reinstating lost livelihoods, introducing new economic opportunities and improving land and water management processes so as to reduce people's vulnerability and enhance capacities to handle future calamities.
- **Readiness**, a response which should ideally have been a proactive measure, is to enhance preparedness in identified vulnerable regions by introducing mechanisms and methods of construction that mitigate impacts of future disasters.

Disaster – an opportunity:

Let us look at a disaster situation not as a glass half empty but half full. Not as a tremendous loss but as an opportunity now being offered "again". An opportunity to begin the process of development in a more sustainable mode. An opportunity to set in place systems, technologies and processes that improve the quality of life and are in sync with the regional geo-environmental conditions.



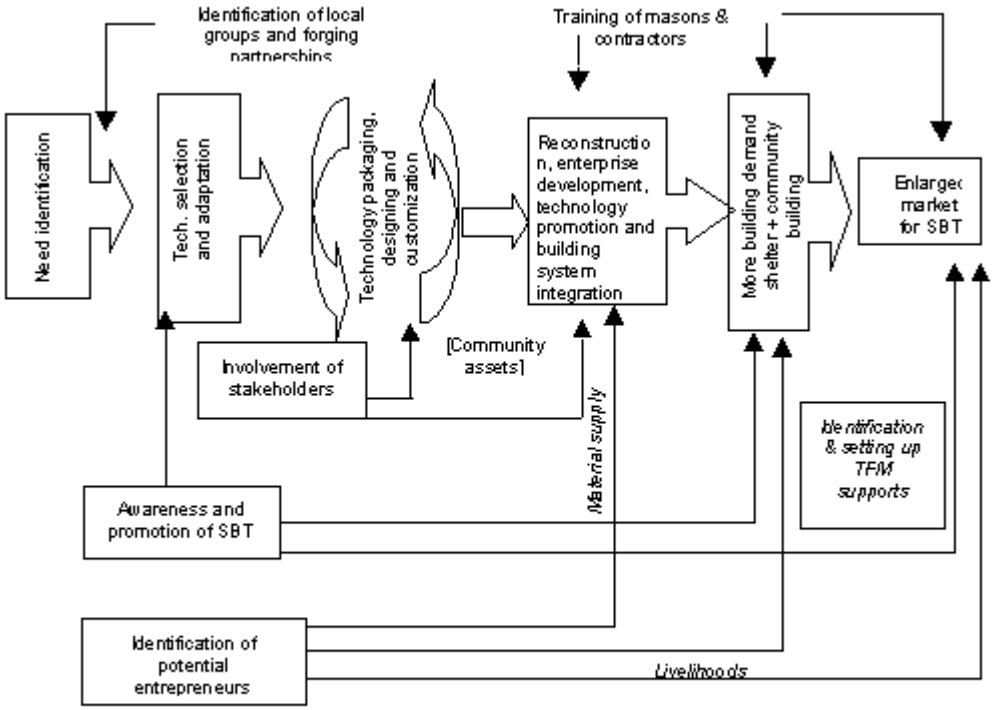
Upward spiral from disaster to sustainable development

It is possible to do so at such a time and at a large enough scale not only because one has virtually a new canvas to begin with, but also because people's mindsets about conventional (as practiced) systems of construction (and other development paradigms) are altered in one stroke. In Gujarat, (whole) communities who would be extremely conservative about any change in their building practices, are now questioning the way they and their fathers have been building and are seeking "improved" systems. They now understand the limitations of earlier systems and are clearly amenable to change.

A Holistic Approach

The process of reconstruction involves partial or complete relocation and rebuilding the essential physical infrastructure and shelter (house) so that vulnerability levels are reduced and families are able to get back to their feet. Reconstruction therefore paves the way for long term rehabilitation. Rehabilitation primarily addresses the new or increased poverty levels that have emerged due to the disaster. Jobs and income generation measures in the construction sector provide an immediate and emergency boost to the local economy. This is followed by long term improvement in land and water

management and economic opportunities that seek to upgrade local economies and reduce community vulnerability in a sustainable manner.



A response strategy for creation of livelihood

For the process of sustainable development to take off in continuation with reconstruction, it is important that the end objective is not limited to only getting people back upto the base line levels prior to the quake or cyclone. The intervention over a longer term should resultant improved quality of life and reduced levels of vulnerability. While families are tuned to picking up the pieces of their life, concepts of improved building practices, sanitation, sewerage, rainwater harvesting, improved land and water management etc. can be gradually introduced.

It is reported in Orissa, *(The Role of Enabling Infrastructure: A Case Study of Housing Interventions in Orissa by N Ashok Kumar et al)* that in *Adivasi*villages, where development activities of improved shelter, land and water management and livelihoods were in progress at the time of the super cyclone, not only was the loss of property and life minimal, the loss in economic time was only to the tune of 5 to 10 days. People could bounce back to their normal routines very soon after the cyclone. While in adjacent

villages, months after the cyclone, families were still unable to get back to regular work leading to longer term economic decline. This is a very strong argument in favour of "total rehabilitation" as opposed to only reconstruction. Reconstruction and rehabilitation need to be in a seamless continuum with restoration efforts.

The issue of correct timing and speed is however, significant. A holistic approach does not negate the need for a fast response to immediate reconstruction.Time and again it has been seen that people will revert back to their earlier unsustainable practices very soon if timely inputs are not made and systems that ensure long term continuity of material and skill availability are not set in place.

In Gujarat, many rural families are re-building in exactly the same manner as earlier. They are not prepared to wait for countless consultants to complete their assessment and project reports. In Later, analysis of the post earthquake reconstruction, 7 years later, reveals that in many cases house extensions and new constructions are being done in unsafe manner as neither materials nor skills of improved construction technologies are available.

From Reconstruction to Rehabilitation

The reconstruction of shelter and community infrastructure, in fact, forms an important entry point for the rehabilitation process.

A reconstruction program is the first step towards restoring and upgrading local habitat. It introduces improved systems of building, sets up basic building element supply, builds up the skills and management capacity of families, local agencies and village artisans in a restricted area and sets up local information and knowledge systems. All these to enable "better building".

A holistic view of "Habitat" that links the process of housing with the capacity to make and exercise informed choices w.r.t. building construction, habitat improvement and economic betterment is the larger goal.

Re-establishing people’s lives through rehabilitation efforts involves:

- Moving up the ladder from house to habitat to livelihood.

- Local awareness creation including training for all so that people gain control over the housing process.
- Capacity Building and linking to enterprises-Livelihood support.
- Devising livelihood interventions in the farm and non-farm sectors based on new economic opportunities to create economic surpluses (that can be directed to responsive housing)
- Creating a basis for community access to institutional housing finance

A response strategy - facilitating the creation of Sustainable Livelihoods

A effective response strategy is to *understand the need for building materials, buildings and livelihoods and catalyze the conversion of this need into demand.* The demand for (sustainable) building technologies and construction practices can be provided through *sustainable enterprises*.

This response strategy addresses the present (immediate) need of reconstruction through local building technology-based enterprises. Reconstruction activities, if designed to include local manpower, provide the essential (albeit short term) jobs leading to an immediate spurt in the local economy. At the same time, building material and skill based local enterprises ensure continuous supply of quality building materials and skills. In the long term this is likely to result in a sustainable improvement in shelter conditions while also enlarging livelihood options in the region.

The reconstruction program at the outset provides a major advantage to the new enterprises. It forms the initial captive market, provides critical visibility to the new technologies and improved systems of construction and also (if systematically approached) builds up the acceptance of these new "products" in the market. A sensitive reconstruction program will necessarily involve an accompanying process of educating the affected population on the aspects of safer construction; thus inculcating an appreciation of the improved systems. After the initial reconstruction phase, families would preferentially opt for these materials and techniques to extend their houses.

An important aspect here is that new materials and techniques should match the paying capacity of the targeted communities. A multi pronged approach is required here: First, the selection of the improved technologies and construction systems should bear in

mind the long-term affordability of the affected population. This involves correct selection of raw materials, production processes and scales of delivery. An optimum combination of large industry based materials and village enterprise based production with materials sourced from regional building centers.

Secondly, a parallel intervention in improving quality of life through enlarged livelihood options and improved land, water, resource management practices resulting in enhanced purchasing power within communities.And, thirdly, interventions of housing and livelihood finance are required that enable people to access available building options.

The Ashraya Core House Construction Program currently in progress in Orissa, in partnership with CARE India designed to respond to the reconstruction needs after the super cyclone in October 1999. It addresses the immediate shelter needs of about 1400 families by providing a fast response to construct Core Shelter. At the same time a "process" has been initiated to ensure long term habitat improvement in the region.The nucleus of the Ashraya Program is the Building Materials and Services Bank (BMSB); the local production and supply center for improved building materials, elements and skills.At present two such centers are in operation and a third is being set up, each influencing an area of 50km radius. Currently each BMSB is providing direct jobs for upto 15 skilled and 45 semi-skilled workers. These facilitate more than a 100 upstream and downstream jobs related to delivery of elements and for the construction of houses.These building material production centers or the Building Materials and Services Banks are managed by local NGOs with the production component sub-contracted to local community groups. At present, these centers supply improved building elements, technology and skills for the ongoing Rehabilitation Program. In the long run, they are envisaged as centers for total habitat guidance to the village community on housing, sanitation, domestic energy, water storage etc. These would be **one-stop shops** for all local habitat needs including access to housing finance.

The BMSBs are centralized production and service hubs at the moment but these are designed to eventually fission into down-scaled building material enterprises to become

the nuclei of a large number of decentralized production units spread throughout the region.

The technology transfer process during the core house construction is already facilitating building material production and construction based livelihoods. This is designed to introduce new skills and capacity for improved cyclone resistant building systems within the local area in the form of enterprises. These enterprises would continue to build new houses, extend and upgrade old houses long after the immediate reconstruction interventions are over.

The project funds in the short term will lead to the construction of 1400 houses and set up building material based enterprises; and as investments in livelihoods, capacity building and information dissemination these would pay dividends by way of :

- Enabled, Informed Communities
- Enhanced Building Material Supply
- Improved Economies

Disasters and their adverse impacts set societies back by decades and leave them vulnerable to physical, social and economic hardships. This may inhibit large sections of the affected society to come back even to the base level let alone develop at par with the rest of the nation. Post-disaster reconstruction is a complex process. It requires multi-sectoral involvement, very significant resources and a wide range of skills. Many of these skills are not typically available within humanitarian organisations. For a humanitarian agency, the decision to engage in reconstruction (and what type of assistance to provide) needs to be taken cognisant of the complexities and must recognise the need for expert advice.Every disaster that leaves many people homeless triggers renewed and often intense debates about what technologies are appropriate to rebuild homes so that they are ‘safe’ or ‘disaster-resistant’. Shelter relief and reconstruction programmes absorb large amounts of international aid, yet we know very little about these programmes’ long-termresults.Indigenous building technology is particularly valuable in terms of livelihoods because it uses local skills and labour: self-building (which is widely practised in the South), hiring local builders or a combination of the two.

Reconstruction does present an opportunity to create jobs. Many 'safe' housing initiatives in the aftermath ofdisaster follow a fairly standard pattern oftraining local builders in techniques for building more hazard-resistant structures and retrofitting others, providing themwith employment on externally funded reconstruction programmes, building demonstration houses, and running public education campaigns to stimulate better understanding of safety features among local populations, who are potential clients for their services. In many other cases, though, local builders and their traditional skills are displaced by imported construction technologies and the labour needed to use them. The marginalisation oflocal artisans in this way can actually increase vulnerability to hazards: once the reconstruction project is over and the imported labour has returned home, skills needed to extend, modify and repair houses using the new technologies are lacking, leading homeowners revert to traditional methods and hence to dangerous hybrid structures (mentioned above).

Where reconstruction does create local jobs, it is not clear how sustainable these new livelihood opportunities are once the programmes funded by aid agencies cometo an end. Although appropriate masonry and carpentry skills for safe building may be retained within a community, it is unlikely that low-incomegroups can afford to hire builders, and so long-termopportunities for employment (and hence, building improvement) may be very limited. This argument is supported by evidence fromsomeprojects, although further research is needed. Long-termdevelopment trends in a particular district are much more significant in creating or destroying livelihood opportunities than short-termreconstruction projects. Rising levels of poverty may lead local building craftsmen to turn to alternative occupations, and will probably discourage younger people fromtaking up the craft. Better employment opportunities in other places may cause skilled builders to migrate.Although provision of free or subsidised building materials is common after major disasters, this is to meet immediate shelter needs and is rarely stimulated by a long-termperspective of livelihood rehabilitation. Support to livelihoods in disaster response is still a relatively new approach, largely confined to support for agriculture and food security – for example, distribution of cash, seeds and tools as part of agricultural support

packages – or to providing short-termassistance through food-for-work and cash-for-work projects. Many ifnot most ofsuch initiatives are limited to meeting immediate needs rather than replenishing livelihood assets in general: the high cost and long-termprogramming required for the latter deter relief agencies frombecoming involved.

