Managing Disasters and Conflicts in OIC Countries

Editor
SAVAŞ ALPAY

SESRIC

MANAGING **DISASTERS** AND **CONFLICTS** IN OIC COUNTRIES

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ACRONYMS

AFAD	Disaster and Emergency Management Presidency of Turkey
APEC	Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation
ASEAN	Association of South East Asian Nations
AU	African Union
BNPB	Indonesia's National Disaster Management Agency
CBDR	Community-Based Disaster Reduction
CDMP	Comprehensive Disaster Management Programme
CERF	Central Emergency Response Fund
DRM	Disaster Risk Management
DRR	Disaster Risk Reduction
ECM	Emergency Coordination Mechanism
ECO	Economic Cooperation Organisation
ECOWAS	Economic Commission of West African States
EPWG	Emergency Preparedness Working Group
ERF	Emergency Response Fund
ERRA	Earthquake Reconstruction and Rehabilitation Authority
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
GCC	Gulf Cooperation Council
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GFDRR	Global Fund for Disaster Reduction and Recovery
GIS	Geographic Information Systems
GRIP	Global Risk Identification Programme
HAP	Humanitarian Accountability Partnership
HFA	Hyogo Framework for Action
IASC	Inter-Agency Standing Committee
ICHAD	Islamic Conference Humanitarian Affairs Department
ICIC	Islamic Committee of International Crescent
ICT	Information and Communications Technology
ICZM	Integrated Coastal Zone Management
IDA	International Development Assistance
IDB	Islamic Development Bank

IDP	Internally Displaced Population
IFRC	International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies
IGAD	Intergovernmental Authority for Development
INEE	Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies
INSARAG	International Search and Rescue Advisory Group
IRM	Immediate Response Mechanism
ISESCO	Islamic Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
ISF	Islamic Solidarity Fund
ISMEP	Istanbul Seismic Risk Mitigation and Emergency Preparedness Project
IWRM	Integrated Water Resources Management
LAS	League of Arab States
LDRRF	Local Disaster Risk Reduction Fund
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MENA	Middle East and North Africa
NDMA	National Disaster Management Authority
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
OHCHR	Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights
OIC	Organization of Islamic Cooperation
RIMES	Regional Multi-hazard Early Warning System
RRI	Risk Reduction Index
SAARC	South Asia Association of Regional Cooperation
SAR	Search and Rescue
SESRIC	Statistical, Economic, Social Research and Training Centre for Islamic Countries
SME	Small and Medium Sized Enterprise
TIKA	Turkish International Cooperation Agency
TRC	Turkish Red Crescent
TYPOA	Ten Year Programme of Action
UAE	United Arab Emirates
UN	United Nations
UNCT	United Nations Country Team
UNDAC	United Nations Disaster Assessment and Coordination
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNISDR	United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction
UN-OCHA	UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
UNU	United Nations University
WASH	Water, Sanitation and Hygiene
WFP	World Food Programme
WMO	World Meteorological Organisation
WRI	World Risk Index

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FOREWORD

The world has witnessed a considerable increase in the frequency of natural disasters over the last four decades. The number of natural disasters has increased from less than 100 disasters per year in the 1970s to 450 disasters in the 2000s. During the same period, the OIC member countries were not exception. They even experienced relatively steeper upward trend, where the number of natural disasters in these countries increased from 20 disasters per year in the 1970s to almost 120 disasters in the 2000s.

Similarly, the world has witnessed a considerable frequency of man-made crises, including violent conflicts, civil wars, economic crises and failed states. Just over the last five years, major disturbances have shaken the countries around the globe. A food crisis in 2008 generated violence and political turmoil in many countries around the world. This was followed in 2009 by the worst global economic and financial crisis since World War II. In 2011, people in some countries across the Middle East and North Africa demonstrated for more freedom and rights, stimulating democratic movements across the region. We also can add the conflict and political instability in other OIC countries like Afghanistan, Palestine, Somalia, and some Sub-Saharan member countries like Mali, etc. According to the Human Security Report Project (HSRP), during the period 1946-2005, 53 OIC member countries have spent a total of 621 years in conflicts, or 11.7 years per country. Almost 3 million people have died in OIC countries during these conflicts, or more than 4,600 per conflict. This average is almost the same for 107 non-OIC countries with 11 years of conflict.

These figures show that the world is facing increasingly more challenges with respect to natural hazards and conflicts. Developmental gains accumulated over many years are exposed to greater risks of devastation with the onset of a disaster. Just to give some statistics, on average, the cost of natural disasters in OIC countries during the period 1970-2011 is estimated at $140 billion. Moreover, it has been observed that the average cost per occurrence of a natural disaster in OIC countries has been increasing during this period, reaching $60 million in the 2000s compared to $26 million in the 1970s. Accordingly, the economic damage of natural disasters in the group of OIC countries, as percentage of GDP, increased on average from 0.11% in the 1970s to 1.25% in the 2000s.

Viewing the risks of disasters (both natural and man-made) as barriers to sustainable development necessitates the inclusion of a disaster risk management strategy as an indispensable and integral part of the overall development strategy. While disasters hinder economic and social development process by destructing fixed assets, damaging productive capacities and market access, demolishing transport, health, communications and energy infrastructure, and causing death, impairment and

migration, unsustainable development practices may in turn increase disaster risks. Previous socioeconomic vulnerabilities may worsen the impact of a natural disaster and violent conflict, resulting in an instant increase in poverty and deprivation and making the process of recovery more difficult.

Given this state of affairs, disaster and conflict risk management should be considered as one of the top priority areas of cooperation of the OIC and its member countries. The increasing burden of natural disasters and various conflicts in many OIC member countries necessitates the urgency of developing adequate disaster response strategies, particularly in the most crisis-laden and disaster-prone member countries, as well as enhancing the cooperation among OIC countries in this important area.

In this connection, the 27th Session of COMCEC, which was held in Istanbul in October 2011, adopted a resolution which requested the IDB and the SESRIC to cooperate for devising an effective engagement strategy with the most vulnerable people in crisis-laden and disaster-prone Member States. Within the framework of the implementation of this resolution, SESRIC, together with the IDB, has prepared this comprehensive report for managing disasters and conflicts in OIC countries.

Given the increasingly severe impacts of disasters in OIC countries, the report evaluates the risks and vulnerabilities of OIC member countries with respect to natural disasters and conflicts with a view to proposing recommendations and policy implications on improving their resilience to these disasters. The report also investigates the country experiences with respect to the past events and provides guidelines on how to manage the potential disasters in the light of best practices and effective approaches in disaster risk reduction and management.

In this context, the report highlights that substantial investments in institutional and legal frameworks, physical infrastructures and awareness raising are required, and capacities for prevention, preparedness, response and recovery have to be strengthened, with special emphasis on prevention and preparedness. In fact, many OIC countries, if not most of them, are in need of such provisions.

Prof. Savaş Alpay
Director General
SESRIC

MANAGING DISASTERS AND CONFLICTS IN OIC COUNTRIES

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The frequency, duration and impacts of disasters and conflicts are on the rise. More than 430 million people were affected in OIC countries from 2,112 disasters (mainly due to floods, epidemics, earthquakes and storms) recorded during 1990-2012 and almost 650,000 people killed due to these disasters. Much of the impacts could be avoided if adequate actions were taken to reduce vulnerabilities of the communities. There is strong evidence that the critical drivers of vulnerabilities include rapid and inappropriate urban development, socioeconomic inequalities, trends and failures in governance, and environmental sustainability. In most of these indicators, OIC countries present a rather worrying picture, indicating that they are challenged by increased fragility and lack of capacities to prevent natural hazards turning into disasters.

Similarly, during the period 1946-2005, 53 OIC member countries have spent a total of 621 years in conflicts, or 11.7 years per country. Almost 3 million people have died in OIC countries during these conflicts, or more than 4,600 per conflict. Moreover, millions of people are being forced to flee their homes because of conflict or violence, often with little or no possessions. Some crossed a national border in search of refuge; others remained within their country and became internally displaced people (IDPs). The number of IDPs in OIC countries is estimated to be more than that in non-OIC countries since 2003. As of 2010, more than 14 million people in the OIC countries were internally displaced. Majority of the OIC countries are currently part of an ongoing conflict at varying intensity. According to the Conflict Barometer 2012, more than 40 OIC member countries were conflict affected. This includes low-intensity conflicts like the conflict between Turkey and Cyprus as well as high intensity conflicts like in Syria and Somalia.

There are various drivers of conflicts, but many of them are rooted in development deficits. OIC countries need to place more emphasis on building resilience to shocks and vulnerabilities to conflict through more effective and inclusive governance and greater collaboration. The complex causes of violence as well as prevention and early recovery need to be addressed with collective efforts of all OIC community as well as international partners active in humanitarian, peacekeeping, and development fields.

The disaster-conflict interface also seems likely to intensify over time. Urbanisation, migration, and changes to environmental and socio-economic conditions will potentially heighten underlying exposure and vulnerability to complex emergencies. The risk of violence and potential of conflict will rise with the increasing number of socio-economic and environmental stress factors such as food crises, youth unemployment, rapid urbanisation and social injustice. Therefore, there is need for effective programmes to manage crisis interventions that can reflect the complex structure of the conflict-disaster interface by developing more holistic and integrated approach. Otherwise, the complexity of situations may even negatively affect the outcome of an intervention aiming at reducing risks or preventing conflicts that concentrates only one aspect of the interconnected relation. There is also need for more studies investigating the opportunities for conflict prevention and disaster resilience programmes that can contribute to alleviating joint risks and propose appropriate strategies and actions.

In this context, this report provides a comprehensive overview of the past disasters and offers strategic approaches in preventing and mitigating the potential disasters in OIC member countries. It also includes analyses of the effective approaches in response to and recovery from these disasters and provides relevant recommendations. The report also analyses the current trends in man-made crises, including armed conflicts, civil wars and failed states, and provides recommendations for strengthening the peace and stability and enhancing collaboration between the member states. The focus is the all member countries that are prone to natural disasters and man-made crises, particularly the most vulnerable people in crisis-laden and disaster-prone member states.

After discussing the risks and vulnerabilities to natural hazards and conflicts and providing best practices in disaster risk reduction and management, the general purpose of this report is to promote joint initiatives on conflict resolution and management within the OIC countries; advocate for mutual actions for strengthening the institutional capacities for countries that experience destructive natural disasters and man-made crises, which may limit the operational and technical capacities of institutions; encourage the disaster-related actions to focus more on mitigation and preparedness instead of response with a view to minimizing the impacts of disasters; and offer policy recommendations for individual countries and cooperation areas at OIC level to increase the resilience throughout the whole OIC community.

As for the scope, the report presents an all-inclusive synopsis of the past disasters and offers strategic approaches in avoiding the potential disasters in OIC member countries. Although this report stresses the fact that OIC countries need to take immediate actions to increase their resilience to disaster risks and develop strategies to prevent the natural and man-made disasters, it, however, does not provide stepwise strategic actions to be taken by member countries. It provides only relevant recommendations based on effective approaches, best practices and specific convictions.