Participatory processes involving vulnerable people and disaster victims ought to identify livelihood needs and economic factors affecting rebuilding and technology choice, and so ought to be leading to approaches that are based more on livelihoods and less on technological 'fixes'.

Evidence fromrecent disasters suggests that the top-down, technology-driven, house-as-product approach remains dominant in post-disaster reconstruction, with the exception of a few isolated and relatively small-scale NGO projects.

However, recent disasters give a few indications of shifts in thinking. Take the case of Bangladesh, badly affected by severe monsoon flooding in 1988 and 1998. In the aftermath of the 1988 floods, which destroyed over five million houses, many aid agencies introduced supposedly 'flood-resistant' designs, but the outreach of such programmes was limited, many of the designs were untested, and in any case strengthened housing was far too expensive for poor people to afford. Official and NGO interest in the subject gradually cooled over the following years as the difficulties ofimplementing large-scale, sustainable shelter programmes becameapparent. By the time of the 1998 floods, 'flood-resistant' housing had all but disappeared fromthe agenda, and there was a new emphasis on micro-credit and other non-structural forms of livelihood support.

Official responses to the Gujarat earthquake of January 2001 also appear to have recognised the limitations of earlier, conventional approaches to housing reconstruction. Here a more owner-driven approach has been encouraged, with government providing resources (financial compensation and subsidised building materials) but leaving householders to undertake their own rebuilding, with the help of NGOs who give technical support in safe construction practices. This is arguably the first example of an owner-driven approach on a large scale, although it does not overcome the age-old

problemof wealthier groups' capture of aid resources, and in practice it has not ensured that rebuilt houses are more earthquake-resistant than those that collapsed.

Mindful of the fact that rural Gujarat was already suffering badly fromlong-termdrought and subsequent poverty, a local NGO, the Disaster Mitigation Institute, has introduced an approach in 30 villages that places post-earthquake reconstruction within a broader package of measures to restore livelihood and water security. Based on community action planning for vulnerability reduction, the project emphasised local capacity building (through provision of technical advice and training in building, agricultural practices and rainwater harvesting, and dissemination of information).

Communities also received financial support through a specially created livelihood relief fund. Levels of participation and satisfaction were high in the short term, but inevitably have created greater demand for follow-up work to address the district's major water and livelihood security problems.

All of these approaches appear valuable. All merit further development and evaluation. However, we should not forgetthat housing provision is a complex and difficult problem, particularly in the chaos and suffering that follow disasters.

1.6.1 Livelihood Reconstruction

Restoring the livelihoods of people displaced by disasters involves a dual challenge: re-establishing the means for making a living while adapting to a new environment. The more severe the impact of a disaster, the longer it takes for people to subsequently rebuild their lives. Access to livelihoods and employment are among the core criteria used to determine the extent to which durable solutions have been achieved, through return to the place of origin, local integration at the place of evacuation or resettlement in a different location (Inter Agency Standing Committee 2010, 34). In the longer term, however, the ability of displaced people to achieve social integration becomes an important indicator of their wellbeing in these environments.

Livelihood strategies are not formed in a vacuum — they are shaped by the social, economic and political contexts in which people live. Restoration of livelihoods should therefore be understood in relation to people's ability to rebuild their lives as full

members of their communities. For people displaced by disasters, restoring livelihoods and rebuilding lives requires achieving some degree of stability under uncertain circumstances. In the response-to-recovery transition, the termination of relief measures introduced soon after the disaster, without providing alternative measures, risks exacerbating these uncertainties.

1.6.2 Livehood Restroration Programme in Odisha

The Cyclone that ravaged Odisha twice in October 1999, affected 14 most economically prosperous districts of the state. The estimated maximum wind speed reached 260-270 kmph in the core area which produced a huge storm surge that led to sea-level elevation of more than 20 feet and took away valuable lives of nearly 10,000 people. nearly 90 percent of the mud and thatch dwellings were decimated and over 6 million marginal and small farmers, landless agricultural workers, fishing folk artisans were rendered jobless; without any livelihood for at least for six months to a year .The inundatation by saline water , with tidal waves rising up to 15 meters at many places , left most of the drinking water sources polluted, contaminated dysfunctional for months. About 350,000 cattle perished and the paddy crops worth Rs 1750 crore spread over 24lakh hectors, were destroyed in the wake of gales with speed between 250-350 kmph caused by cyclone .Thousands of villages in the worst affected districts remained marooned for over two weeks .

The endless wait and the woefully inadequate distribution of relief proved fatal for some of the most vulnerable survivor ,who letter died of starvation .The desperation elsewhere took an ugly turn and many instances of food riots were in the press . Governments food godowns and relief supplies of NGOs UN Agencies , donors and government officials met to coordinate emergency relief and rehabilitation work . The group which had gained some experience disasters in Bangladesh, Andhra Pradesh ,West Bengal agreed upon some common principles of collaborative rehabilitation , which include right Based Approach , consultation communities and Authorities ,

transparency and Accountability , use local skills and resources, knowledge and coverage of the most vulnerable first.

In order to ensure coordination at the state level , three sub groups were convened by the government; non government facilitator were set up to coordinate rehabilitation under the categories of livelihood , habitat and infrastructure . Oxfam supported by the European Union lunched a 'livelihoods and Employment Restoration Programme ' aimed to restore and protect the nutritional status of identified vulnerable groups. The programme involved targeting of 15,000 vulnerable households that were to be provided food for four months, integrating it with the distribution of winter vegetables, seeds and tools, family survival kits and 10,000 blankets. Provision of fishing nets to 1000 fishing families ,and set of tools and materials of artisans families completed this holistic approach towards improving the long term security of scheduled caste and tribal families , the elderly ,sick, disabled female headed households, landless laborers , small farmers and children targeted within this categories .

The Programme intended to achive a number of additional objectives ;

i) Preservation of the traditional livelihoods of the affected population through the provision of food/ cash for work
ii) Facilitation of the work of the community based rehabilitation and restoration activities , such as the construction of community halls and reclamation of agricultural land ; and
iii) Provision of a model food for work programme that is capable of reaching out to the most of vulnerable and marginalized, so that other larger scale programmes could themselves integrate the vulnerability and equity perspective into their functioning.

Food for livelihood programme aim to provide some temporary work and nutritional income to families . Rebuilding live and reconstructing Odisha will take decades. One important factor for that both the European Union and the Oxfam supported the livelihood restoration , however remain committed to addressing in the longer term is the need for a systematic and comprehensive national and state level disaster preparedness , management and mitigation

strategies . Thus, the programme has facilitated local communities in improving their socio-economic status through rising incomes and creating agriculture based income generation . Moreover, the traditional livelihoods have been restored to the local communities while community participation in rehabilitation of Cyclone affected people has been ensured through implementation of the said programme in the state.

1.7 Sum up of the Disaster Recovery / Conclusion

Thus, we can say that disaster recovery planning is a comprehensive exercise ,which needs to bring under its preview both short term and long term psychological and psychological requirements of the victims. The need of the disaster affected communities vary from stage to stage in a long drawn. Both Government and NGO plays pivotal role in the Disaster Recovery . The NGO networking and CBO's initiatives will go a long way in managing disaster Recovery process . The mostimportant aspect requiring attention is the issue of coordinated response .Government Agencies ,NGOs. CBOs, Academic & Research Organization, Private Organization, all have different but mutually complementary role to play. However , there is a need for standardization of relief activities so that the beneficiaries are able to get uniform and fair assistance .

This can be best assured by establisheshment of standards and networking of Organizations. In recent years, several efforts have been made to network recovery related organizations, particularly in the NGO sectors. A lot would be depend on the involvement of skilled and aware communities in disaster recovery initiatives. This unit examined some of these crucial issues through Case studies .Few success stories that the unit discussed need to be replicated at other places in order to reap the benefits of innovative thinking , collective initiative and strong zeal for Disaster Recovery Process .

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1.9.Self Assessment Questions and Further Reading

1. Examine the Relationship between Disaster Recovery and Development in Post Disaster Scenario?

2. Role of Government Organization and NGO role in Disaster Recovery process .

3. Explain the concept of Sustainable livelihood framework .

4. Write short notes on the following in 200 words each ?
   (a) Livelihood initiatives in Gujarat after 2001 earthquake.
   (b) Damage to housing during cyclone

5. To successfully manage the disaster aftermath and restore normalcy , a good recovery Plan Needs to be in place . Comment

6. Analyse the role of the media in disaster Recovery and Management explain?

7. Role and Community approach in Disaster Recovery and Rehabilitation.

UNIT-2 SPEEDY RECOVERY

Unit Structure

2.1 Introduction

Speedy Recovery is a process which many stake holders plays pivotal role in Disaster Risk Reduction and Recovery effectively. For the Recovery programme Environmental management can make to the theory and practice of emergency management from preparedness and response through recovery and reconstruction. It explores theconceptof "disaster" in the contexts of both environmental management and emergency management, and it addresses the significance of environmental degradation as both a contributing factor in disaster effects and an important criterion in setting priorities for long-term reconstruction. The disaster affected areas take a very long time to return to normalcy. There is a lot that needs to be done beyond rescue, relief and rehabilitation. A disaster management policy must entail a recovery with safe development that means a long term livelihood generation and support strategy for effective employment creation. In other language we can say such recovery must satisfied with a creation of long term job opportunity for affected public.

Unlike the response function, where all efforts have a singular focus, the Speedy recovery function or process is characterized by a complex set of issues and decisions that must be made by individuals and communities. Speedy Recovery involves decisions and actions relative to rebuilding homes, replacing property, resuming employment, restoring businesses, and permanently repairing and rebuilding infrastructure. The recovery process requires balancing the more immediate need to return the community to normalcy with the longer-term goal of reducing future vulnerability. . . . Because the recovery function has such long-lasting effects and usually high costs, the participants in the process are numerous. They include all levels of government, the business community, political leadership, community activists, and individuals. Each of these groups plays a role in determining how the recovery will progress. (Haddow 2008)

2.2 Objective of the Study

This Unit highlights the concept of Speedy Recovery processes, role of Government and non government agencies in speedy recovery .After reading this unit reader will get clear picture on speedy recovery process, creation of Job Opportunities andConcept Speedy Recovery Linking Recovery with safe development , creation of Long-term job opportunities based on speedy recovery programme . This units it is also discusses functions of livelihood approach and reconstruction , livelihood restoration measures in Speedy Recovery processes .As the emergency is brought under control, the affected population is capable of undertaking a growing number of activities aimed at restoring their lives and the infrastructure that supports them.

‘Mainstreaming Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR) and blending with Speedy Recovery ’ is integral to disaster-development interface. It isa process that fully incorporates the concerns of disaster preparedness, prevention and mitigationinto development and post-disaster recovery policy, as well as practice. It means completelyinstitutionalizing DRR within the development and recovery agenda. Accordingly, a few broad objectivesof mainstreaming DRR into development include: ongoing schemes and projects of the Ministries andDepartments of Government of India and State Governments, as well as of all government agenciesand institutions, including Public Sector Undertakings, which will be selectively audited by designatedgovernment agencies for ensuring that they have addressed the disaster risk and vulnerability profilesof the local areas, where such schemes and activities are being undertaken.

2.3 Concept Speedy Recovery

Recovery describes the activities that encompass the three overlapping phases of emergency relief, rehabilitation and reconstruction.The recovery process should be used as anopportunity to enhance safety standards and integrate risk reduction in reconstruction and development, so as to avoid rebuilding risk. Measures to ensure this include:

- Ensuring that all recovery proposals are supported by multi-hazard risk assessments and that appropriate measures to manage and reduce risks are included.
- Ensuring that appropriate information about disaster risk is available and is taken into consideration in the decision making process.
- Establish criteria on acceptable levels of risk.
- Reinforcing disaster management capacities at local provincial and national level in areas such as:

a) local level capacity building and training for disaster risk management, including the formulation of disaster preparedness plans and strengthening capacities at the municipal level

b) the development of early warning capacities, particularly at local level integrated with national and regional level flood monitoring.

c) training and human resource development in disaster risk management at local level

d) building capacities for the formulation of risk maps

The practice of designing a recovery framework as early as possible following the disaster has proved successful in major recovery operations. The recovery framework is a strategic tool that identifies and prioritises programming needs based on a thorough assessment of damages, needs and capacities. It provides strategic guidance and facilitates the coordination of a large number of initiatives and the participation of multiple stakeholders.

The overall objectives of a recovery framework are:

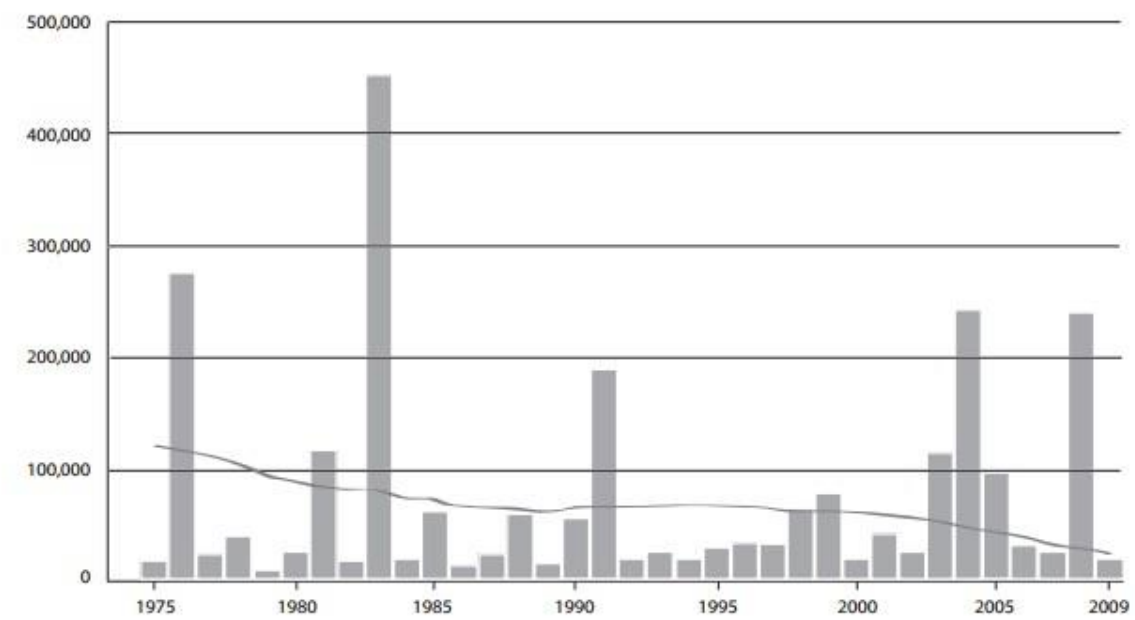
i) to organise the country's response and approach

ii) to review and stock-take regarding the recovery needs to get the community/country back on track towards sustainable development;

iii) to secure wide support, including financial and technical resources;

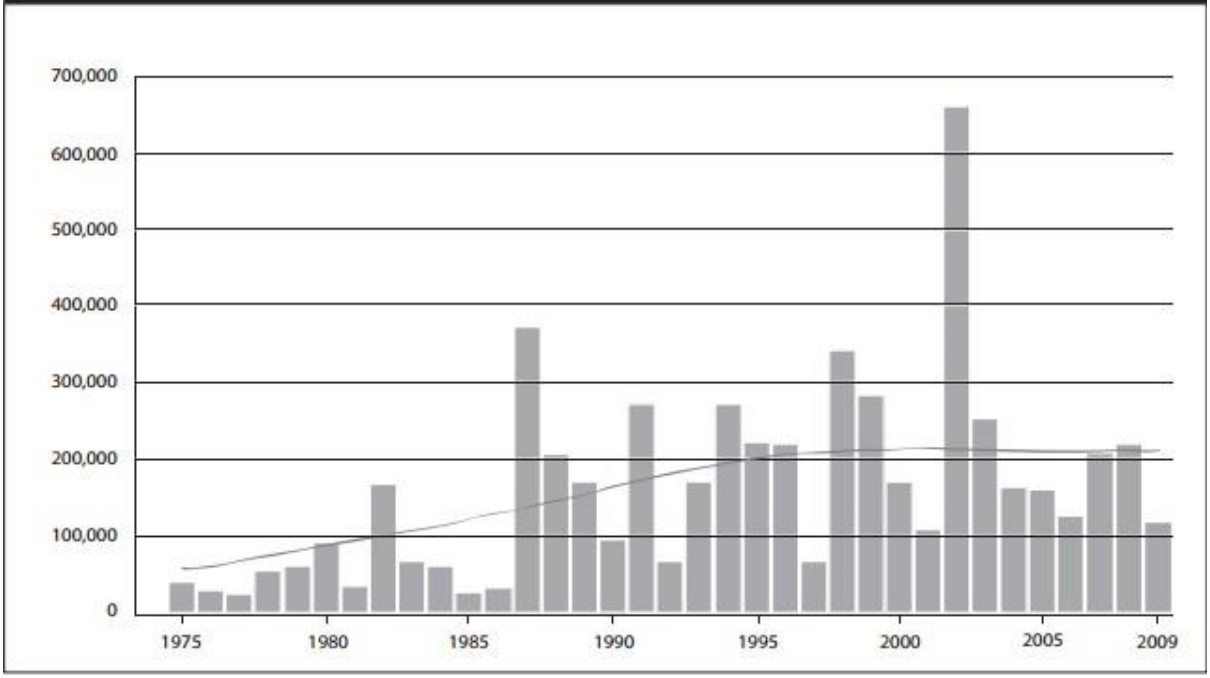
iv) to develop a partnership strategy with participation of multiple stakeholders, including the affected communities

Figure 1. Number of People Reported Killed by Natural Disasters, 1975-2009



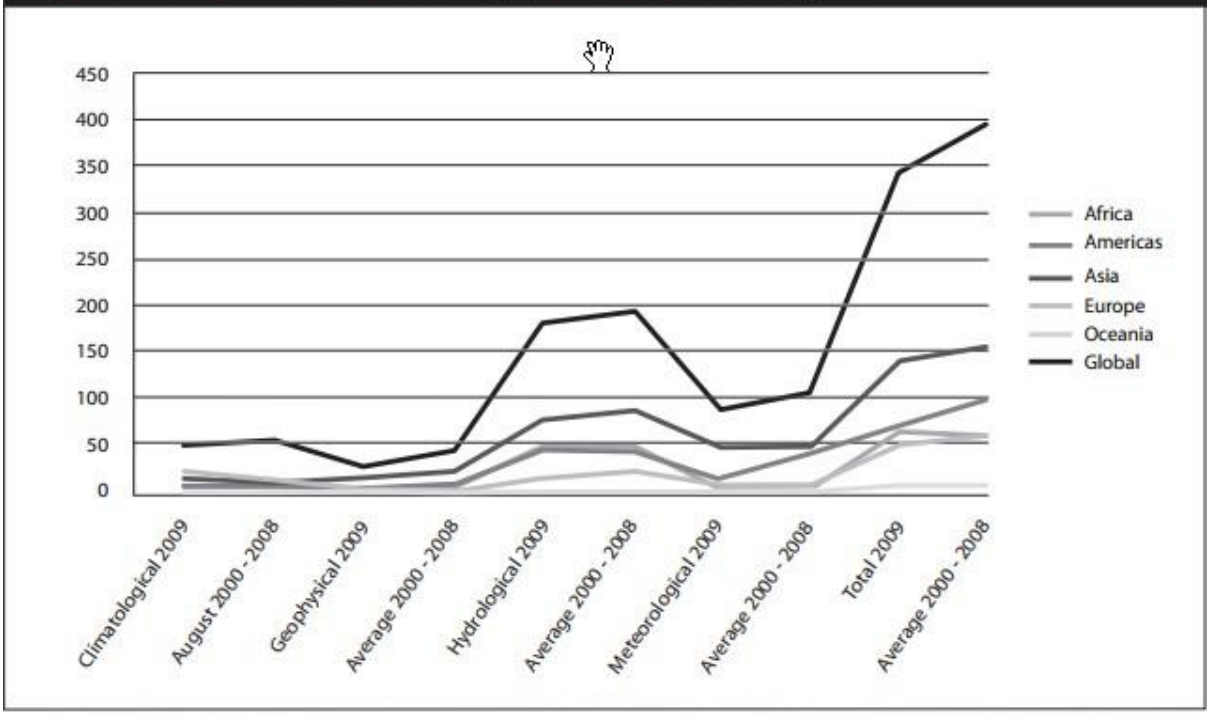
Source: EM-DAT, 2010

Figure 2. Number of People Reportedly Affected by Natural Disasters, 1975-2009 (Millions)



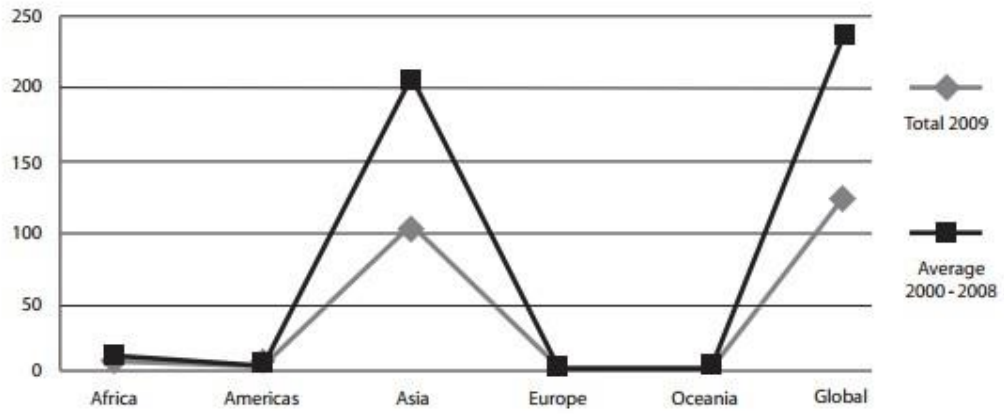
Source: EM-DAT, 2010

Figure 3. Number of Disaster Events, by Type of Disaster and Region



Source: EM-DAT, 2010 [4]

Figure 4. Number of People Killed or Affected by Natural Disasters, by Region (Millions)



Source: EM-DAT, 2010 [5]

The recovery strategy must be framed in a concrete period of time and contain strategic and precise actions in the larger framework of sustainable human development.

Recovery criteria should be developed on the basis of the general hazard profile of the affected communities and not only on extreme events, climatic or otherwise.

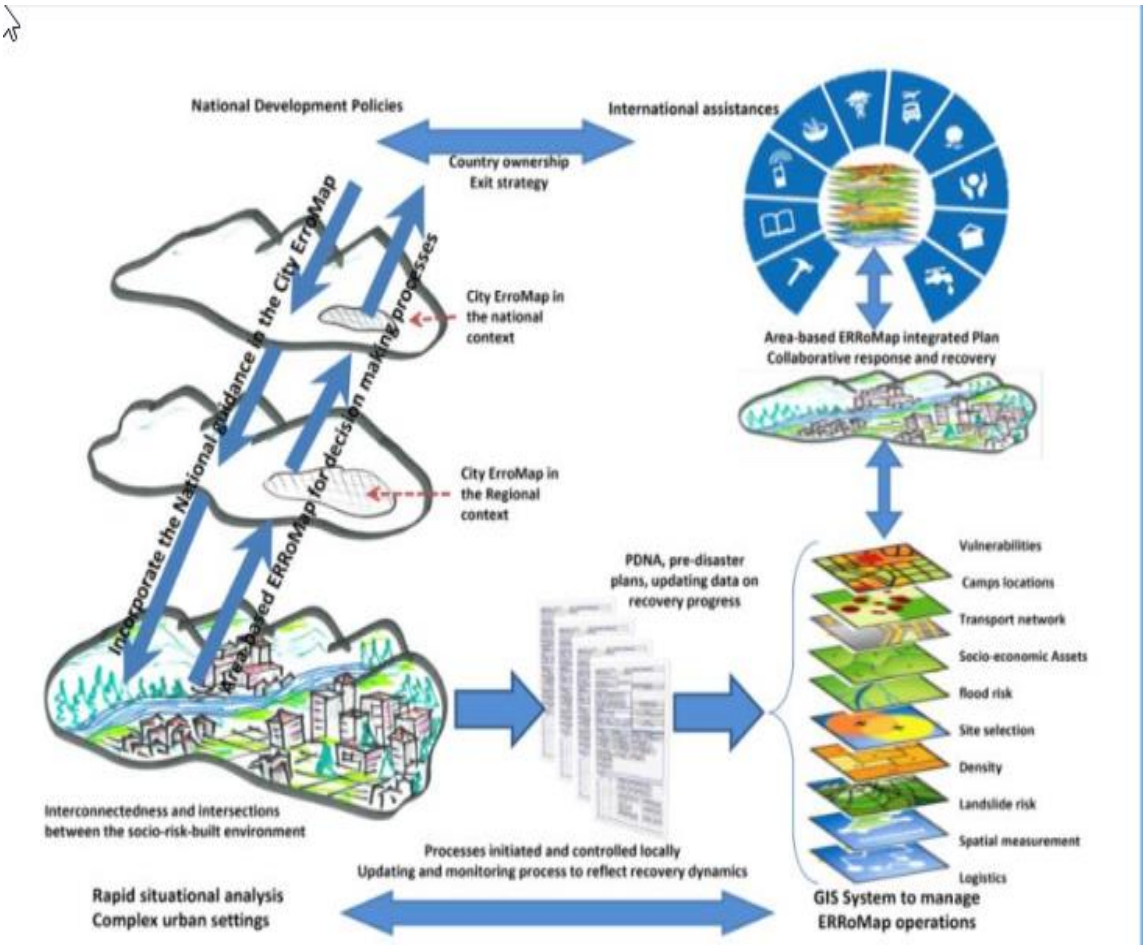
Speedy recovery is possible through the application of development principles in a humanitarian setting. These principles include: national ownership, capacity utilization and support, and people's participation. It is the interface at which humanitarian and development partners coexist and interact, thus allowing for the early initiation of recovery planning and key programming, thereby minimizing the gap between the end of relief and the onset of long-term recovery.