There have been numerous disaster risk reduction (DRR) strategies developed over the past decades to effectively manage the disasters at national, regional and international level. OIC member countries endorsed the Strategy on Management of Disaster Risks and Climate Change Implications in the Islamic World at the Fourth Islamic Conference of Ministers of Environment in 2010. There are also few regional and international initiatives for conflict resolution and peace building, but there is no such initiative among the OIC countries. There is a need for OIC countries to support the existing initiatives on disaster management and coordinate their efforts to increase their resilience to disasters and conflicts.

Structure of the Report

The report consists of eight sections. The introductory section establishes the link between disaster risk reduction capacities and the progress in sustainable development, and reviews the existing international and regional disaster risk reduction strategies. The section concludes with the aims, objectives and scope of the report. Sections 2 to 4 offer a quick overview of the disasters, conflicts and disaster-conflict interface, respectively. This includes an assessment and analysis of the risks of and vulnerabilities to *natural disasters* and *conflicts* in OIC countries as well as some of the cross-cutting issues which fall into the disaster-conflict interface. Constituting the backbone of the report, Sections 5 to 7 analyse a broad spectrum of dimensions pertaining to management of disasters, conflicts as well as the disaster-conflict interface. The analyses on each dimension are enriched through case studies which offer important lessons along with practical ideas/solutions. Section 8 concludes with a summary of policy recommendations for priority actions.

Disasters – Development Linkages

Existing socio-economic vulnerabilities may aggravate the impact of a natural disaster and violent conflict, resulting in an instant increase in poverty and deprivation and making more difficult the process of recovery. Conversely, a development strategy that endorses development of financial and social mechanisms to reduce the vulnerability, enhance access to adequate water, food and safe houses, build social capital and community cohesion, and provide greater opportunities for involvement in decision making can substantially reduce disaster risks.

Similarly, while peace and security are prerequisites for development and prosperity, failures in development substantially increase proneness to civil conflict. The consequences of violent conflicts are not to be underestimated. On average, the cost of civil war is equivalent to more than 30 years of GDP growth for a medium-size developing country and destroys essential infrastructure, including schools, hospitals, and energy systems; destroys social cohesion and triggers forced displacement of people. Researches revealed that majority of the member countries with highest vulnerability to disasters also suffer from low levels of human development. The report clearly illustrates that while different OIC countries suffer from different types of natural hazards, with various frequencies and magnitudes, and man-made crises with distinct features, it is in fact their vulnerability to risks, or the lack of conditions and capacities for properly managing and reducing the risk of disasters.

Critical Aspects of Disaster Management

Risk management and vulnerability reduction is a continual process to reduce the adverse consequences of disasters upon people, livelihoods and built environment. A detailed description of higher level approaches for disaster mitigation against multiple natural hazards is provided in a broader framework. Accordingly, effective **risk governance** frameworks should be supplemented by two important functions, namely, disaster risk assessment and mainstreaming of disaster risk management into development policies. Prudent **environmental management** can contribute to reducing disasters risks particularly through three channels, i.e., sustainable water resources management, sustainable land-use management, and integrated coastal zone management.

The report supports the view that social protection and disaster risks have a mutually reinforcing relationship. The poorer the households are, the more they are vulnerable to disaster risks. **Social protection** in OIC countries needs to be improved through, inter alia, improving the access of the socially least protected to facilities provided by governments. Reduction of structural poverty, in that sense, is an essential part of improving social protection.

Capacity development requires an overview of approaches that aim to enhance preparedness capacity of governments at all levels. It shall build upon existing capacities and work with the assets that the country brings to the table. When a disaster happen, support is required from almost every ministry and organization to provide relief to the affected population, help with its recovery and to restore the pre-disaster services. Therefore, disaster risk management by its very nature is a multi-disciplinary and multi-sectorial subject, which requires **coordination and collaboration** amongst different ministries, departments, and stakeholders and vertically with provincial and local levels.

International cooperation is critical in sharing of information (e.g. on potential hazards), knowledge and good practices. In many disaster cases, neighbouring member countries find themselves on the same boat and sharing of timely information is belatedly recognized to be critical to avoid serious spill-overs between these countries. Moreover, cooperation is important not only bilaterally, but also through regional and international organizations and multilateral institutions as well as technical organizations to acquire best practices worldwide and develop the needed capacities.

Preparedness is based on a sound analysis of disaster risks and good linkages with early warning systems, and includes such activities as contingency planning, stockpiling of equipment and supplies, the development of arrangements for coordination, evacuation and public information, and associated training and field exercises. **Needs assessment** is a vital first step in organizing an effective and relevant disaster response. It must be planned in advance, properly and thoroughly. The preparation of an assessment report is important to inform all stakeholders about the extent of disaster impact and the assistance that is required. It is a very important tool in making decision, mobilizing resources and informing media and general public.

Contingency planning is a systematic approach to identifying what catastrophes can happen in an area or country and gearing up systems and resources to organize an effective response when the emergency happens. The objective of contingency planning is not to develop a plan for every possible contingency, but to think about major catastrophes and possible responses. **Early warning systems** empower individuals and communities threatened by hazards to act in sufficient time and in an appropriate manner so as to reduce the possibility of personal injury, loss of life, damage to property and the environment, and loss of livelihoods. Early warning systems play a critical role in preventing hazardous events turning into disasters.

For an effective and efficient **response** mechanism, there is a need for adaptation from the current ad hoc co-ordination to a pre-planned, pre-arranged and predictable system. When national capacities are overwhelmed, a well-organized and reliable system at regional or OIC level can save more lives. In order to improve **quality, performance and accountability** in response to disasters, responding agencies should use various tools such as systematic evaluation and peer review to ensure the quality of services according to globally accepted disaster management standards and to assess the impact of those activities on the lives of disaster affected populations. Both national

authorities and international humanitarian organizations should seek the opportunity to effectively work together.

Effective **recovery** method entails appropriate policy guidance and financial, technical and institutional support in order to achieve maximum benefits from the rehabilitation and reconstruction process after disasters. Once the recovery is well achieved, disasters may become opportunities for dipping risk and acquiring growth; otherwise, the disasters can undermine future development by deepening inequalities, worsening poverty, increasing vulnerabilities of affected populations and enhancing risks. From the global experience in recovery, key principles in disaster recovery include, among others, focusing on the most vulnerable, restoring local capabilities, rebuilding livelihoods, reducing disaster risk, and engaging the civil society and private sector to non-partisan compensation. Experiences also reveal challenges in the recovery of disasters including a missing link relief and development nexus, institutional gaps and weak governance, inadequate vulnerability reduction in reconstruction, methodological gaps, and lack of awareness and knowledge on recovery management.

Critical Aspects of Conflict Management

Some OIC countries, especially those in the Middle East and North Africa, have experienced significant transformations over the past few years. These transformations have brought about their own opportunities for constructive socio-economic reforms as well as challenges to peace and stability. Furthermore, the number of conflicts observed globally increased from 83 in 1945 to 396 in 2012, including more than 40 OIC member countries with both low-intensity and high-intensity conflicts. To address the concerns regarding the impacts of ever increasing conflicts particularly in OIC countries, the Report discusses the role of **conflict analysis and early earning mechanisms**, which rely on risk knowledge, systematic data collection and conflict assessments, monitoring and warning services, and response capability. Factors identified for monitoring of early warning include, among others, sudden demographic changes, rising unemployment rates and rise in social intolerance.

There are also sets of institutional capacities that should be developed for **conflict prevention**. Greater emphasis must be placed on **building resilience** to shocks and vulnerability – whether economic, political, or environmental, including through more effective and inclusive governance systems. In order to promote sustainable development, countries and societies have to be prepared to deal with volatility and shocks, especially where these disproportionately impact on certain groups and exacerbate existing inequalities. Conflict prevention, as well as early recovery, requires collaborative effort by a range of actors, and complex causes of conflict and armed violence need to be addressed in integrated ways, with the work of humanitarian, peacekeeping, and development actors being mutually reinforcing.

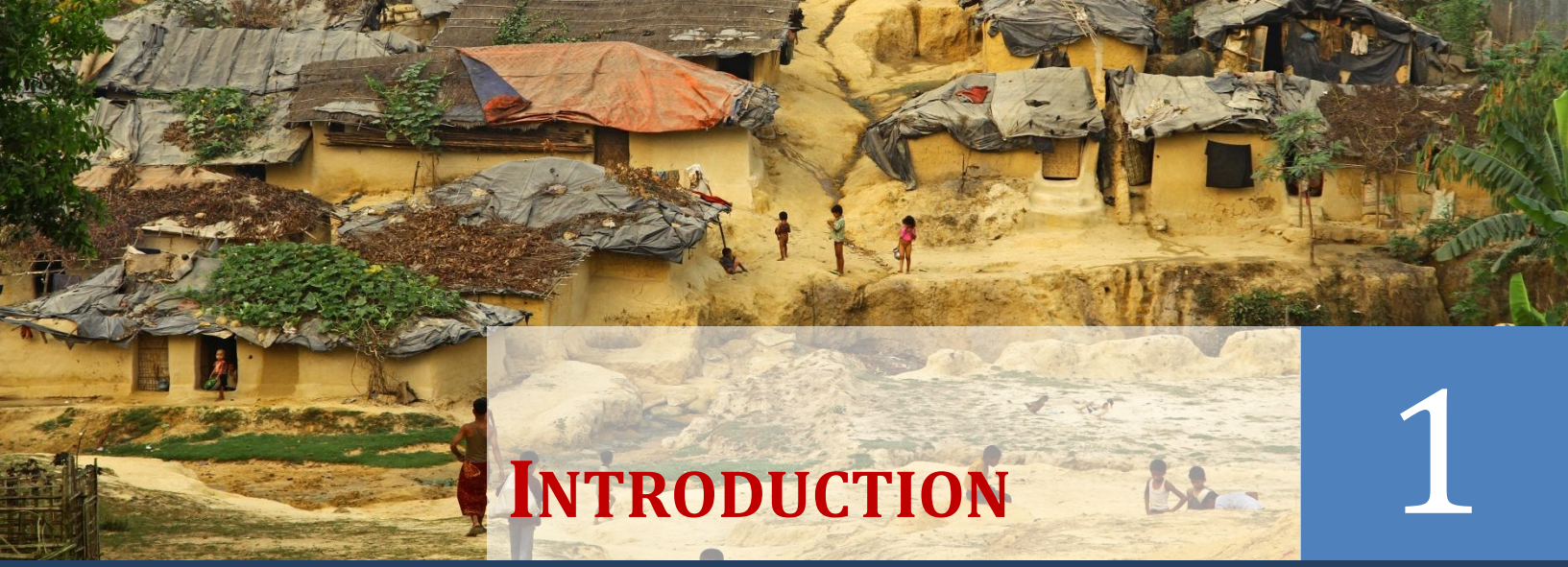
The Report also identifies four clusters of challenge for **peace-building and recovery**, namely, management of transitions, management of recurring tensions over land and natural resources, addressing the threat of extremism, and preventing relapse into conflict. Common success factors identified in tackling these challenges include formation of multi-stakeholder platforms for dialogue, systematic and effective conflict resolution efforts such as regional and district peace committees, development of consensus around governance priorities, and devising of methods for participatory peace-building.

Management of Disasters and Conflicts When They Coincide

Strategies, policies and actions on disaster management and conflict prevention/peacebuilding are often considered in an isolated manner. While the two crises are usually distinct in both their onset and repercussion, strong linkages exist especially in terms of how the interface, if not understood and managed, can escalate and reinforce the impacts of disasters and/or conflict with potentially severe consequences. It is for this reason a thorough understanding of how disasters and conflicts can coincide and reinforce both positive and negative impacts is critical.