Disaster recovery is a phase in the emergency management cycle that frequently overlaps with the emergencyresponse. Itsgoalis to restore normal community activities that were disrupted by disaster impacts througha process involving both activities that were plannedbefore disaster impact and those that were improvisedafter disaster impact. Disaster recovery is most rapidlyand effectively achieved when communities engage ina pre-impact planning process that addresses the majorrecovery functions and incorporates hazard mitigationand hazard insurance into a recovery operations plan.

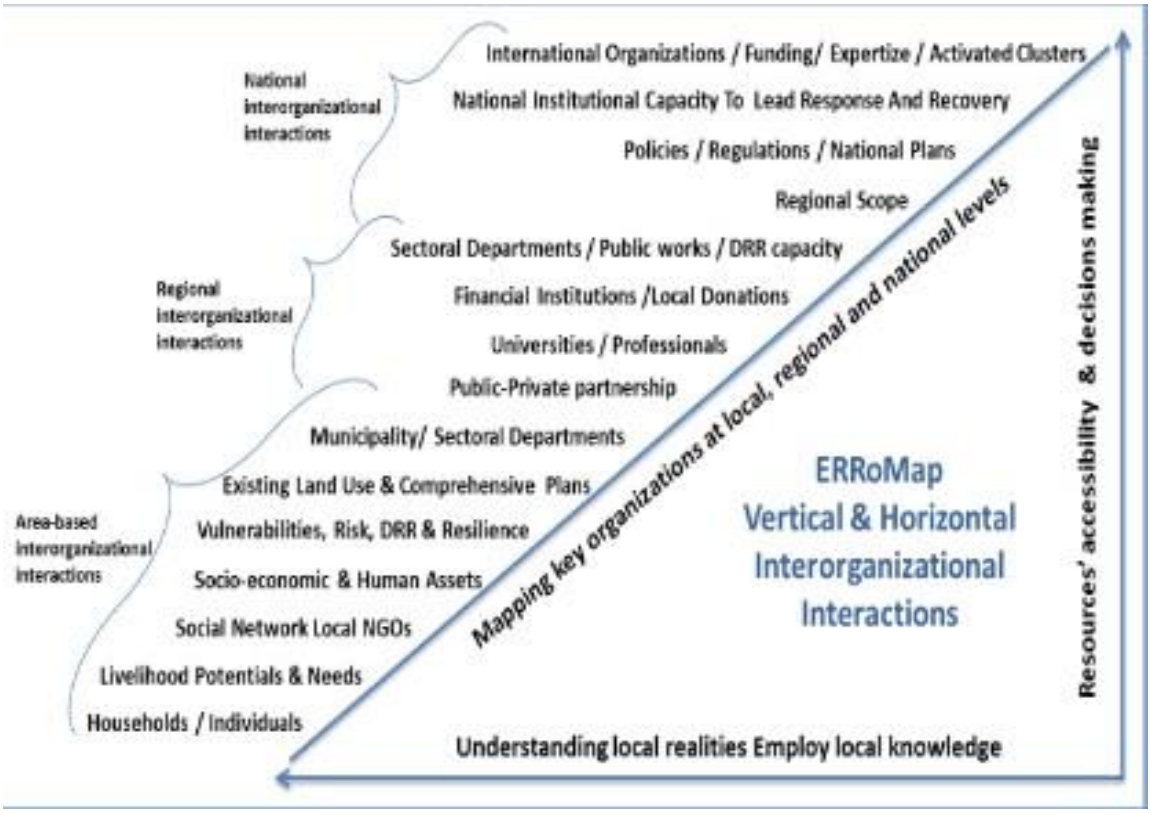
General Findings	Major Gaps
A **common holistic understanding of ER** objectives	Evaluations of ER approach suggest attributable **weaknesses lie in execution rather than concept**
Cluster Approach has introduced a degree of systematic progress in the coordination of humanitarian responses.	Coordination is **complex**, utilizes an ad-hoc basis, and is **poorly described** **Insufficient strategic focus** **Deficiency in monitoring** and evaluation Lack of coordination with the country system's weakened capacity Undermining of sustainability Accountability to HCs remains minimal Lack of exit strategies Participation of national or local NGOs in clusters remains marginal Integration of cross-cutting issues still minimal Funding and cluster relationships created conflicts of interest
Type of disaster: **natural disaster or war/conflict**	Type of disaster still is a **major challenge** to determine ER focus, coordination mechanism, building local capacity and exit strategy
Organizations recognizes **ER financing gaps**	No formal **interagency** mechanisms for **mobilizing resources for ER**.
All actors in ER activities are in agreement that **ER should be nationally owned**	Decision making process of ER done at **global level** in relation to initiation and planning of humanitarian assistance and early recovery without local input.
Organizations have recognized the **complexity of the humanitarian response in an urban environment**	Urban planning discussed in relation to its **physical aspects** Little attention on the role of planning as coordinating mechanism
Exit strategy	Lack of focus on **national capacity** impacts the timing of ER de-activation

ERRoMap plan should be an effective instrument to acknowledge both the problems andthe opportunities for improvement that the disaster has caused. ERRoMap is an area-based comprehensive plan that integrate the knowledge obtained from urban dynamics of an affected area to fully describe and illustrate visually –using urban planning techniques –the interconnectedness between the physical and institutional aspects of the built environment, the existed risk and people in order to identify the most vital areas for interventions that have cumulative effects on the typeand speed of recovery.

Levels of Function and linkage between local, regional and national inputs when making ERRoMap



The ERRoMap process is area-based but is consistent with overall national policies and recovery goals. The process of making ERRoMap should be designed to ensure both verticaland horizontalinter-organizational collaborations, in order to support exit strategy of the international humanitarian organizations.



The vertical inter-organizational interactions, is required to provide reliable information for decision makers to increase ability to access resources. The horizontalinter-organizational interactions are aimed to bring about collaboration with key organizations operating in the affected area and key stakeholders from the society, and to implement the programs and projects necessary to speed recovery.

Mapping the existing organizational and institutional structure, their capacity and at what level they function; should be done from the onset of crisis. The investigation shouldidentify the existing technical capacity, the core functions of institutions and their roles and responsibilities in relation to core recovery areas.

ERRoMap is not only about technical solutions to address the post-disaster response and early recovery problems, but it is also about a process that is built up from the particular institutional interrelationships of a place. The interconnectedness of the diverse aspects of disaster impacts in urban settings necessitates a collective decision making processes to develop a comprehensive approach to early recovery operations –to be visualized in a physical plan using GIS techniques to facilitate collaboration

(Fel!Hittarintereferenskälla.) –and maximize the efficiency of aid delivery. In this regard, the collaborative urban planning will provide the conditions for humanitarian and development actors to participate and work together on the same task rather than in parallel on separate segments of the task. Collaboration therefore reinforces social learning and builds the capacity to achieve more, even where difficult issues are concerned. In practice, the term 'collaboration' is often applied interchangeably with 'cooperation' and 'coordination'. The multi-organizational, intergovernmental, and inter-sectoral interactions process will not necessarily lead always to collaboration, but it may well manifest different levels of cooperation or coordination according to the need of each stage of planning and implementation.

2.4 Linking Recovery with safe development

Recovery refers to the restoration, and improvement, where appropriate, of facilities should be provided for livelihoods and living conditions of disaster-affected communities, including efforts to reduce disaster risk factors.

Capacity to recover is not only dependent on the extent of a physicalimpact, but also on the extent to which society has been affected,including the ability to resume livelihood activities (Hutton and Haque,2003). This capacity is driven by numerous factors, including mental andphysical ability to recover, financial and environmental viability, andpolitical will. Because reconstruction processes often do not takepeople's livelihoods into account, instead focusing on their safety, newsettlements are often located where people do not want to be, whichbrings change – but not necessarily change that leads to sustainabledevelopment. Innumerable examples indicate how people who have beenresettled return back to their original location, moving into dilapidatedhouses or setting up new housing, even if more solid housing isavailable elsewhere (e.g., El Salvador after Hurricane Mitch), simplybecause the new location does not allow them easy access to theirfields, to markets or roads, or to the sea (e.g., South and Southeast Asiaafter the 2004 tsunami).

Recovering to return to the conditions before a natural hazard occursnot only implies that the risk may be the same or greater, but also doesnot question whether the previous

conditions were desirable. In fact,recovery processes are often out of sync with the evolving process ofdevelopment. The recovery and reconstruction phases after a disasterprovide an opportunity to rethink previous conditions and address theroot causes of risk, looking to avoid reconstructing the vulnerability(IDB, 2007), but often the process is too rushed to enable effectivereflection, discussion, and consensus building (Christoplos, 2006).Pushing the recovery toward transformation and change requires takinga new approach rather than returning to 'normalcy.' Several exampleshave shown that capacity to recover is severely limited by poverty(Chambers, 1983; Ingham, 1993; Hutton and Haque, 2003), wherepeople are driven further down the poverty spiral, never returning totheir previous conditions, however undesirable.

Emphasis will belaid onpluggingthe gapsinthe socialandeconomicinfrastructureand infirmitiesinthebackwardandforwardlinkages.Effortswillbemadetosupportandenhancethev iabilityoflivelihoodsystems,education,healthcare facilities,care oftheelderly,womenandchildren, etc.Otheraspectswarranting attentionwill beroads,housing, drinking water sources,provisionfor sanitaryfacilities,availability ofcredit,supplyofagricultural inputs, upgradationof technologies in the on-farm and off-farmactivities,storage,processing,marketing,etc.

In disaster riskreduction the terms resilience building and the lack of resilience haveachieved a high recognition. These terms are linked to capacities ofcommunities or societies to deal with the impact of a hazard eventor crises and the ability to learn and create resilience through theseexperiences.

Natural disasters have a disproportionate impact on the poor in developing countries, and the risks are strongly associated with poverty. In countries with medium to low levels of income and weaker governance, disasters can compound existing problems of poverty and inequality and reverse development gains. Achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) is challenged in many countries by losses from disasters triggered by natural hazards. The enormous consequences of disasters for human development, poverty reduction andeconomic growth necessitate effective management of disaster risk as an integral part of development planning. Government mechanisms and systems to respond to disasters are critical, particularly in restoring basic services. Similarly, in

disaster-affected countries, an integrated approach during recovery and reconstruction can be a way to reduce future risk. The role of climate change in natural disasters is increasingly acknowledged, and reducing interrelated vulnerabilities is assuming ever greater significance.Besides short-term effects such as direct economic losses, disasters affect long-term human develop-ment and human security. There is considerable evidence suggesting that the impact of disasters on national economies adversely affects social investments, particularly in the areas of health, education, employment and income-generation. Disaster risk reduction and sustainable human development therefore are mutually supportive goals. Reducing disaster risks can make a critical difference to highly vulnerable populations, such as those living in disaster-prone regions, in small island developing states, and in societies weakened by armed conflict.

Post-disaster recovery planning is defined as developing a set of strategies to assist a community in rebuilding after a disaster occurs.Recovery planning can also be thought of as building the blueprint for reconstruction of the community after a disaster. There are a number of activities that communities can engage in to address post-disaster recovery. These strategies may include developing and implementing:

- ⇨ Post disaster recovery plans,
- ⇨ Recovery Ordinances,
- ⇨ Business and Government continuity plans.
- ⇨ Post disaster buildable lands inventories.
- ⇨ Utility recovery and reconstruction plans and development

In disaster management, the international community hashistorically focused uponimmediate humanitarian disaster relief efforts. Notwithstanding the goodwill andhumanitarian intentions of the international organizations and donor agencies, it appears that their starting point is mainly focused on narrowly defined post-disaster aid programs with a ‘quick delivery -high impact’ aim, rather than being predicated on any coherent vision for an early recovery program that builds local capacity and facilitates inter-organizational coordination that is well integrated with a country’s/community’s

long term economic and societal development. When disaster has already occurred, the post-disaster response should aim to ensure that recovery assistance prevents reproduction of pre-existing vulnerabilities and risks and contributes to long-term development. While comprehensive, participatory, and collaborative planning models and tools provide an effective means to guide early recovery interventions and reconstruction they are often underutilized in the post disaster response operations and early recovery phase.

Due to the increasing number of disasters in urban settings, humanitarian actors are challenging new modalities for addressing the complexity of humanitarian response and recovery. In Practice, the problem of bridging between humanitarian operations and sustainable recovery has been recognized by International Organizations for a long time.

The EU introduced the concept of "linking relief, rehabilitation and development" or LRRD.

UNDP introduced the concept of Early Recovery and the Cluster Approach to overcome this problem as an attempt to bridge the gap between humanitarian disaster relief and long term sustainable development. Some argue, in spite of the efforts made so far, this has created more debate and less practical impact; though it has gained momentum it has also stimulated contradictory views and its added value is yet to be consistently proven. In practice, the purpose of early recovery remains unclear as there is no general consensus on its practical meaning and contents and is still subject to different interpretations by humanitarian responders, development actors, donors and the developing countries themselves.

Rapid urbanization and poorly managed urban development are among the many contributing factors to the scale and complexity of disaster impacts. Post-disaster response and early recovery interventions in urban settings are 'wicked problems'in nature; their physical symptoms are merely the consequence of complex issues in which the solutions to address them cannot be found through linear processes and go beyond the scope of a single discipline. Urban, post-disaster response and recovery operations in particular are in large measure about cityreorganization so thatits multifaceted and interconnected layers to function more effectively. The point of departure considered in

this project is the relevance of urban planning due to its capacity to incorporate interdisciplinary knowledge in order to deal with the complex aspects of city development. Urban planning has well-established means to interplay with disaster risk reduction, preparedness and resilience. Therefore, it is worth investigating in practical ways to bridge urban planning knowledge into the humanitarian response so as to increase assistance efficiencies, strengthen early recovery interventions and contribute to sustainable development.

The experience in Tacloban demonstrates a number of challenges that face planners when undertaking planning in a post-disaster environment:

–Planning must happen quickly; it should be 'compressed in time'.

–Aims of planning should be introduced to and be informed by the interests of the various actors to ensure their contribution to its process.

–Planning process should motivate and bring in diverse urban stakeholders: citizens, international organizations, international and local NGOs, government, donors, private sector, universities and other relevant institutions.

–Understand the institutional and political settings in a new context.

–Geography-based and grounded on a good mapping of socio-economic gaps, opportunities of the place and good understanding of interconnectedness between the complex features of the urban area.

–Communicate the big picture, but focus on priority issues to maximize the efficiency and make better use of the humanitarian organizations' inputs in the context of the bigpicture.

–Emphasise the opportunities that the disaster may create.

–Understand the vulnerabilities before the disaster to avoid reproduction of risks.

–Assess available resources and ensure their efficient use.

–Mobilize community to deal with people as survivors not as victims.

–Make use of local assets and intellectual capacity such as universities, local business community, professionals.

–Be ready to coordinate ad-hoc inputs.

–Develop skills to build collaboration and networking despite chaos.

–Advocatethe rights of affected people, to counter the bias of planners to work for the authorities, decision makers and politicians. Planners should be supported to defend their ethical role and be innovative to develop win-win strategies.

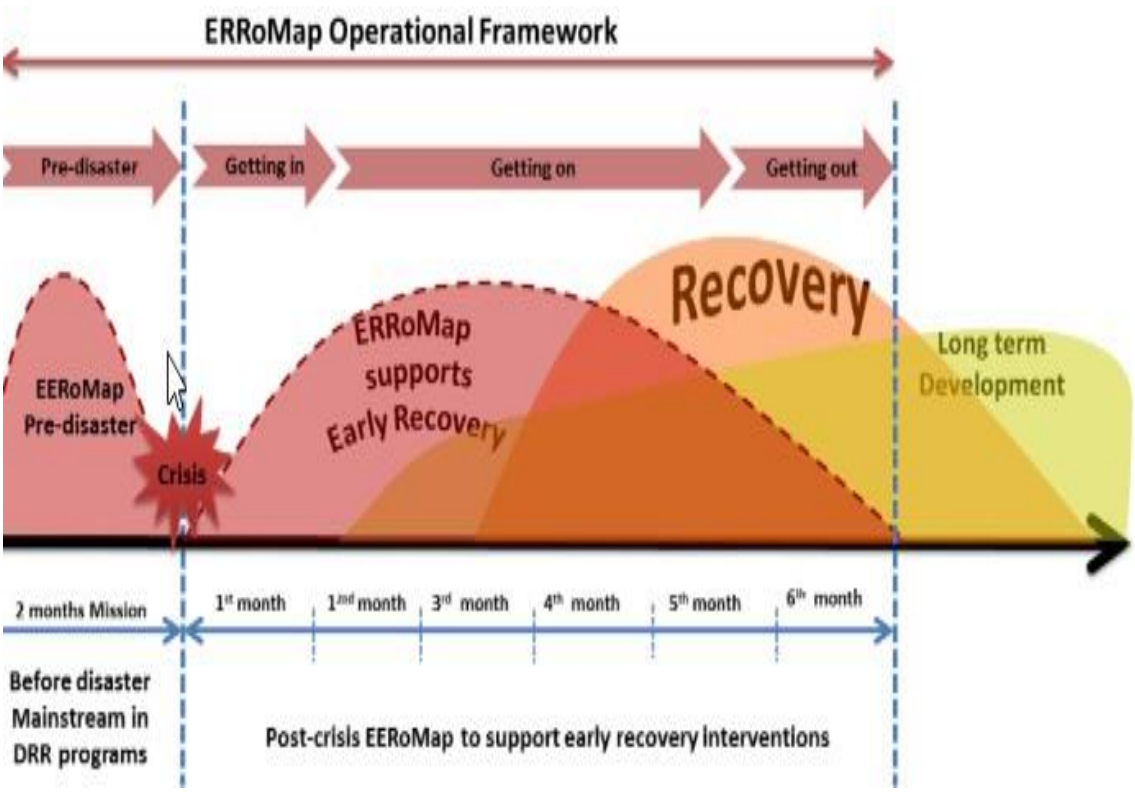
Early Recovery Road Map into Practice:

ERRoMap is an operational framework for linking relief with recovery and development. The operational framework of ERRoMap is built up of three main working components: time-sensitive, integrated and area-based planningto identify vital areas for early recovery;

inter-organizational interaction; and leadershipof collaborative type. It is guided by five core principles: collaborative, dynamic, inclusiveness, accountabilityand should be applied at both, pre-and post-disaster. The cost arising from this additional activity should be covered from the budget allocated to support planning for humanitarian and recovery operations, which usually exist in the humanitarian funding mechanisms.

Developed during both, Pre-and Post-disaster:

The ability of a city or town to increase its recovery performance as regards both time and quality lies in its pre-disaster preparedness, resilience and its built recovery capacity. A preparation of ERRoMap, especially in disaster-prone areas, is best begun with pre-disaster preparedness. Pre-disaster ERRoMap includes creating a framework for early recovery operations and coordination mechanisms, stakeholder's roles and responsibilities; actions to mitigate and reduce disaster impacts through resilience building practices; and identifying/creating locally generated tools and socio-economic and human capital that will serve to support disaster mitigation and the early recovery efforts.



ERRoMap is a process-driven and knowledge-based mission with a well-defined aim, role and output. MSB can build on its competences to fill a very significant gap, which is linking relief with recovery within the Humanitarian Program Cycle developed by IASC. In this context,the proposedmodality of MSB to support ERRoMap is from SPPO: Strategy, Proactive, Preparedness and Operational perspectives, which are summarized in Fel! Hittarintereferenskälla.

The main challenges in early recovery efforts as international aid actors try to link relief to development. The brief begins with a general discussion of early recovery that examines the main background concepts of early recovery, the importance that international aid actors place on early recovery as an approach to linking relief to development, and the related challenges.

ISSUES IN LINKING RELIEF AND DEVELOPM ENT:

The scope for interventions which link relief and development obviously varies from one country or region type to another and it is dangerous to generalize across them. Where state capacity is weak and commitment to poverty reduction low (in the absence of war),

the range of strategies for linking relief and development is likely to be limited to those of NGOs. As state capacity strengthens, however, government programmes become feasible. Whether they are implemented or not depends partly upon whether a commitment to poverty reduction can be sustained. Similarly, the scope for linking relief and development will depend on the main character of food insecurity: it may be a lower priority (but paradoxically easier to achieve) where the prevalence of food insecurity is low and shocks infrequent.

What needs to be done in each situation will depend on the type of emergency. An accepted classification of emergencies by WFP has been to distinguish sudden natural calamities, man - made disasters, and slowly- maturing crises of food availability caused by crop failure or drought (see also Hay 1986). This classification appears to leave out the 'extended', 'continuing' or 'permanent' emergency (Clay and Singer 1985: 58ff), which is really an extension of the slowly- maturing crisis, but should be seen as 'a symptom of wider agricultural and food sector problems that require broad, radical food policy measures' (Clay and Singer ibid.). It also understates the complexity of man -made disasters, which are usually associated with protracted political crises, and, as Duffield points out, 'have a singular ability to erode or destroy the cultural, civil, political and economic integrity of established societies'.

Merging these ideas into the original list gives four different emergency types:

i Rapid onset emergencies, triggered by natural disasters, such as earthquakes and floods. The crisis is usually temporary.

ii Slow onset emergencies, triggered by natural disaster s, such as drought and pest attacks.

Compared with (i) above, the emergency develops more slowly, for example as a result of crop failure or livestock losses, and has a limited life- span. Drought emergencies in Botswana, Zambia and Zimbabwe fall into this category. This kind has been most extensively studied and is best understood.

iii 'Permanent emergencies', where there is a very large problem of structural poverty and a need for more or less permanent welfare. Natural disasters like drought may of course exacerbate this kind of 'permanent crisis'. Many parts of Ethiopia fall into this category,

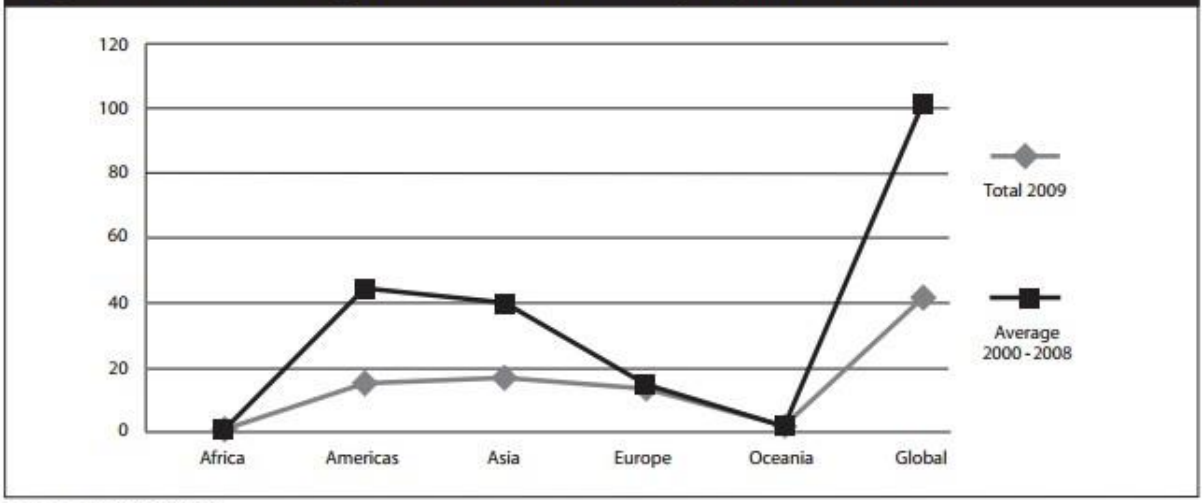
as well as parts of Northern Sudan. Food relief is now provided on a more or less constant basis.

iv Complex political emergencies associated with internal war, such as southern Sudan, Somalia, Liberia and Rwanda. Mozambique and Ethiopia are emerging from this kind of emergency.

For the drought- related, slow - onset emergencies, the issues in linking relief and development are most straightforward, albeit hard to put into practice. It is essentially a question of 'better' development, more sensitive to shocks, and 'better' relief, more developmentally oriented, as described in the above two sections. In the third category of the 'permanent emergency', relief is usually driving the agenda. The dilemma is whether to recognize explicitly the need for some kind of permanent welfare system (where funding may be a problem), or to carry on in relief mode, trying to fulfil certain development objectives at the same t ime. The fourth category of war - related emergencies opens up a very different set of issues.

In all these cases, the first priority in discussing relief - development linkages must be to assure basic relief, so that human life is protected (Maxwell and Lirenso). This must take precedence over any sophisticated attempt to use relief for development purposes; and also over development expenditures, even those designed to reduce vulnerability.

Figure 5. Economic Damage from Natural Disasters, by Region (US$ Billions)



Source: EM-DAT, 2010 [10]

The issue of linking relief to development has preoccupied the international community for some time. In 2005, the United Nations (UN) General Assembly and the UN Security Council requested the Secretary-General to report on the issue of transition from relief to development, with the aim of improving the international community's efforts to better respond to transition situations.