Obviously there are differences between the disaster and conflict phenomena. The trigger for disasters is typically a natural hazard while the trigger for conflicts can be a political decision, a failure of dialogue, a new economic policy, an action by security agencies, a confrontation between two different social or ethnic groups or a fight over a scarce natural resource. However, many of the root causes behind conflicts and disasters are similar and these causes can increase exposure and vulnerability of a population to conflicts and disasters. **Poverty and socio-economic marginalization** of social groups based upon class, ethnicity, language or other identities increases vulnerability of people to both conflicts and disasters. **Sustainable and equitable management of natural resources** is also a very important strategy for conflict prevention and disaster risk reduction. The lack of equitable provision of **basic services including education, health and infrastructure** aggravates a sense of deprivation and weakens social solidarity and cohesion, therefore becoming a driver behind instability and conflicts. The lack of basic services also increases people's vulnerability to natural hazards. Finally, an **exclusionary political system** is an important root cause behind society's vulnerability to conflicts and disasters. A political system that is not democratic, inclusive, transparent and accountable generates a perception of injustice, helplessness and being wronged.

In order to address the common aspects of conflicts and disasters, OIC countries need to take special measures in identified areas that are prone to both disasters and conflicts. The OIC can also develop partnerships with a range of international and regional stakeholders.



1 INTRODUCTION

All throughout history, natural disasters have been among the greatest challenges against development of human societies. Many races, cultures, and civilizations were formed, evolved, or demised depending on their knowledge, technology, and capability to cope with adversities of nature. While this may seem to be history, natural or human-caused disasters are still among the serious threats to societies' socio-economic and political development around the world, even today. Floods, storms, epidemics, earthquakes, droughts, wild fires, and many more interrupt and distort the lives of many around the world again and again, in many instances taking lives, ruining investments, and forcing major relocations. Global warming, a human-caused global-scale natural hazard, will soon, if not already, severely and irreversibly impact our civilisation and its future if no serious actions are taken in near future.

In similar fashion, man-made crises, including violent conflicts, civil wars and failed states, divert resources from being used for productive economic activities and social welfare and hinder the socio-economic development. Conflicts and wars incur direct human costs and longer-term costs on socio-economic development through damage of household assets, destruction of infrastructure as well as loss of confidence in institutions, leading to disorder. Each conflict/crisis has its own peculiarities and they have multiple causes that interact in highly specific ways. In most cases, conflicts are to be caused by political and economic motivations to change order and to compete over resources.[1] Civilians are the ones that suffer overwhelmingly from violent conflicts. Forced migration and the breakdown of health systems claims many lives due to disease outbreaks and malnutrition and it takes many years for people and economy to recover. The costs of violent conflicts and wars are largely borne by civilians within the country, future generations, and also neighbours, but not by those responsible for them.

1.1 Disasters and Socio-economic Development

While disasters limit economic and social development process by destructing fixed assets, damaging productive capacities and market access, demolishing transport, health, communications and energy infrastructure, and causing death, disablement and migration, unsustainable development practices may in turn increase disaster risks. Previous socioeconomic vulnerabilities may exacerbate the impact of a natural disaster and violent conflict, resulting in an instant increase in poverty and deprivation and making more difficult the process of recovery. On the other hand, a development strategy that promotes development of financial and social mechanisms to reduce the

[1] According to Heidelberg Institute for International Conflict Research (HIIK) Conflict Barometer 2011, conflicts aiming to change the political, socioeconomic or cultural order were the most prevalent conflict item in 2011 with 130 cases. Resources were the other most frequent causes of crises with 84 cases.

vulnerability, enhance access to adequate water, food and safe houses, build social capital and community cohesion, and provide greater opportunities for involvement in decision-making can substantially reduce disaster risks (UNDP, 2004). If the coping mechanisms are not intact, especially the poor may lose access to some basic services, their stock of physical and human capital may melt away, and even criminal activities may increase.

Relationship between development and peace and stability is also strong and goes in both directions. While peace and security are prerequisites for development and prosperity, failures in development substantially increase proneness to civil conflict. The consequences of violent conflicts on development are far from simple. Socio-economic costs not only vary from one country to another, but are also uneven within countries as the costs of such conflicts affect the population within a country unequally and distort the income distribution. On average, the cost of civil war is equivalent to more than 30 years of GDP growth for a medium-size developing country (World Bank 2011). Similarly, trade levels after major episodes of violence take 20 years to recover (Martin et al. 2008). In other words, unlike natural disasters or economic crises, a major incident of violent conflict can exterminate an entire generation of economic progress.

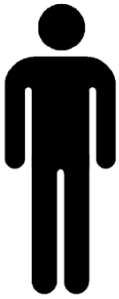
The negative effects of armed conflicts also extend well beyond these measurable social and economic costs. It destroys essential infrastructure, including schools, hospitals, and energy systems; destroys social cohesion; and triggers forced displacement of people. Conflict can also – and often does – undermine public institutions, facilitate corruption, and encourage a climate of impunity. It contributes to and is sustained by transnational crime, including the trafficking of people, drugs, and arms. In all these ways, conflict jeopardizes development.

Yet, interaction between disasters and conflicts may further exacerbate the situation and increase the socio-economic costs. Conflicts may increase disaster risks by increasing vulnerabilities and hampering effective response and recovery. This indicates that whenever disaster and conflict overlap, it can be difficult to verify whether the existence or severity of conflict is an outcome of the disaster.

Such disastrous threats to sustainable development, with such potential adverse impacts, should leave no doubt for any policy maker in any developing country that disaster risk reduction ought to be an integral part of any national or local economic development strategy and plan. Substantial investments in institutional and legal frameworks, physical infrastructures, education and awareness, and beyond are required to educate people and organisations, and create capacities for prevention, preparation, response and recovery, with emphasis on prevention and preparation. The OIC countries, if not the most in need of such provisions, are no exceptions.

Investments in response mechanisms and capacities are quite important. However, effective risk management of disasters requires, and involves, more than just a response mechanism. Reducing the risk of disasters requires viewing disasters as major barriers to sustainable socio-economic development, and managing the risks through investing in and enhancing the capacities for preserving the environment and ecosystems, eradicating poverty and inequality, appropriate rural and urban development, and improving the quality of governance, all of which contribute to vulnerabilities. Viewing risk of disasters as barriers to sustainable development necessitates the inclusion of a disaster risk management strategy as an indispensable and integral part of the overall development strategy, which has its roots in environmentally friendly socio-economic and political development and at the same time serves as the guardian of all developmental efforts and investments.

This Report clearly illustrates that while different OIC countries suffer from different types of natural



436

Million Affected

9% of the world total

2,112

Disasters

25% of the world total

132

Billion USD Damage

6% of the world total

649,000

Fatally Affected

38% of the world total

hazards, with various frequencies and magnitudes, and man-made crises with distinct features, it is in fact their vulnerability to risks, or the lack of conditions and capacities for properly managing and reducing the risk of disasters. In OIC countries, almost 100% of natural disasters and their impacts (fatal, non-fatal, and financial) in low income countries during 1960-2010 took place in countries that are also identified as countries with low capacities for risk reduction. There is clearly no doubt that there is a real need for cooperation among all OIC countries, with assistance from outside, to offer a hand to the people and governments in these countries to reduce their vulnerabilities to natural disasters, and save lives.

1.2 Review of Disaster Risk Reduction Strategies

Over the years, many disaster risk reduction (DRR) strategies have been developed both at global and regional level. The very core of these initiatives is based on the understanding that we can't stop/control the occurrence of natural hazards, but disaster risk and adverse impacts can be reduced by monitoring, systematically analysing and managing the causes of disasters, including by avoiding hazards, reducing social and economic vulnerability, and improving preparedness for response to adverse events. Yet, the majority of the existing strategies focus on natural disasters only and international community lacks comprehensive strategies to deal with complex emergencies that arise when natural disasters and man-made crises coincide.

The Yokohama Strategy, adopted in 1994, provides landmark guidance on reducing disaster risk and the impacts of disasters both at national and international level. It also constituted a basis for a new framework called **Hyogo Framework for Action** 2005-2015: Building the Resilience of Nations and Communities to Disasters (HFA). It was endorsed and adopted by 168 UN member states in 2005. The HFA is the first international strategy which brings all stakeholders - governments, international agencies, disaster experts and many others – into a common system of coordination with a view to help countries build resilience against natural disasters, especially by being more prepared. It explains, describes and details the work that is required from all different sectors and actors to reduce disaster

losses. This framework highlights the need for disaster risk reduction to be integrated into governmental policies and sets out some strategies for reducing disaster risks through the five priorities for action (UNISDR, 2007).

Since the adoption of HFA, many regional cooperation agreements and plans of actions have been prepared in all regions of the world to facilitate and enhance the disaster preparedness and management efforts under this framework. A brief account of regional disaster risk reduction strategies in Africa, Asia and Middle East, where majority of OIC member countries are located, are provided below.

The African Union Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction, adopted in 2004, aims to contribute to the attainment of sustainable development and poverty eradication by facilitating the integration of disaster risk reduction into development, increasing political commitment to disaster risk reduction, improving identification and assessment of disaster risks, enhancing knowledge management for disaster risk reduction, increasing public awareness of disaster risk reduction, improving governance of disaster risk reduction institutions, and integrating disaster risk reduction in emergency response management. In 2005, a Programme of Action for the implementation of the African Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction (2005-2010) was developed and adopted. Furthermore, with a view to aligning this strategy with Hyogo Framework, in 2010, a revision in the Programme of Action took place and it was extended up to 2015.

Arab Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction 2020, adopted in 2012, focuses on enhancing knowledge and capacities on risk reduction to reduce disaster losses and boost resilience in the region. The Strategy outlines priorities to address disaster risk reduction efforts in the region by strengthening commitment for comprehensive disaster risk reduction across sectors; developing capacities to identify, assess and monitor disaster risks; building resilience through knowledge, advocacy, research and trainings; improving accountability for disaster risk management at the sub national and local level; and integrating disaster risk reduction into emergency response, preparedness and recovery. The League of Arab States (LAS) is currently working in close collaboration with UNISDR to develop a Programme of Action to implement the Strategy.

APEC Strategy on Response to and Preparedness for Natural Disasters and Emergencies aims to enable the region to better prepare for and respond to emergencies and disasters by complementing the multilateral, bilateral and national efforts to strengthen disaster risk reduction, preparedness and response in the Asia-Pacific. It identifies potential areas for increased cooperation and the development of joint initiatives for APEC's current and future emergency preparedness activities. The major objectives of the strategy are to provide APEC economies with solid information on the economic and social costs of disasters and on the human and economic costs of failing to take action; analyse gaps in regional disaster risk reduction approaches with a view to developing targeted capacity-building initiatives; and identify a suite of practical mechanisms, instruments and communication products for implementation at a community level, including measures that enhance business and community resilience. Since the adoption of the Strategy, APEC's Emergency Preparedness Working Group (EPWG) focused on capacity building through training courses and workshops related with emergency response and recovery, damage assessment techniques, hazard mapping and vulnerability assessment, private sector emergency preparedness, school earthquake safety and wildfires management in APEC region (APEC website, 2013).