The Secretary-General's report identified three main challenges — national ownership, coordination, and financing — in linking relief to development. In the same year, the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC) created a Cluster Working Group on Early Recovery (CWGER) against the general backdrop of the humanitarian reform process. The main objective of the CWGER is to strengthen the coordination of humanitarian relief and early recovery efforts and cover critical gaps.The CWGER is composed of 26 UN and non-UN active global partners from the humanitarian and development communities, with UNDP as the designated cluster lead.

In 2008, the Development Assistance Committee of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD/DAC) guided specific discussions on the effectiveness of aid in situations of fragility and conflict. The discussions include the Kinshasa Round Table 7 of the High-Level Forum on Aid Effectiveness (July 2008), which adopted the "Kinshasa Statement;" and the 3rdHigh-Level Forum on Aid Effectiveness in Accra (September 2008), which adopted the "Accra Agenda for Action." These discussions have led to the decision to establish a specific DAC Financing Working Group on 'Improving Delivery of International Assistance in Situations of Fragility and Conflict.' This can be seen as both one of the triggers and a consequence of important events/processes that are going to impact the way early recovery and recovery programs are designed and implemented.At the end of 2011, OECD/DAC Working Party on Aid Effectiveness again guided discussions at the 4thHigh Level Forum on Aid Effectiveness in Busan, Korea. The Busan forum followed meetings in Rome (2003), Paris (2005) and Accra (2008). The Forum culminated in the signing of the Busan Partnership for Effective Development Co-operation by ministers of developed and developing nations, emerging economies, providers of South-South and triangular co-operation and civil society, marking a critical turning point in development co-operation.

The Consolidated Appeal Process (CAP), which is the primary fundraising tool for humanitarian emergencies in the UN system, recognized the potential of early recovery programming in bringingcrises to an eventual close. The 2012 CAP guidelines indicate that early recovery programming is often under-emphasized in CAPs.

The same guidelines emphasize the identification and mainstreaming of early recovery support opportunities — and related needs and projects —within each CAP cluster as appropriate, in line with the responsibility placed upon all clusters by the IASC Working Group. Specific early recovery response plans will incorporate early recovery areas of intervention that would fall outside the clusters' scope of response, or could not be effectivelymainstreamed (e.g., governance, rule of law, non-agricultural livelihoods, land and property, reintegration, basic and community infrastructure, etc.) In other words, there may be no need to present a separate "early recovery" sector response plan, as each cluster would be pursuing early recovery within its scope.Despite the long period of the debate on early recovery, there is still considerable confusion about what early recovery entails. There are two commonly used definitions of early recovery (see box 2.1 below) that vary considerably in scope. The IASC definitionfocuses on the complementarity between humanitarian and development approaches, while the other definition, emphasized in a report by the New York University Center on International Cooperation (CIC),presents a broader scope for early recovery. The CIC report equally identified three major challenges or gaps – strategy, capacity, and funding - in implementing early recovery responses. In many ways, these gaps are related to the challenges identified by the Secretary-General's report.

Box 2.1: Commonly used definitions of early recovery

Early recovery as defined by the IASC: "Early recovery is a multidimensional process of recovery that begins in a humanitarian setting. It is guided by development principles that seek to build on humanitarian programs and to catalyze sustainable development opportunities. It aims to generate self sustaining, nationally owned, resilient processes for post-crisis recovery. It encompasses the restoration of basic services, livelihoods, shelter, governance, security and rule of law, environment and social dimensions including the reintegration of displaced populations."

Early recovery as described by CIC: The report describes early recovery as "early efforts to secure stability; establish peace; resuscitate markets, livelihoods and services and the state capacity to foster them; and build core state capacity to manage political, security and development processes."

Responding to crisis situations and promoting recovery involves a web of actors, objectives, and tools that cannot be separated into neat categories. Consider, for example, a series of aid activities that leads to the provision of emergency shelter kits to a community and assistance to repair the damaged roof of a school that now acts simultaneously as an evacuation centre and a school. Blue plastic was adequate for the first few days, but a timber-framed, corrugated-iron clad roof was soon installed. There were future plans for more secure wind- and weather-proof roofing. Is this relief, early recovery, or rehabilitation? There is no straight forward answer to this question. One might argue that the blue plastic is relief, the corrugated iron is early recovery, and the typhoon-proof roof is long-term recovery or rehabilitation. However, these activities would mean different things depending on whether the implementer is a Non-Governmental Organization (NGO) or government authorities, and whether the activities are targeted at an area in response to a specific need or because doing so might build confidence in the local government.Despite the difficulty in clearly defining early recovery and its constituent activities, there is clarity in the basic aims of early recovery, including ending conflict (stabilization), institutionalizing peace (peace-building), and enhancing state capacity and legitimacy (state-building).A well-managed transition often involves the simultaneous delivery of humanitarian assistance and fast-tracked recovery programs as national authorities develop the capacity to provide leadership that

consolidates peace dividends and helps to reduce vulnerability long-term reliance on relief, thus laying the foundations for sustainable development.

2.5 Creation of Long-term job opportunities

Poverty makes things worse for victims of natural disasters. Natural disasters in poorer countries have higher casualties than disasters of similar magnitude in wealthier countries. Therefore, Large-scale natural disasters can have long-lasting effects on the labour market in affected areas in addition to their humanitarian and economic cost. Mass evacuations and disruptions to housing, transport, social services and infrastructure can impede labour market participation. Firms may need to lay off workers, permanently or temporarily, as they deal with physical damage and loss of customers. Even if employment levels return to their pre-disaster levels, the mix of jobs and workers may have changed, so that skills shortages coexist with relatively high unemployment rates. Governments have an important role to play in helping prevent unnecessary job losses, providing income support and re-employment assistance to displaced workers while they find new jobs and creating the environment to encourage job creation as the recovery takes hold.

Therefore various policies are taken by government for long term job opportunity at disaster affected areas. Government facilitated bank loans with no interest or subsidised interest rate to the affected people to for the recovery of their income sources. Along with the non-governmental agencies also promote certain facilities for speedy recovery, i.e Self Help Groups in rural and remote areas by providing small amount loans to the community people. The govt. also promote Small scale Industries like coir industries, jute industries, match stick and instinct stick making industries, jute industries etc.

The Recovery/Mitigation Committee needs to form and should work with the community before and after a disaster to articulate a vision of community disaster recovery. The recovery process needs to strike a balance between corporate centred and community-based economic development. According to a corporate centred economic development, usually advocated by the local business community, government provides resources such as land and money to the private sector to invest without any restrictions. This market-based strategy tends to produce results that are good in aggregate but produces an inequitable recovery. By contrast,

community-based economic development involves active participation by government to ensure that the benefits of recovery will

also be shared by economically disadvantaged segments of the community.

The short-term recovery following a major disaster cangenerate an economic boom as state and federal moneyflows into the community to reconstruct damaged buildings and infrastructure. These funds are used to pay forconstruction materials and the construction workforceand, to the extent that the materials and labour are acquiredlocally, they generate local revenues. In addition, thebuilding suppliers hire additional workers and these, alongwith the construction workers, spend their wages onplaces to live, food to eat, and entertainment. Unless thereare undamaged communities within commuting distancethat can compete for this money, it will all be spent withinthe community.

Communities must also consider the long-termeconomic consequences of disaster recovery. What willhappen after the reconstruction boom is over? They canattract new businesses if they have a skilled labour pooland good schools –especially colleges whose facultyand students can support knowledge-based industries.Other assets include low crime rates, low cost of living,good housing, and environmental amenities such asmountains, rivers, or lakes (Blakely, 2000).A community can also enhance its economic base if itcan attract businesses that are compatible with the onesthat are already there. Such firms can be identified by asking existing firms to identify their suppliers and distributors. These new firms might be attracted by the newerbuildings and enhanced infrastructure that has been produced during disaster reconstruction.If a disaster stricken community does not already havesuch assets, they can invest in four fundamental components of economic development–locality development,business development, human resources developmentand community development. Locality developmentenhances a community'sexistingphysicalassetsbyimproving roads or establishing parks on river and lake-fronts. Business developmentinvolves efforts to retainexisting businesses or attract new ones. Although it is noteasy, this can be accomplished working with businesses toidentify their critical needs. In some cases, this mightinvolve establishing a business incubator that allows startupcompanies to obtain low cost space and share meetingsrooms.Human resources developmentexpands the

skilledworkforce, possibly through customized worker training.Finally, community development utilizes NGOs, CBOs,and local firms that will hire current residents of the com-munity whose household incomes are below the povertylevel. For example, a comprehensive program for developing small businesses, affordable housing, communityhealth clinics, and inexpensive child care can help to eliminate some ofwhat newbusinessesmight consider to be oneof the risks of relocating to the community.

Crises take a toll on individual and institutional capacities. Such crises often result in thedeath, injury, or displacement of people with important skills vis-à-vis recovery and development. Skilled people may choose to migrate or emigrate, resulting in a "brain drain" from the crisis-affected country or area. Corrosion of social relations often makes it difficult for people to work together constructively. Public, private, and civil society institutions are often incapacitated or destroyed. These organizations are unlikely to have in place the particular capacities that are needed for facilitating livelihoods and economic recovery; for example, service delivery to displaced populations, for which guidance and resources were not previously in place, may be required during the recovery stage.

Globally, as set forth in the UNDP Strategic Plan for 2008-2011, capacity development isUNDP's overarching contribution, and crisis prevention and recovery constitute one of the four focus areas in which UNDP seeks to strengthen national capacities. UNDP defines capacity development as the process through which individuals, organizations, and societies obtain, strengthen, and maintain capabilities in order to establish and achieve their own development objectives over time.Effective support for capacity development places nationals at the forefront of recovery and development processes, addresses locally identified priorities, and promotes local ownership. Such support also acknowledges and builds upon existing capacity assets. UNDP's presence at the country level and its expertise in capacity development and coordination, make it well suited to mobilize, support, and coordinate capacity development in crisis and post-crisis situations.

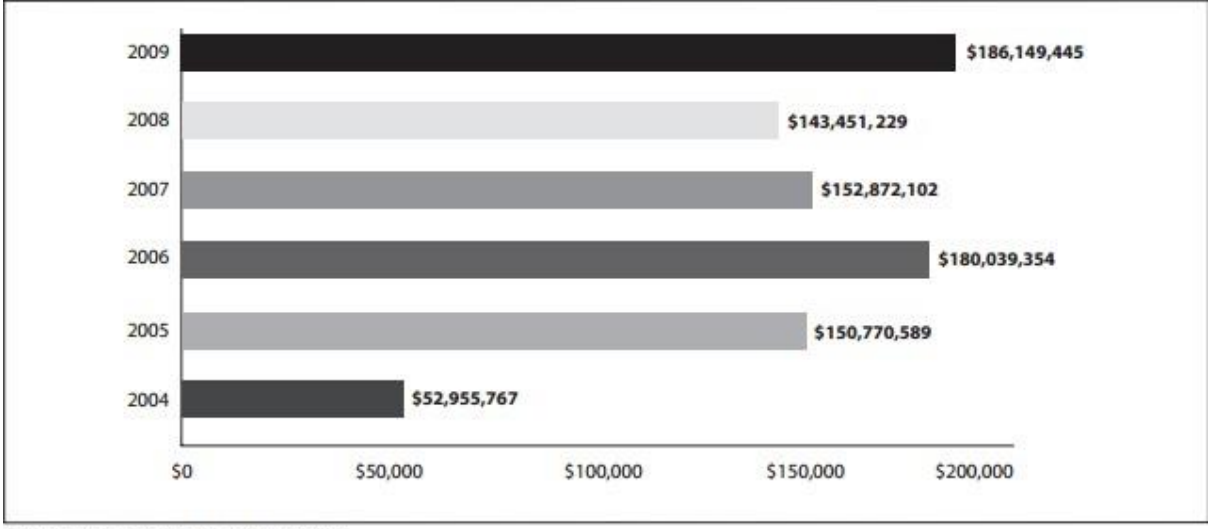
Table 1. UNDP Expenditure on Disaster Prevention and Recovery, by Region, 2004-2009

Region	Total UNDP expenditure in the region (2004-2009)	Total disaster prevention and recovery expenditure in the region (2004-2009)	Expenditures as % of total expenditure in the region
Africa	$3,888,557,203	$ 54,718,745	1.4 %
Arab States	$2,762,143,852	$ 31,279,031	1.1 %
Asia and the Pacific	$5,139,243,709	$603,395,875	11.7 %
Europe and the CIS	$1,550,183,210	$28,541,096	1.8%
Latin America and the Caribbean	$6,582,959,483	$148,303,739	2.3 %
Total	**$ 19,923,087,458**	**$ 866,238,487**	**~ 4%**

Source: Drawn from UNDP ATLAS data.

This section outlines some of the common priorities for capacity development programming in the early recovery stage, in the medium term, and in the long term. The specific timing that is most appropriate for any intervention, however, will depend on the particular crisis or post-crisis situation.