Relationship between development and peace and stability is also strong and goes in both directions. While peace and security are prerequisites for development and prosperity, failures in development substantially increase proneness to civil conflict. The consequences of violent conflicts on development are far from simple. Socio-economic costs not only vary from one country to another, but are also uneven within countries as the costs of such conflicts affect the population within a country unequally and distort the income distribution.

SAARC Comprehensive Framework on Disaster Management and Prevention, adopted in 2007, provides a platform for South Asian countries to establish and strengthen the regional disaster management system to reduce risks and to improve response and recovery management at all levels; identify and elaborate national and regional priorities for action; share best practices and lessons learnt from disaster risk reduction efforts at national levels; establish a regional system to develop and implement regional programs and projects for early warning; establish a regional system of exchanging information on prevention, preparedness and management of natural disasters; create a regional response mechanism dedicated to disaster preparedness, emergency relief and rehabilitation to ensure immediate response; and create a regional mechanism to facilitate monitoring and evaluation of achievements towards goals and strategies.

Strategy on Management of Disaster Risks and Climate Changes Implications in the Islamic World, endorsed by the member countries of the Organization of Islamic Cooperation (OIC) in 2010, is based on a holistic approach for regional cooperation, and information and experience sharing. It pursues a number of general and specific objectives highlighting the main action areas like strengthening governance capacity, reinforcing risk assessments and early warning systems, developing partnerships and cooperation projects, education and training, building information management networks and databases, promoting a culture of prevention and reinforcing preparedness to disasters, as well as post-disaster response and recovery. The work plan for the implementation of the Strategy was adopted in 2012. Given the large number of countries represented in the OIC and the broad variety in their vulnerability profiles as well as the different stages of implementing comprehensive risk mitigation strategies, a Phased Approach is recommended in the work plan.

The 3-year first phase of the work plan (2013-2015) aims to strengthen DRR capacity in member countries, advance regional initiatives for disaster risk reduction, promote disaster risk financing and insurance strategies, and lay the groundwork for the second phase. The 5-year second phase (2016-2020) will be related with implementation of comprehensive disaster risk management programs at the national level by focusing at preparation for disasters and post-disaster response and reconstruction capacities (see Box 1.1).

1.3 Initiatives for Conflict Resolution and Peace Building

The evidence gleaned over the years reveals that preventing conflicts and building and sustaining a lasting peace in war-torn societies are among the most daunting of challenges for global peace and security. As many countries are vulnerable to lapsing or relapsing into conflict and therefore concerted efforts are required to reduce these risks by strengthening national capacities for conflict management, and to lay the foundations for sustainable peace and development. Several international initiatives are highlighted below.

United Nations' Conflict Prevention, Peacekeeping and Peacebuilding Architecture: Conflict prevention, peacekeeping and peacebuilding are among the main objectives of the United Nations

(UN). The UN works increasingly in partnership with regional organizations and national authorities to bring ongoing conflicts to an end, to prevent new crises from emerging or escalating and to achieve the sustainable peace. Over the years, peacekeeping has also grown into one of the primary components of UN conflict resolution mechanism. UN peacekeeping missions include a wide variety of complex tasks, from helping to build sustainable institutions of governance, to the disarmament, demobilization and reintegration of former combatants, and demining. Finally, recognizing the complexities of modern day conflicts and challenges of peacebuilding and to restructure the work of the UN in matters related to international peace and security, the 2005 World Summit approved the creation of some new institutions under the umbrella of the UN which are commonly referred as 'UN Peacebuilding Architecture'. Following three organs were established to strengthen the peacebuilding capacity of the UN: UN Peacebuilding Commission, UN Peacebuilding Fund and UN Peacebuilding Support Office.

European Union Security Strategy: The EU promotes integration as a means to support peace and prosperity and to overcome conflicts around the world through peace building and conflict prevention. EU Security Strategy (ESS) was adopted in 2003. It is the first joint security strategy developed by EU after the emergence of Common Security and Defence Policy (in 1998). The ESS aims to strengthen the EU's external ability to act through the development of civilian and military capabilities in conflict prevention and crisis management. Another major instrument is the EU Programme for the Prevention of Violent Conflicts, which aims to address the issues related with early identification of risk of violent conflict and closing the gap to early action, improved understanding of conflict situations, enhanced identification of the range of options for EU action, and conflict-sensitive programming of external assistance. To intensify its role in conflict prevention and crisis management European Commission also launched Instrument for Stability (IfS) in 2007.

Conflicts almost always increase the risk of disasters whereas violent conflict (or the risk of it) or related political tensions can hinder disaster risk reduction and recovery activities across all levels.

The African Peace and Security Architecture: The African Peace and Security Architecture (APSA) was established by the African Union (AU) in collaboration with the eight Regional Economic Communities and two Coordination Mechanisms. Its role is to deal with prevention, management and resolution of conflicts in Africa. Its core organ is the Peace and Security Council (PSC) which was launched in 2005. The other key components of the APSA are: the Continental Early Warning System (CEWS), the African Standby Force (ASF), the Panel of the Wise and the Peace Fund. The CEWS is set to anticipate and prevent conflicts in Africa through collecting data and information. This is to help the PSC to take decisions and to guide the ASF in the deployment of its troops. A Peace Fund has also been established with an aim to provide the financial budget for peace-making mission and other operations in connection with peace and security. For responding to current and future post-conflict security challenges, the AU developed a Post-Conflict Reconstruction and Development (PCRD) framework in 2006. This framework is a comprehensive set of measures that seek to address the needs of countries emerging from conflict.

The ASEAN Political Security Community (APSC), established in 2009, aims to enhance political and security cooperation in the region and ensure that ASEAN members are able to maintain peaceful internal relations. The APSC blueprint outlines ASEAN's commitment to conflict prevention, preventive diplomacy and post-conflict development. It also provides an action plan to achieve targets in these areas through research, cooperation and development of an institutional

Box 1.1: Islamic Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction and Management

With the aim of reducing risks from natural disasters, the Ministers of Environment of the 57 Islamic countries adopted an Islamic Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction and Management, and an its Implementation Plan with the aim of reducing risk from natural disasters.

The executive work plan to implement the Islamic Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction and Management with its two stage strategy aims to mainstream disaster risk reduction and management across the Islamic world, and mitigate the impacts of disasters through supporting governments and non-governmental actors in preparing for natural hazards. The guiding principle of this work plan is a country-led process, driven by the governments of Islamic countries with technical guidance and support by international partners.

Phase One of the work plan will (i) strengthen disaster risk reduction and management capacity in Islamic countries; (ii) improve understanding of risks and access to data (iii) advance regional initiatives for disaster risk reduction; (iv) promote disaster risk financing and insurance strategies; (v) help countries prepare for disasters and strengthen post-disaster response and reconstruction capacity; and (vi) lay the groundwork for the second phase implementing comprehensive disaster risk management programs at the country level.

Phase Two will see the implementation of disaster risk management programs tailored to the specifics of each Islamic country at risk from natural hazards. The success of the Executive work plan will require the highest level of coordination and cooperation between ministries, regional organizations, development partners and civil society.

framework to deal with regional conflict and security issues.

The Global Partnership for the Prevention of Armed Conflict (GPPAC) is a worldwide civil society-led network which was conceived in 2003. It aims to build a new international consensus on moving from reaction to prevention of violent conflict by strengthening civil society networks for peace and security, and to link local, national, regional, and global levels of action. During 2006-2010, the GPPAC developed a first strategic plan to increasing cooperation among various actors in the field of conflict prevention.

1.4 Aims, Scope and Methodology

Given the increasing severity of impacts of the disasters in OIC countries, this report evaluates the risks and vulnerabilities of OIC member countries with respect to natural hazards and man-made crises with the aim of providing advice to decision makers on how to improve their resilience to these disasters. It investigates the country experiences with respect to the past events and provides guidelines on how to manage the potential disasters in the light of best practices and effective approaches in disaster risk reduction and management.

In this context, the primary objectives of the report are to:

- Assess the risks and vulnerabilities to various types of disasters, both natural and man-made;
- Provide best practices in disaster risk reduction and management;
- Promote joint initiatives on conflict resolution and management within the OIC countries;
- Advocate for collaborative actions for strengthening the institutional capacities for countries that experience/d destructive natural disasters and man-made crises, which may limit the operational and technical capacities of institutions;
- Encourage the disaster-related actions to focus more on mitigation and preparedness instead of response with a view to minimizing the impacts of disasters;
- Offer policy recommendations for individual countries and cooperation areas at OIC level to increase the resilience throughout the whole OIC community.

This report provides a comprehensive overview of the past disasters and offers strategic approaches in preventing and mitigating the potential disasters in OIC member countries. It also includes analyses of

the effective approaches in response to and recovery from these disasters and provides relevant recommendations. The focus is the all member countries that are prone to natural disasters and man-made crises, particularly the most vulnerable people in crisis-laden and disaster-prone member states.

The report also analyses the current trends in man-made crises, including armed conflicts, civil wars and failed states, and provides recommendations for strengthening the peace and stability and enhancing collaboration between the member states. By separately considering the complex emergencies where natural hazards and civil conflicts coincide, this report also aims at stressing the importance of managing such emergencies, which become increasingly frequent.

There is mounting evidence that many countries especially in the developing world are experiencing both natural and man-made disasters (conflict) at the same time or shortly one after the other. The interface between natural disasters and conflicts usually has adverse impacts on the welfare of communities by increasing their vulnerabilities and worsening the poverty and inequality situation. According to the findings of UNDP (2011), disasters and conflicts that happen at the same time intensify risk of future crises particularly those associated with drought and desertification; conflicts almost always increase the risk of disasters whereas violent conflict (or the risk of it) or related political tensions can hinder disaster risk reduction (DRR) and recovery activities across all levels, and can divert political attention away from the importance of disaster issues.

These findings underline the need for a paradigm shift in current disaster risk reduction and management approaches at national, regional and international levels. A new holistic approach needs to be developed which reflects complexities of natural and man-made disaster interface and provides an integrated framework to manage associated risks and vulnerabilities in an effective manner. Otherwise, evidence from the field suggests that interventions that do not recognize the link between disasters and conflict in at-risk countries can worsen tensions and increase risk (UNDP, 2011). For example, while crisis in Darfur (Sudan) have inhibited mechanisms for natural resource management and exacerbated slow onset disasters and environmental scarcity, these in turn have contributed to an ongoing complex crisis in Darfur (Flint and de Waal, 2005). Similarly, conflict situation in Chad prevented the government officials and humanitarian aid agencies to effectively distribute food items to the most severely affected rural areas during the 2010 food crisis (Gubbels, 2011).

This is why the present report tries to cover both aspects of complex disaster emergencies, i.e. natural and man-made, when addressing the issues related to disaster management. From mitigation to preparedness, response and recovery, all phases of disaster management are addressed from this perspective throughout this report. The success of attempt is closely tied to the existence of institutional mechanisms for managing risk in fragile and conflict-affected states with clear institutional mandates, at national, regional and global level. It is necessary to make sure that interventions in one field do not exacerbate risks in another. There is also need for more studies investigating the opportunities for conflict prevention and disaster resilience programmes that can contribute to alleviating joint risks and propose appropriate strategies and actions. A more integrated action to complex emergencies will also require the fostering of research, learning, exchanges of knowledge and experience, and accountability.

PART I

DISASTERS AND CONFLICTS: A SYNOPSIS

SECTIONS

2. OVERVIEW OF NATURAL DISASTERS IN OIC COUNTRIES
3. OVERVIEW OF CONFLICTS IN OIC COUNTRIES
4. DISASTER-CONFLICT INTERFACE IN OIC COUNTRIES

Part I analyses the trends, risks and vulnerabilities to natural disasters, conflicts and interface of both among the OIC countries based on the fundamental understanding that natural disaster risks are induced by two separate conduits for risk: the risks induced by being prone to natural hazards, which in the most part is seen as an exogenous and out-of-control phenomenon, and risks induced by vulnerabilities, which are determined by, among others, socio-economic, environmental, and institutional conditions and capacities for reducing risks of natural disasters. This part consists of Sections 2 to 4.

Section 2 provides an overview of the trends in occurrence and impacts of natural disasters in OIC countries and provides a basis for the better understanding of the importance of taking measures. It also assesses the risks of and vulnerabilities to natural disasters among the OIC countries. Section 3, on the other hand, offer a quick overview of the conflicts with an assessment and analysis of the risks of and vulnerabilities to *conflicts* in OIC countries. Section 4 presents some of the cross-cutting issues which fall into the disaster-conflict interface.

AN OVERVIEW OF NATURAL DISASTERS IN OIC COUNTRIES

2

This section provides an overview of the trends in occurrence and impacts of natural disasters in OIC countries for the period of 1970-2012. It thus provides a basis for better understanding of the importance of taking measures towards strengthening resilience in the member countries. It also assesses the risks of and vulnerabilities to these disasters. While touching on all types of natural hazards, the main focus is to provide an all-inclusive assessment of risks and vulnerabilities.

2.1 Prevalence and Impacts

2.1.1 Frequency of Disasters

During 1970-2012, the number of natural disasters around the world significantly increased from 903 occurrences in the 1970s to 5,500 during the period 2000-2012 (Table 2.1).[2] The number of natural disasters per year at the world level increased from 81 incidents in 1970 to a record high of 528 in 2000, and to 252 in 2012 (Figure 2.1).[3] This corresponds to a 24% OIC share in the aggregate number of disaster incidents in the world during 1970-2012. The increasing trend in the number of natural disasters was mostly driven by the increase in incidences of floods, storms, and epidemics; possibly in direct relation to the impacts of global warming.

The OIC countries experienced a steeper upward trend in the occurrence of natural disasters during the last four decades, significantly increasing from around 199 incidents in the 1970s to 1,431 in the 2000-2012 with a rate of increase higher than that of the world average. The number of natural disasters per year increased from 13 in 1970 to a record high of 135 in 2000 and lower to 69 in 2012 (Figure 2.1). While OIC countries had a share of 23% in total number of natural disaster incidents in the world all throughout the 1980-1999, their share increased to 26% during the 2000-2012 (Table 2.1).

The major drivers of such a fast increase in the number of natural disaster incidents among the OIC countries were floods, epidemics, earthquakes, storms, wet mass earth movements and droughts,

Table 2.1: Natural Disaster Trends

	1970-79	1980-89	1990-99	2000-12
Total number of natural disasters				
OIC countries	199	420	681	1,431
Rest of the world	704	1,404	2,290	4,093
World	903	1,824	2,971	5,524
OIC % of world	22%	23%	23%	26%

Source: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

[2] Total number of natural disaster incidents during 1970-2012 around the world accounts for 89.2% of that in the period 1900-2012. This reflects that not only the number of disasters is increasing but also data collection methods are improving. For this reason, focusing only on the period 1970-2012 will provide a satisfactory outlook with regard to both incidents and impacts of natural disasters experienced in OIC countries.

[3] At the time of preparing the report, data for 2012 was not final and still being regularly updated.

Figure 2.1: Total Number of Natural Disasters over Time (1970-2012)

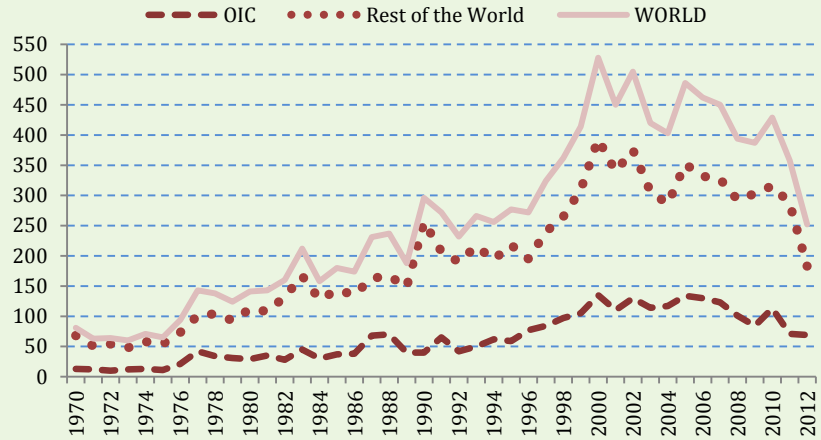
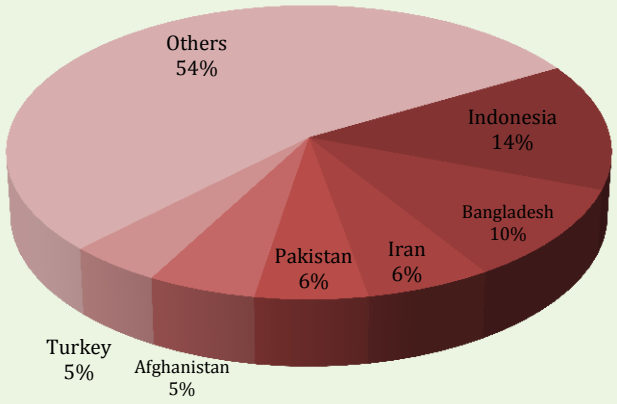
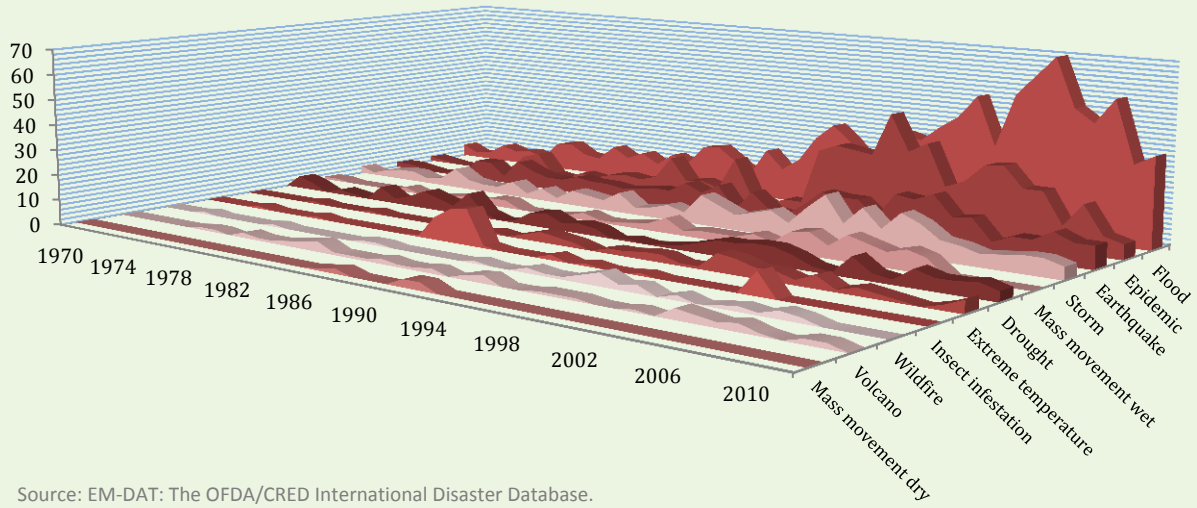


Figure 2.3: Country level distribution of natural disasters within OIC (aggregated for 1970-2012)



Source: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database – www.emdat.be – Université catholique de Louvain – Brussels – Belgium.

Figure 2.2: Major drivers of the increasing trend in natural disasters in the OIC (1970-2012)



Source: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

respectively in order of frequency (Figure 2.2). In aggregate terms, 1,059 flood incidents, 562 epidemics, 363 earthquakes are recorded as the most frequently observed natural disasters during the period under study.

While the OIC-level facts and figures regarding natural disasters are alarming on their own, the distribution within OIC reveals a more dramatic picture. At individual country level with aggregated data during 1970-2012, some OIC countries have been most prone to natural disasters. Total number of natural disaster incidents in Indonesia and Bangladesh amounted to around 700, corresponding to almost one fourth of the total in OIC (Figure 2.3).

2.1.2 Non-fatal Impacts

The non-fatal impacts of natural disasters in OIC countries, in comparison to the world as a whole, are reported in Table 2.2. These figures refer to the number of people who have been injured and/or left homeless by a disaster. The overall figure showed an upward trend in OIC countries by increasing from 94 million people in the 1970s to a high of 243 million during 2000-2012. Again in aggregate terms, this

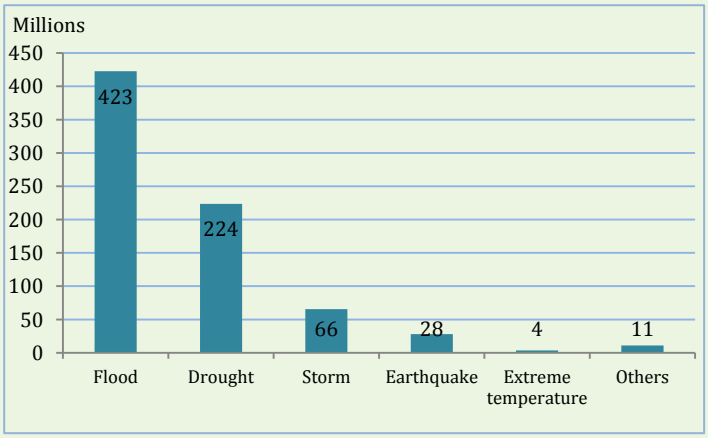
Table 2.2: Non-fatal Impacts of Natural Disasters

	1970-79	1980-89	1990-99	2000-12
Population non-fatally affected (millions)				
OIC Countries	94	220	193	243
WORLD	544	1,241	2,023	2,837
OIC % of world	17%	18%	10%	9%

Source: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

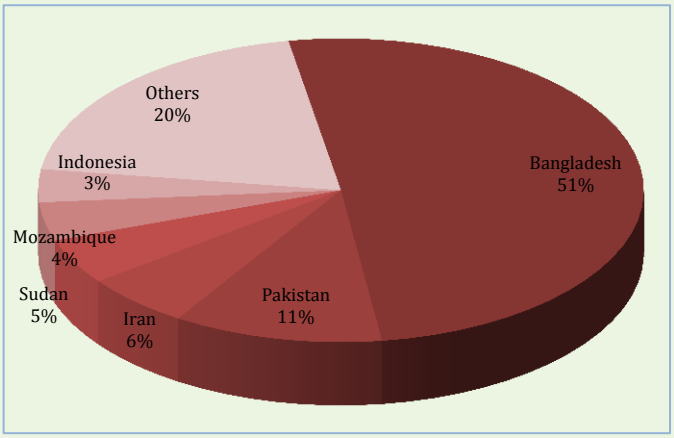
*243 million people were **affected** by natural disasters in the OIC countries during 2000-2012.*

Figure 2.4: Total number of non-fatally affected people in OIC region by type of natural disasters during 1970-2012



Source: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster

Figure 2.5: Distribution of total number of non-fatally affected people within OIC during 1970-2012



Source: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

corresponds to an average OIC share of 11% in total number of non-fatally disaster-affected people in the world during 1970-2012.