Figure 6. UNDP Annual Expenditure on Prevention and Recovery, 2004-2009



Source: Drawn from UNDP ATLAS data.

Capacity development in the early recovery stage:

The following are areas in which capacity development may be particularly important as early in the recovery process as possible:

(i) Capacity assessment. As described in Chapter 2, a livelihoods and economic recovery assessment is normally conducted before related programming begins in a crisis or post-crisis situation. This assessment will contain information on the areas in which

capacity development is most needed. Assessment should continue, however, throughout programming. National leadership of the assessment process will ensure national ownership of the findings and improve the prospects of sustainability for the interventions that follow. Supporting the development of national assessment capacity is therefore an important entry point.

(ii) Immediate measures to strengthen justice and security institutions. Immediate capacity strengthening of justice and security institutions may be required to enable a crisis-affected country to achieve the minimum conditions for livelihoods and economic recovery and to create a climate that is conducive to legitimate private sector activity.

(iii) Filling urgent capacity gaps. In some cases, the recruitment of external human resources, including nonresident nationals, is necessary to fill urgent gaps in national capacity (e.g., for the delivery of critical services to crisis-affected populations). Carefulplanning for capacity transfer is necessary so as to avoid long-term or unsustainable substitution of local capacities with external capacities.

(iv) Short-cycle training of crisis-affected groups. If assessments provide sufficient information to align the training with market demand and participants' needs and interests, short-cycle training may be appropriate to help vulnerable, crisis-affected groups to revive their livelihoods.

Capacity development in the medium term:

Especially at the local level, the medium term presents substantial opportunities for the development of capacities. As elaborated in Chapter 4 on Track B programming, examples of capacity development support for the medium term include (i) vocational training and apprenticeship programmes aligned with labour market demand; (ii) support for the identification of potential new local and external markets through market analysis and crisis-sensitive value chain analysis, (iii) support for the delivery of financial services to crisis-affected people, (iv) support for the provision of market-oriented business development services to micro and small entrepreneurs.Within vocational training programmes or as separate community-based initiatives, support is often needed in order to facilitate social cohesion and consolidate peace by building localskills for reconciliation, mediation, and leadership. These elements are often considered "soft"

capacities, as opposed to the “hard” capacities covered in the core curriculum of vocational training programmes. Capacity development programmes often emphasize hardcapacities,but softskillsareas important if not more important incrisisandpostcrisis situations, where trust is likely to have been severed and relationships uprooted.

Capacity development in the long term:

Long-term livelihoods and economic recovery calls for the integration of capacity development measures into a national strategy. UNDP and its partners can provide valuable support for the development of such a strategy. Engaging the Ministry of Finance and linking the strategy to the national budget and the multi-year expenditure framework are essential for ensuring that the government is financially committed to implementing the strategy. In consultation with the private sector and communities, national and local governments should lead the process of prioritizing the institutions for capacity development.

The strategy should provide explicitly for the phasing out of external capacity support.The following are examples of the key elements that may be relevant for a capacity development strategy:

(a) The design of market-based education and training curricula with collaboration between the public and private sectors.

(b) A system for continuous monitoring and assessment of changes in the capacities of key institutions.

(c) Initiatives aimed at retaining staff and increasing professionalism in the public sector at all levels of management and service delivery. These initiatives may include incentives for productivity and integrity (such as public recognition for excellence), improved working conditions, and mechanisms for the public to rate the client orientation of public services.

(d) Strengthening national capacities for public financial management, domestic resource mobilization, aid coordination, and monitoring and evaluation.

(e) Professionalizing the judiciary so that it becomes more independent, impartial, transparent, and accountable. Such an approach may involve the training of

judges,lawyers, prosecutors, and/or government officials in ministries with key responsibilities for protecting human rights.

(f) Creating an enabling environment for economic activity by strengthening the service delivery capacityand efficiency,effectiveness,responsiveness,and transparency ofthe police and security forces.

(g) Strengthening the capacities of local governments for public administration, participatory planning and budgeting, and effective relations with communities and the private sector.

(h) Strengthening the capacities of crisis-affected communities so as to design, implement, and monitor livelihoods and economic recovery programmes.

(i) Strengthening the capacities of local universities or think tanks to review existing policies, identify policy options to accelerate inclusive economic growth, analyze the political, legislative, financial, and management implications of the various policy options, and advocate for evidence-based policy change.

(j) Strengthening the capacities of financial service providers to facilitate the transfer of remittances, e.g., through mobile banking.

Developing individual and institutional capacity in the wake of a crisis often requires structural changes, changes in thelegal,policy,and regulatoryenvironmentandincultural attitudes and practices. These changes are best mobilized and supported in tandem with multiple national and international partners and in coordination with other relevant recovery and development programmes.

Table 3. UNDP Expenditure by Hazard Type, 2004-2009			
Type of disaster	Specific type of disaster	Expenditures on prevention and recovery	Percentage of total prevention and recovery expenditures for each type of disaster
Geological hazards (11% of total UNDP prevention and recovery expenditures)	Earthquakes	$82,550,172	10%
	Volcanoes	$5,106,098	0.59%
	Desertification	$2,962,479	0.34%
	Land degradation	$513,222	0.06%
Hydro-meteorological hazards (22% of total UNDP prevention and recovery expenditures)	Hurricanes/ cyclones/ typhoons and storms	$56,621,344	7%
	Floods	$49,113,073	6%
	Drought	$43,207,320	5%
	Climate change	$37,186,836	4%
	Environment management- related disasters	$5,364,222	0.62%
	Weather (cold)	$1,585,943	0.18%
	Fires	$1,253,082	0.14%
Multiple hazards	Multiple hazards	$267,870,420	31%
Tsunami	Tsunami[59]	$266,715,881	31%
Could not be ascertained	–	$46,188,396	5%

Source: Drawn from UNDP ATLAS data.

International Labour Organisation's Recommendation for Providing job opportunity after disaster:

Coherent enterprise recovery and decent employment promotion strategy at local level

 Supply side:

• Enhance the financial abilities of enterprises

• Support the replacement of equipment and tools

• Improve the skills of workforce

 Demand side:

• Support local authorities to create an enabling environment for disaster resilient enterprises

• Expand local markets and create additional demand for labour

 Build Back Better & Disaster Risk Reduction

• Strengthen physical assets and people's capacity to anticipate and cope with disasters in the future

Involve:

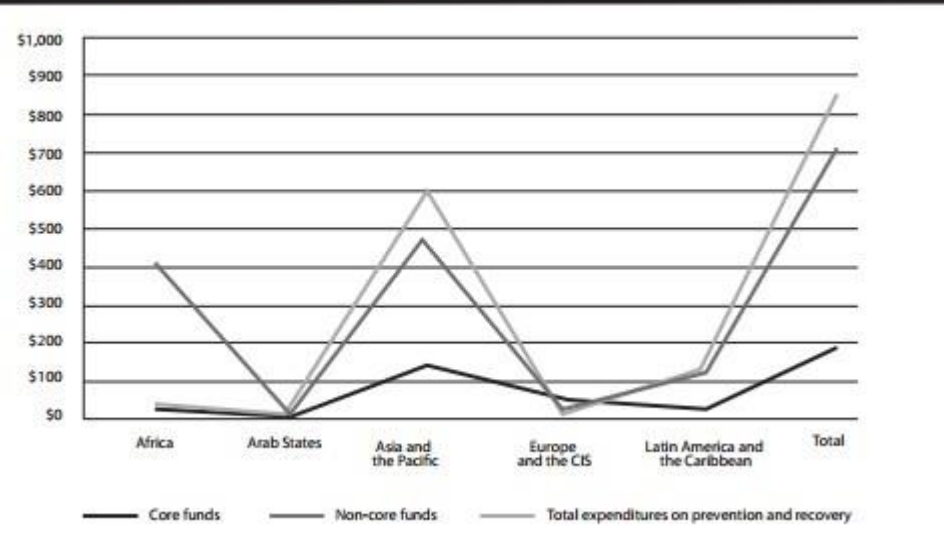
• authorities at municipality and canton level,

• the private sector, including public and private business and financial service providers

• Workers' and employer's organisations

• Civil society and international organisations

Figure 8. Core and Non-Core Expenditures by UNDP on Disaster Prevention and Recovery, by Region, 2004-2009 (US$ Millions)

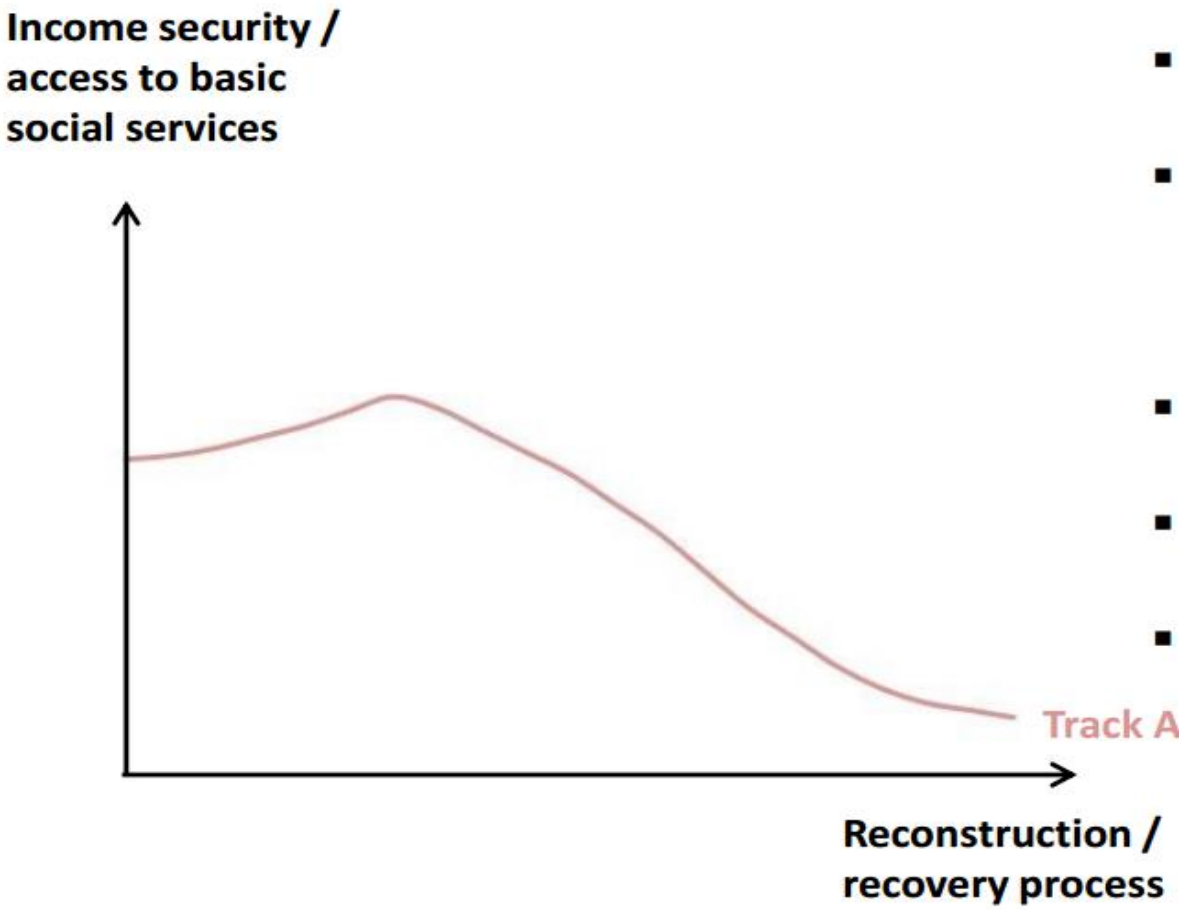


The three-track approach: Stabilizing income generation and creating emergency employment:

Main characteristics:

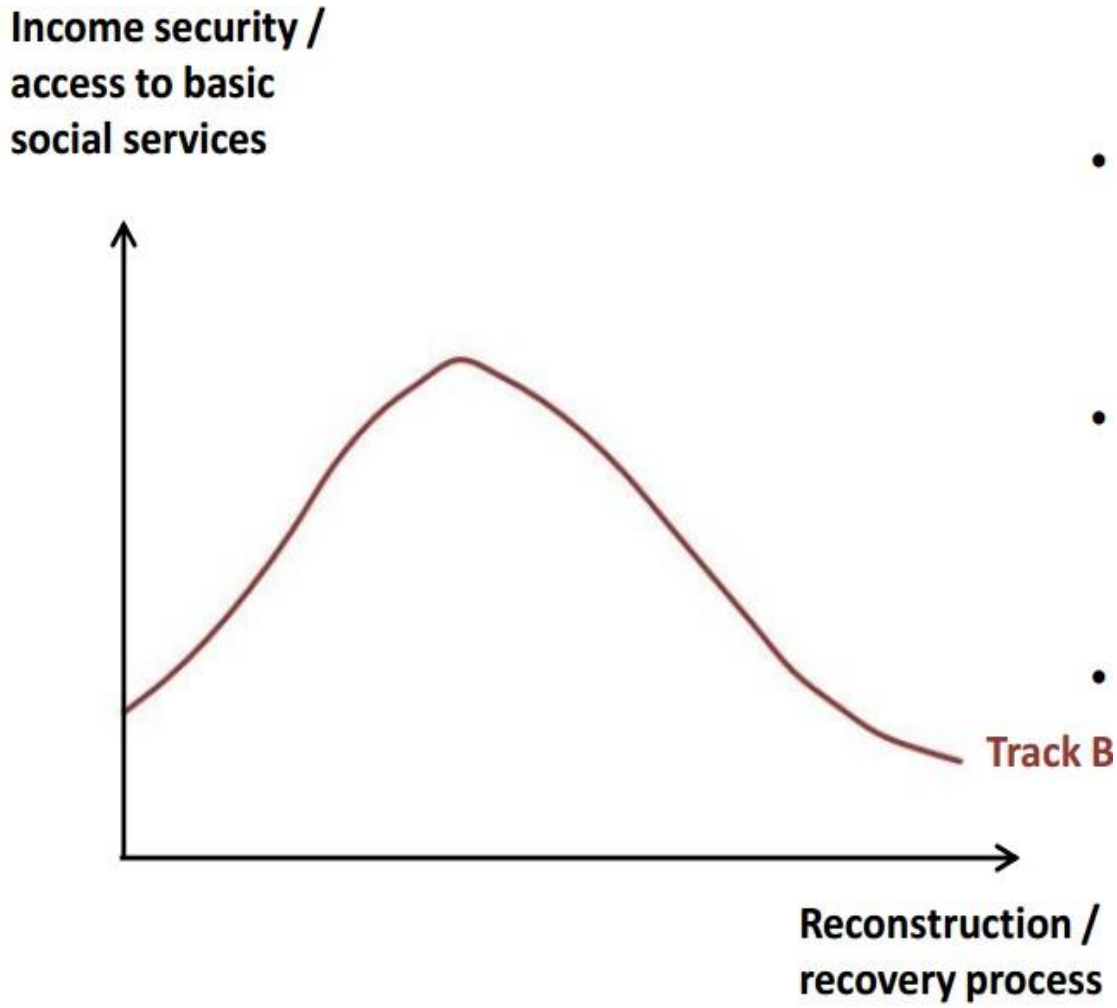
 Track A (SHORT TERM 6- 12 MONTHS) aims at stabilizing income generation and creating emergency employment and cash-transfer programmes for high-risk groups and groups with urgent needs. The steps are:

- Short cycle skills training and kits for recovery and construction-related skills
- Rapid enterprise finance programme for recover full business operations, replenish inventories, repair equipment, and reconstitute working capital
- Temporary employment creation in the recovery
- Quick recovery of assets and livelihoods for most vulnerable groups
- Short-term vocational and business start-up and management training for job seekers and micro/small entrepreneurs



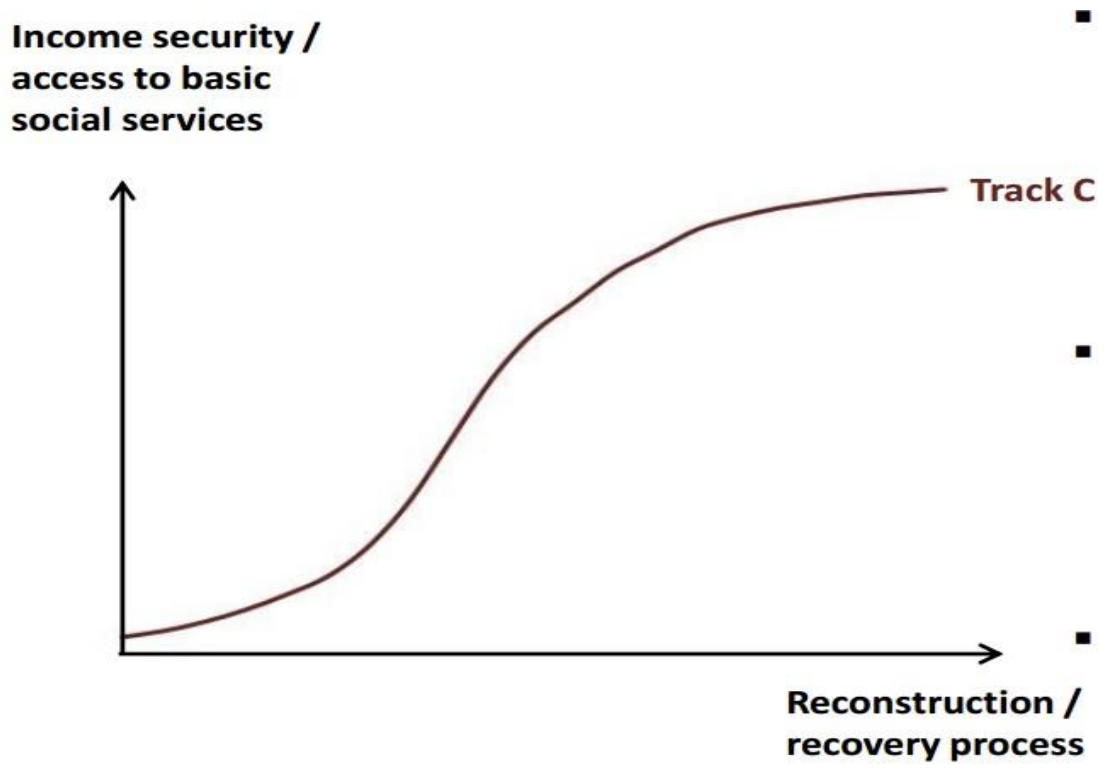
 Track B (MEDIUM TERM 1-3 YEARS) aims at promoting employment opportunities where recovery takes place. The scope of participating actors is wider, and capacity and institution building becomes central. The steps are such as:

- Enhance access to innovative employment services (e.g. career counseling, coaching, internships, training) in cooperation with local institutions.
- Enhance the capacity of public and private local business service providers as well as
- financial service providers (MFIs, banks) tocater for starting entrepreneurs,
- Capacity building of local institutions and entrepreneurs including a ToT on "Multi-hazard Business Continuity Management"

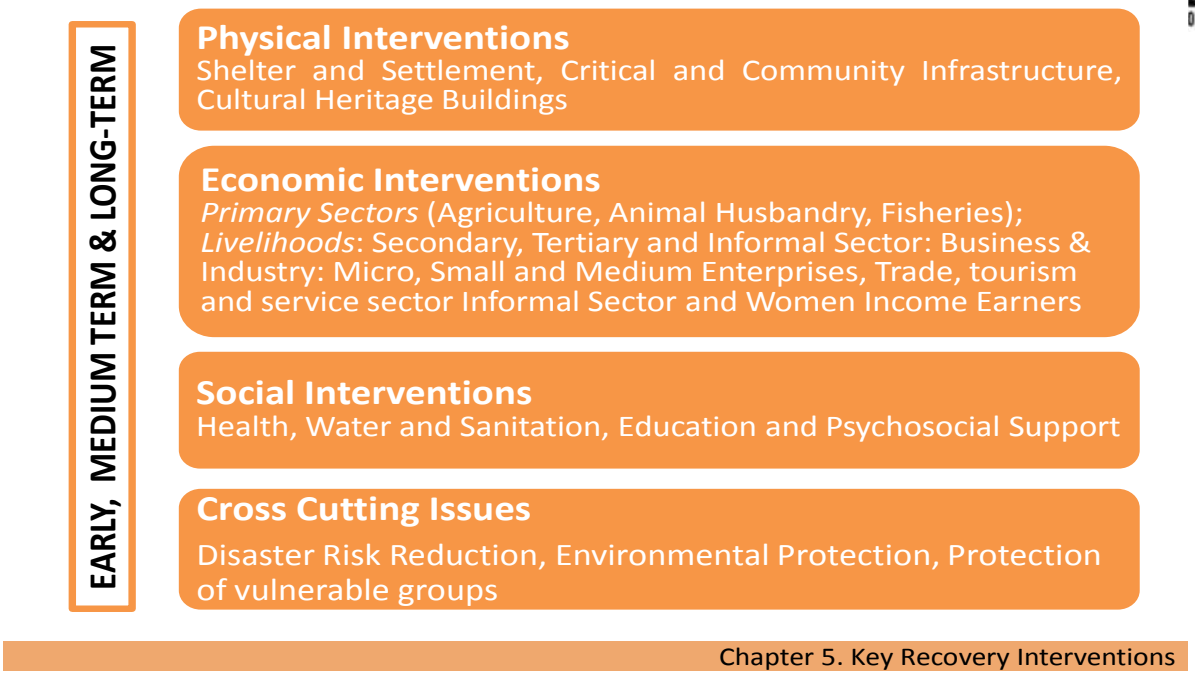


 Track C (LONG TERM 5 YEARS OR LONGER) involves support to policies and institutional capacity development at the national level.Stabilizing income generation and creating emergency employment opportunities for impacted individuals. The step are such as;

- Support authorities to create an enabling environment for disaster resilient enterprises to enhance legal and regulatory framework, strengthen the rule of law, reduce informal economy, promote entrepreneurial culture, enhance social dialogue etc.
- Facilitate and establish canton/municipality broad-based public-private dialogue mechanisms to define local economic and disaster risk reduction strategies based on risk assessments, value chain assessments, local economic development potential
- Reinforce positive development trends in selected sectors (e.g. tourism, agricultural product processing)



Key Recovery Interventions :



Source :NIDM,2014

Physical Interventions

1. SHELTER & SETTLEMENTS

2. CRITICAL & COMMUNITY INFRASTRUCTURE

3. CULTURAL HERITAGE BUILDINGS

Chapter 5. Key Recovery Interventions

Economic Interventions: Primary Sector

1. AGRICULTURE

2. ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

3. FISHERIES

Chapter 5. Key Recovery Interventions

Economic Interventions: Livelihoods

1. SECONDARY SECTOR (Micro, Small & Medium Enterprises)

2. TERTIARY SECTOR (Trade, Tourism, Service Sector)

3. INFORMAL SECTOR & WOMEN INCOME EARNERS

Chapter 5. Key Recovery Interventions

Social Interventions

1. HEALTH

2. WATER & SANITATION

4. PSYCHOSOCIAL SUPPORT

3. EDUCATION

Chapter 5. Key Recovery Interventions

Cross-cutting sectors

1. DISASTER RISK REDUCTION

2. ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

3. PROTECTION OF VULNERABLE GROUPS

Chapter 5. Key Recovery Interventions

Source :NIDM,2014

2.6 Sum up

Speedy Recovery is very import aspect in Disaster Management programme . Its paves ways and means to disaster restoration, reconstruction , livelihood recovery and redevelopment .Through the Speedy Recovery Process, it Aims to provide guidance to plan and implement a post-disaster recovery programme in order to reduce future disaster risks and ensure long-term sustainable development. The Process of Long term Recovery is based on the concerns related to communities' need in the aftermath of the disaster . It aims at increasing the capacity of the community in order to make in independent and resilient enough to face any future disaster .An ideal process in post disaster scenario needs to link immediate recovery to development . Broadly , the process may follow three stages : in the first Stage , an over all plan defines the the principles and the aim of the Rehabilitation exercise . The Second stage is carried out jointly with the help of the community . The focus being on a two way flow between the aid agency and individual house hold . The third stage is the exit stage for the aid agency after it ensures the

sustainability of its interventions, while the community prepares itself to integrate with the main stream development process. This Unit discussed all the factors in speedy recovery processes, linking recovery with self development, long term job creation which could be pave way to effective disaster recovery and sustainable development for local communities and people who suffering pro long disaster specially states like Odisha. There is an great need of effective and long term policy formulation and implementation for speedy recovery processes and programme . Apart from that there is a great need of Rapid Assessment & Needs Assessment adapted to Odisha conditions, Formulation of strategy for recovery programme and Multi-stakeholder consultationis prime necessity for effective and speedy recovery process.

2.7 Reference

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2.8 Self Assessment Questions and Further Reading

Define Speedy Recovery Concept and Examine how it is necessary for the Odisha?

1. Examine the Speedy Recovery Process ,Given an example of Odisha how it applied to manage future Disaster Management scenario in Odisha?
2. Analyse Linkage between Recovery with Self Development give an Example of Super Cyclone -99 or Tsunami 2005-6.
3. Describe how Effective and Speedy Recovery programme could bring sustainable development in Coastal Region of Odisha state.
4. Illustrate long term job opportunities could be a deterrent for speedy Recovery process
5. Role of Government and Non Government Agencies for Livelihood restoration and Job creation in Odisha on Speedy Recovery process.
6. Role of Community based Organization long term and Speedy Recovery process and long term job creation ,Give an example from Odisha Scenario?