Even though the share of OIC countries in total non-fatally affected people in the world has been on decline over the last four decades, the magnitude of people affected is still undeniably high. To give a clearer picture, one out of six people in the OIC countries incurred non-fatal impacts of natural disaster incidents during 1970-2012.

Within OIC, the majority of non-fatal disaster impacts during 1970-2012 took place in countries that are mostly identified as low income. 18 low-income OIC countries collectively accounted for almost two third of total number of people non-fatally affected by natural disasters during 1970-2012. This inevitably distresses those countries in combating poverty incidents, strengthening resilience and sustaining development.

As clearly shown in Figure 2.4, floods affected over 400 million inhabitants in the OIC region during 1970-2012. It is followed by droughts with 224 million, storms with 66 million and earthquakes with 28 million people being affected. The impacts of other types of disasters are remained mostly negligible as far as total number of people non-fatally affected is concerned.

Considering the distribution of non-fatally affected population within OIC region, Bangladesh stands forth with the highest share of 51% during 1970-2012, amounting to over 300 million; followed by Pakistan with 11% (Figure 2.5). Comparatively, the bottom 50 OIC countries in terms of non-fatal disaster casualties collectively accounted for only 20% of the total in OIC. This, as in the case of occurrences, shows that few OIC countries are disproportionately exposed to the destructive impacts of natural hazards compared to other OIC countries.

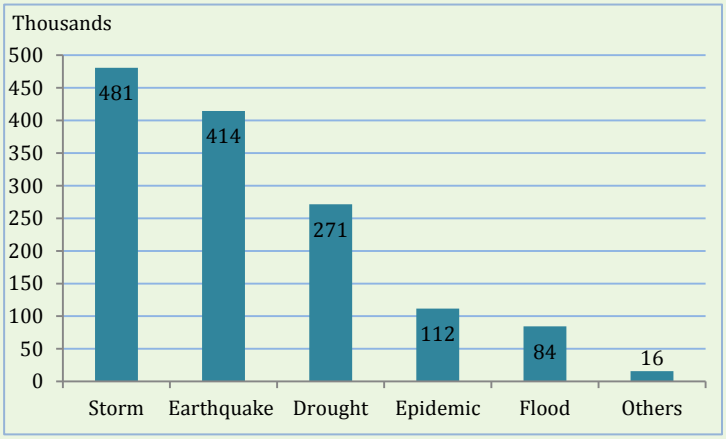
Table 2.3: Fatal impacts of natural disasters

	1970-79	1980-89	1990-99	2000-12
Population fatally affected (thousands)				
OIC Countries	414	315	296	353
WORLD	987	794	525	1,189
OIC % of world	42%	40%	56%	30%

Source: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

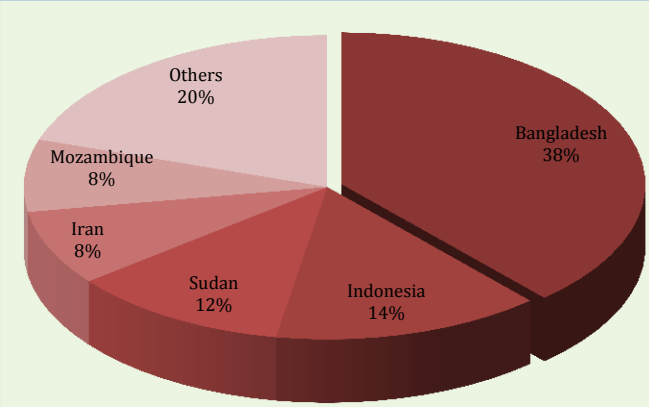
*353,000 people were **fatally affected** by natural disasters in the OIC countries during 2000-*

Figure 2.6: Total number of fatally affected people in OIC region by type of natural disasters during 1970-2012



Source: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

Figure 2.7: Distribution of total number of victims in the world (top) and within OIC (bottom) during 1970-2012



Source: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

2.1.3 Fatal Impacts

More severe patterns are observed with regard to fatal impacts of natural disasters within the OIC region. Since 1970, almost 1.4 million people were killed by natural disasters in OIC countries, corresponding to 39.4% in the world. The share of OIC countries in the world fluctuated over the decades, hitting a record high of 56% in 1990s but decreasing to 30% after 2000 (Table 2.3). It is noteworthy that while OIC countries experienced only one fifth of total number of natural disaster incidents, they accounted for two fifth of total number of people killed by natural disasters in the world during 1970-2012.

Considering the fatal impacts of different types of disasters in the OIC region, storm was the most deadly natural disaster type during 1970-2012. It killed 481,000 people; followed by earthquake with 414,000 and drought with 271,000. Impacts of wildfire, volcano, mass movements and extreme temperatures remained rather limited during 1970-2012 in the OIC region (Figure 2.6).

Ranking the OIC countries with respect to fatally affected people during 1970-2012, Bangladesh stands ahead with over 500,000 people fatally affected, corresponding to 38% of total in the OIC region. It is followed by Indonesia with almost 200,000 people, accounting for 14% of that of the OIC. As clearly depicted in Figure 2.7, top 5 OIC countries collectively accounted for 80% of the fatalities in all OIC community, while the remaining 51 OIC countries constituted only 20% with 270,000 total fatally affected people. Again, over half of total number of victims by natural disasters during 1970-2012 was placed in low income OIC countries. These figures indicate that some countries are more vulnerable than others even if they are relatively less exposed to natural disaster incidents.

2.1.4 Economic Impacts

Economic costs of natural disasters in the world and OIC countries during 1970-2012 are reported in Table 2.4. It shows that the cost of damages substantially increased in OIC countries from US$ 3 billion in the 1970s to record high of US$ 67 billion in the 1990s,

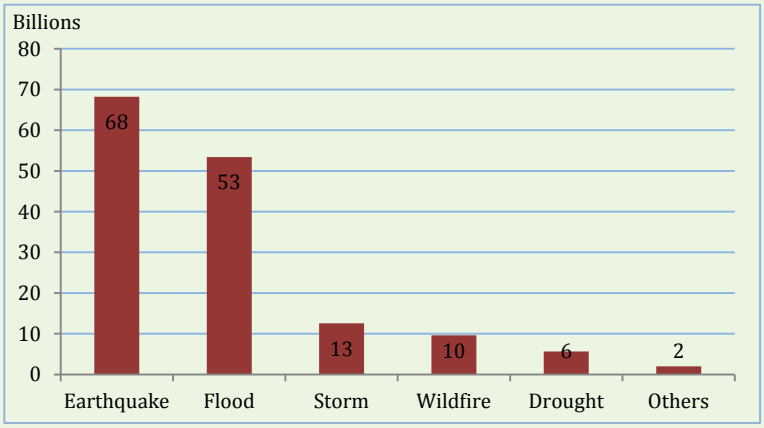
Table 2.4: Economic Cost of Natural Disasters

	1970-79	1980-89	1990-99	2000-12
Cost of damages (current prices, million dollars)				
OIC Countries	3,073	15,936	67,134	65,147
WORLD	53,847	185,481	699,539	1,431,042
OIC % of world	6%	9%	10%	5%

Source: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

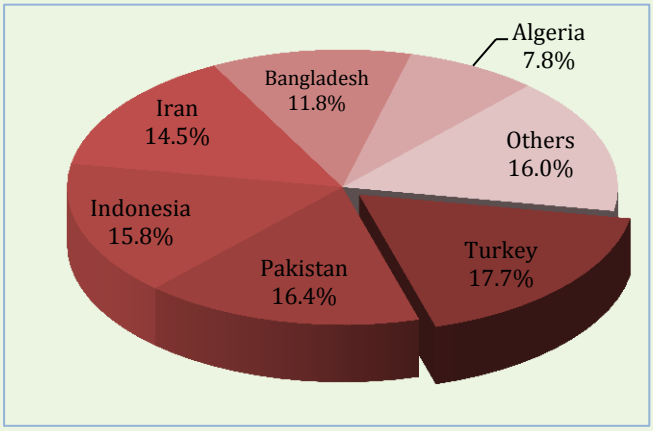
US$ 65 billion ***cost*** *incurred due to natural disasters in the OIC countries during 2000-2012.*

Figure 2.8: Cost of damages by type of natural disasters type during 1970-2012 (US$ billion)



Source: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

Figure 2.9: Distribution of cost of damages within OIC during 1970-2012



Source: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

and to US$ 65 billion during 2000-2012. Over this period, the share of OIC countries in the world increased from 6% in 1970s to record a high of 10% in the 1990s. During the period after 2000, however, the proportion decreased to 5% (Table 2.4). In aggregate, OIC countries together accounted for 6.4% of total cost of damages by natural disasters in the world during 1970-2012.

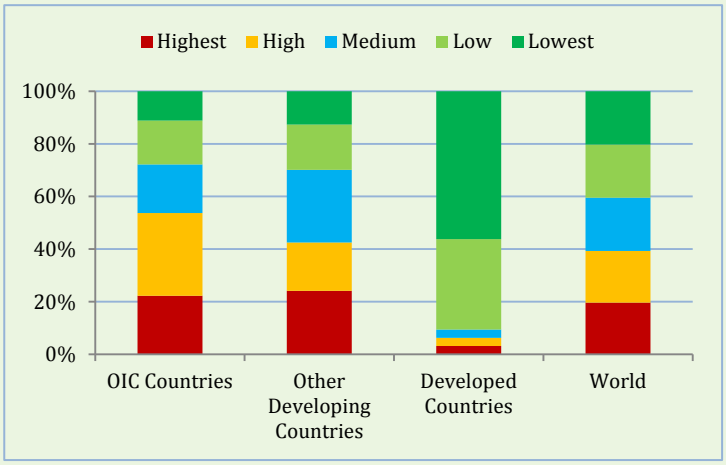
As far as cost of damages by natural disasters are concerned in monetary terms, earthquake, with almost US$ 70 billion damages during 1970-2012, accounts for 45% of total economic damages of natural disasters in OIC countries. It is followed by flood with 35%, amounting to US$ 53 billion (Figure 2.8). Along with storm (8.3%) and wildfire (6.4%), the four most destructive natural disasters collectively accounted for 95% of total cost of damages in the OIC region during 1970-2012.

Distribution of economic cost during 1970-2012 within the OIC region is depicted in Figure 2.9. Over the 43 years, natural disasters cost Turkey almost US$ 30 billion, corresponding to 17.7% of the total in OIC region. Almost 92% of these damages in Turkey are caused by earthquakes. Pakistan with US$ 24 billion, mostly flood, ranked at second, accounting for 16.4% of that of OIC. In case of Indonesia (15.8%), earthquake and wildfire were the most destructive natural disasters during 1970-2012 (Figure 2.9).

2.2 Risks and Vulnerabilities

Assessing the risks induced by being prone to hazards and the risks induced by vulnerabilities are integral parts of disaster risk assessment. The *"vulnerability"* is defined as the physical, social, economic, and environmental capacities and conditions of each country for devising effective risk management policies and strategies, and implementing measures for reducing the impact of hazards on vulnerable local communities (UNISDR, 2011), which determine the scale of damage from the impact of a given hazard (UNDP, 2004). Therefore, in assessing the risk of natural disasters for any geographic division (e.g., a country or a group of countries), especially with the purpose of reducing risks, it is necessary to take account of the risks

Figure 2.10: Distribution of Countries based on World Risk Index



Source: UNU-EHS, 2012.

*53% of OIC countries are classified in the **high risk** groups (yellow and red regions in the figure) while this ratio is **42%** in other developing countries and as low as **6%** in developed countries.*

induced by vulnerabilities as well as those induced by being prone to natural hazards. This is particularly true if one considers the fact that disaster or its risk arises when hazards (such as flood, storms, droughts, etc.) interact with physical, social, economic and environmental vulnerabilities and considerably impact systems societies rely on.

In this context, the World Risk Index (WRI), developed by the United Nations University Institute for Environment and Human Security (UNU-EHS), measures the likelihood that a country or region will be affected by a disaster.[4] WRI is comprised of four main components, namely, exposure to natural hazards, susceptibility, coping capacities, and adaptive capacities – where the latter three components aim at measuring the vulnerability of the population.[5] Figure 2.10 gives the distribution of different country groups with respect to their WRI scores. According to the figure, 53% of OIC countries are classified in the high risk groups (yellow and red regions in the figure) while this ratio is 42% in other developing countries and as low as 6% in developed countries. The 2012 index ranks Qatar the least risky with an index value of 0.1 whereas Vanuatu is ranked the most risky with a score of 36.31.

[4] UNU-EHS database defines risk (and, therefore, likelihood) as interaction between a hazard type (war, earthquake, drought, flood, cyclone, etc.) and the vulnerability of the societies. In other words, WRI is the product of exposure and vulnerability indices.

[5] A more detailed diagram for calculating the WRI is given on pages 12/13 of the World Risk Report 2012. www.worldriskreport.en

2.2.1 Exposure and Vulnerability to Natural Hazards

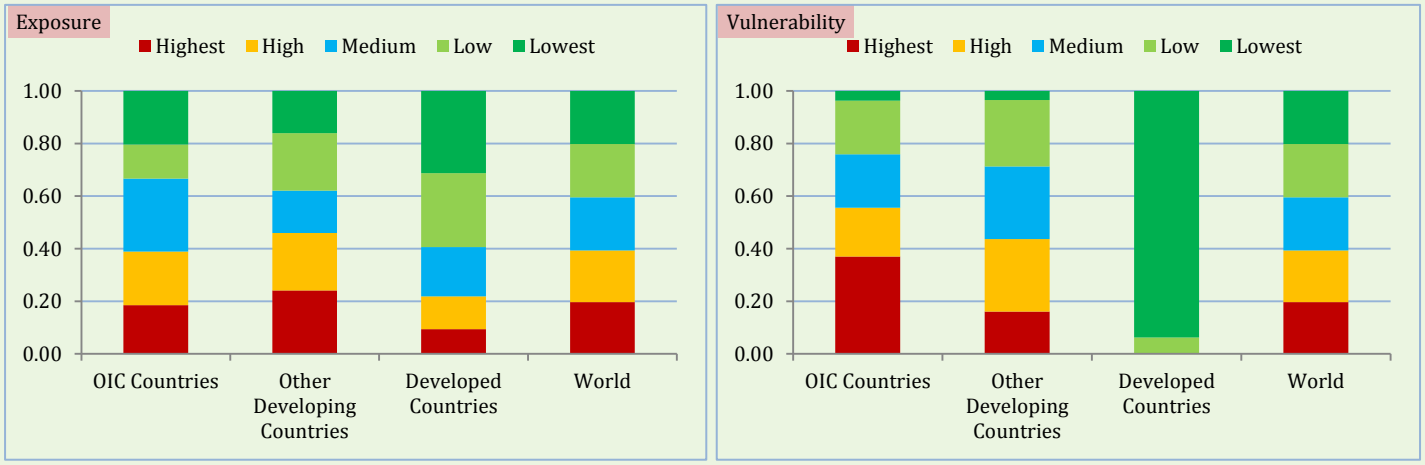
It is crucial for the purpose of risk management to know whether the difference in frequency of natural disasters across countries is due to being relatively more prone to higher number of natural hazards, which is beyond control, or due to lack of capacities and conditions for reducing risks and vulnerabilities that lead natural hazards to become disasters, which can be improved.

Figure 2.11, in this regard, reveals an important fact: OIC countries, according to the UNU-EHS database, are much more vulnerable to disasters than they are physically exposed to them. According to the figure (right panel), 37% of the member countries are classified within the highest vulnerability category, as compared to 16% in the case of other developing countries. On the contrary, only 19% of the member countries are among the countries with highest exposure to disasters (left panel). At the end, a significant portion of the OIC population is confronted with the disastrous combination of extreme exposure and high vulnerability.

2.2.2 Determinants of Vulnerability to Impacts of Natural Hazards

Vulnerability encompasses conditions determined by physical, social, economic and environmental factors or processes that increase the susceptibility of a community to the impact of hazards. In other words, vulnerability amplifies the tolls taken by natural hazards and leads them toward becoming disasters.

Figure 2.11: Distribution of Countries based on Exposure and Vulnerable Indices



Source: UNU-EHS, 2012.

In the dataset provided by the UNU-EHS, vulnerability refers to social, physical, economic and environmental related factors that make people or systems more vulnerable to the impacts of natural hazards and to the impacts of climate change.

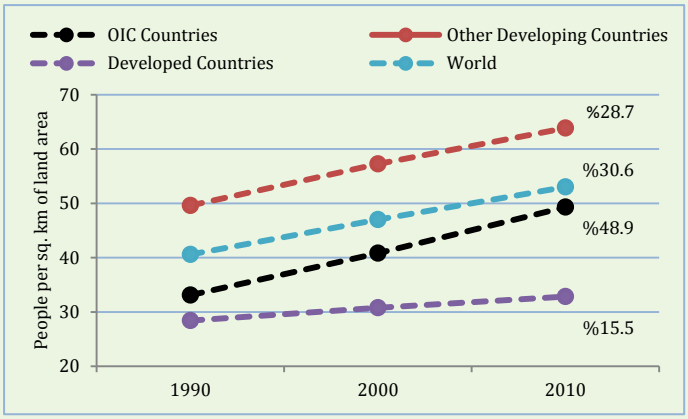
Susceptibility

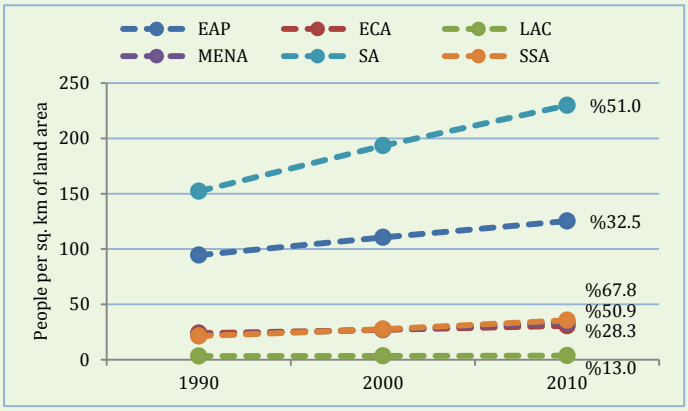
Susceptibility refers to the conditions of exposed communities or other exposed elements (infrastructures, ecosystems etc.) which make them more likely to experience harm and to be negatively affected by a natural hazard or by climate change. Therefore, susceptibility describes structural characteristics and framework conditions of a society. In UNU-EHS dataset, public infrastructure, housing conditions, nutrition, poverty and dependencies, and economic capacity and income distribution represents susceptibility. In the following, major determinants of vulnerability in OIC countries are presented.

Susceptibility of human lives to natural disasters can simply be measured by the land density of population. High population growth rates result in increased population density, resulting in increased susceptibility – thus, vulnerability – to natural disasters. Between 1990 and 2010, the population density in OIC countries, measured by people living in each square km. of land area, has increased by almost a half, recording the highest growth rate against other developing as well as developed countries (Figure 2.12 top panel). OIC countries in South Asia (SA) region, followed by those in East Asia and Pacific (EAP), have on average the highest population densities – a situation which helps natural hazards in these regions, once triggered, easily turn into natural calamities (Figure 2.12 bottom panel).

The density of the economic output in a country, measured by its GDP per sq. of land area, can be decomposed into the productivity of inputs such as capital, labour, land, energy, materials, etc., measured by the volume of output per unit of input, and the density of these inputs in that country, measured by their quantity per sq. km. of land area. Clearly, the more economically productive inputs the country has, ceteris paribus, the more susceptible it is to natural disasters and, therefore, in the spirit of the context of vulnerability, the more vulnerable it is to natural disasters. The same argument is pretty much valid for the density of inputs as well, i.e. the more dense the productive inputs in a country are, ceteris paribus, the more exposed this country is to natural disasters. Having said that, the output density of a country can be used, in "nominal" terms, as a proxy for the extent to which the country is exposed to natural disasters, i.e. the value it is putting at risk in each square of land. Figure 2.13, in this regard, depicts the GDP and Gross Fixed Capital Formation (GFCF) densities for different country groups. As shown in the figure, OIC countries have relatively little exposure per sq. km of land to natural disasters in terms of the value of the economic capital exposed.

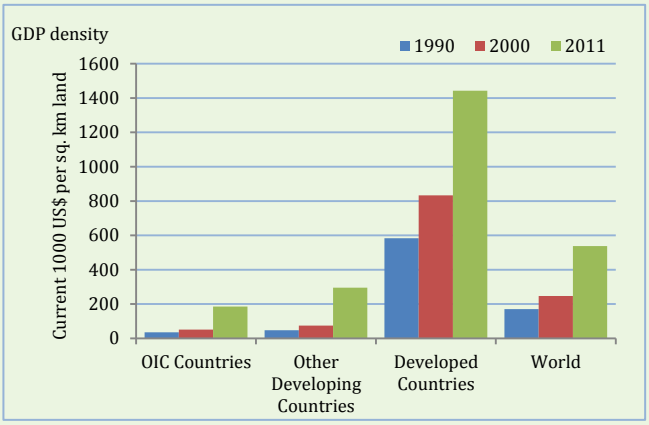
Figure 2.12: Population Density in OIC and its Regions

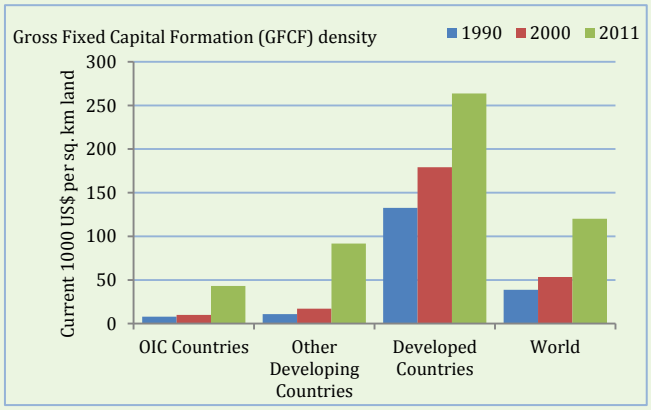




Source: UN National Accounts Main Aggregates Online Database.

Figure 2.13: GDP and GFCF Densities





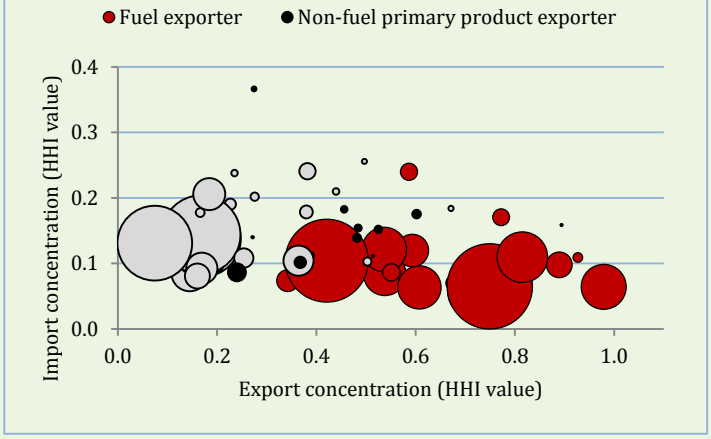
Source: UN National Accounts Main Aggregates Online Database.

The susceptibility of humans and economic output can be mitigated by ensuring a better dispersion of the productive assets and population within the country, and putting in place more effective protection measures. The Japan earthquake and tsunami in 2011, for example, was perhaps one of the notable examples of the interaction of the concentration of economic output and productive assets, natural hazards and disaster triggering events.

Concentration of trade in a few products also is also argued to increase the vulnerability to natural disasters – particularly through increasing the economic exposure. The UNCTAD's Trade Concentration Index, which measures the level of concentration in individual commodities as part of the total merchandise exports and imports, is computed by means of the Herfindahl-Hirschmann Index (HHI). The Index is a widely used measure of the degree of market concentration. The HHI assumes values on a scale of 0 to 1, indicating minimum and maximum concentration, respectively, and gauges a country's lack of product-level diversification of trade of goods. Trade concentration in products can be an important source of disaster exposure – and, thus, vulnerability – for several reasons including factors such as the price volatility and supply security (particularly in the case of fuel products). As indicated in Figure 6.3, a significant portion of OIC countries depend on trade of either fuel or non-fuel primary products as the main source of their trade earnings and, hence, economic growth – a situation which makes them more vulnerable to the external shocks of triggering events (such as flood, earthquake, etc.) on the production of these commodities and increases the likelihood of disasters.

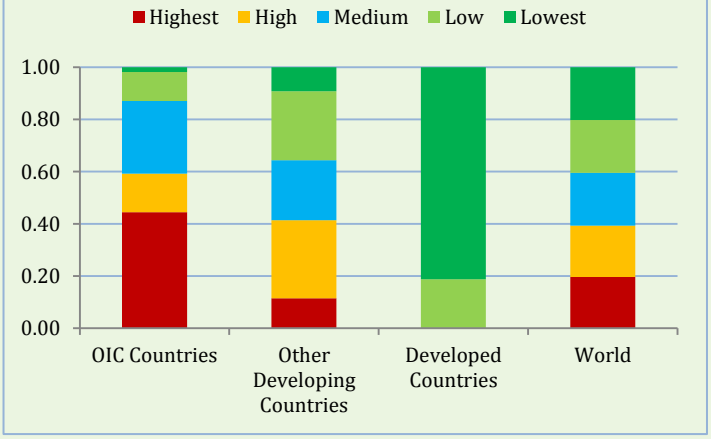
Disaster vulnerability in OIC countries sources from a wide range of factors which, in turn, requires substantial and long-term commitment from all stakeholders to overcome these challenges.

Figure 2.14: Merchandise Trade Concentration



Source: UNCTAD Statistics Online, * Bubble sizes are proportional to country's total merchandise trade.

Figure 2.15: Distribution of Countries based on Susceptibility Index



Source: UNU-EHS, 2012.

In a nutshell, OIC countries are on average less susceptible to natural disasters in terms of the density of their economic assets, but more in terms of that of population and human capital as well as in terms of their large dependency on primary products such as oil, gas and agriculturals. The relatively low exposure in terms of the economic capital is, on the other hand, largely offset by the relatively high marginal benefit of the economic output for the member countries due to on average low per capita output in most of these countries. However, it is without doubt that a better understanding of the level of susceptibility to natural disasters in OIC member countries requires the in-depth analysis of a broader spectrum of indicators including those related to the relative size of arable and dependency on agriculture, the quality of public infrastructures, spatial distribution of the population and economic assets, quality of urban planning, etc.

To be able to give an overall picture of susceptibility in OIC countries, the distribution of different country groups based on the susceptibility component of the WRI is depicted in Figure 2.15. Almost 60% of the OIC countries fall into the high-susceptibility region – according to their score in the WRI susceptibility component. Out of this, 44% even fall into the highest-susceptibility category – pointing to significant deficiencies in various areas which directly affect the level of susceptibility.

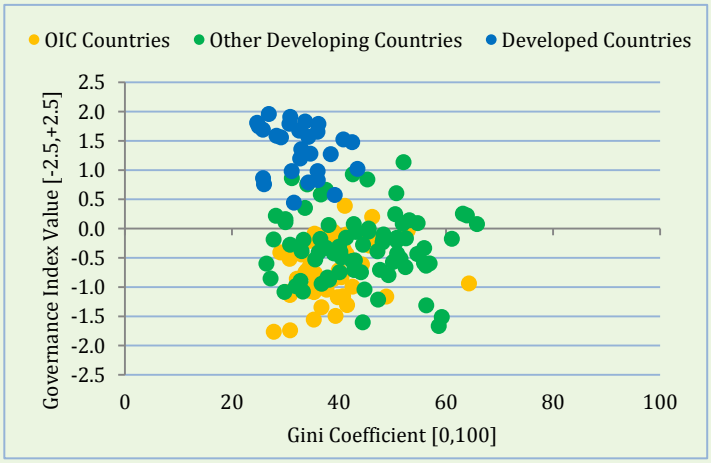
Coping Capacities

The quality of a country's capacities and conditions for disaster management appears to have a significant influence on the underlying drivers of risk. When similar numbers of people are affected by hazards of similar severity, wealthier and poorer countries generally experience radically different losses and impacts.[6] Whereas relative wealth is a key determinant, other factors such as the strength of democracy[7], inequality[8], corruption[9], and voice and accountability (UNISDR, 2009) also play roles in the social construction of risk. Countries with higher income, lower inequality, lower corruption and more democratic regimes have been found to experience fewer casualties from disasters. Drivers of inadequate capacities for risk management include, among others, badly planned and managed urban and regional development. In this connection, coping capacities and adaptive capacities refer to the ability of societies to use their own resources and their long-term strategy in preventing the natural hazard events.

Income inequality, indeed, is one of the root causes behind the elevated socio-economic fragility which, in turn, feeds into lack of coping capacities and elevated vulnerability to natural disasters. Income inequality represents the extent of unbalanced

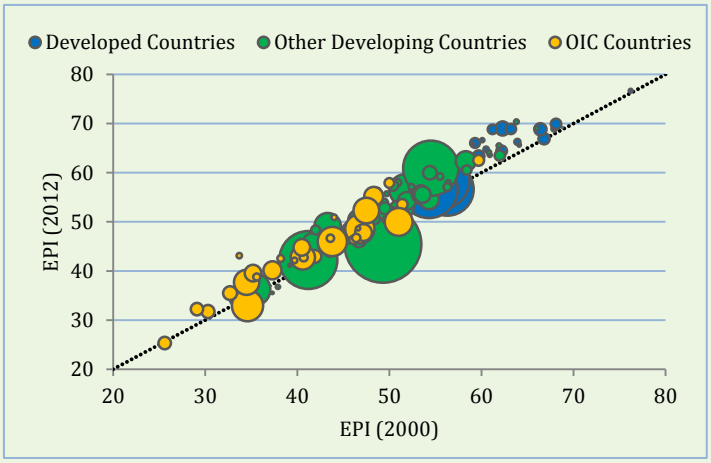
[6] See, e.g., Anbarci et al., 2005; Kahn, 2005; Kellenberg and Mobarak, 2008; UNISDR, 2009; Keefer et al., 2011.
[7] See, e.g., Kahn, 2005; Keefer et al., 2011
[8] See, e.g., Anbarci et al., 2005; Kahn, 2005; UNISDR, 2009
[9] See, e.g., Escaleras et al., 2007; Keefer et al., 2011

Figure 2.16: Income Inequality vs. Governance*



Source: World Bank WDI Online & World Bank Worldwide Governance Indicators (WGI) Project Database. * 2010 or latest year available.

Figure 2.17: Environmental Performance Index, EPI (2000 vs .2012)

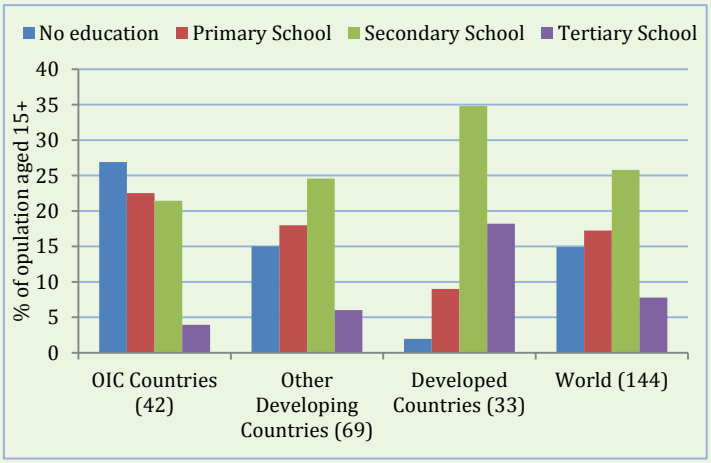


Source: Yale University. * Bubble sizes are proportional to country's land area

access to resources and economic capital. Some studies find that countries with a higher degree of average income inequality, measured by indicators such as the Gini coefficient, are more vulnerable in terms of disaster death rates. These results suggest that higher concentrations of wealth and power result in a more vulnerable society. Poor governance, on the other hand, is suggested by the literature to have significant distributional implications – particularly through the channel of efficiency in the allocation of resources. In Figure 2.16, the Gini Coefficient, which has lower and upper bounds of 0 and 1, respectively, is depicted against the Kauffman's Governance Index with values ranging from -2.5 to 2.5. The figure reveals at least two key facts: first, there is an apparent (significant) negative relationship between the quality of governance and that of the income distribution, and, second, the majority of the OIC countries are characterized by poor governance and modest levels of distributional quality. As income inequality is believed to have a detrimental impact on the poor and, thus, socio-economic fragility of the population, OIC countries are faced with another important challenge to overcome to build a more resilient society.

Controllable environmental factors, such as depletion of air, water, and soil, deforestation, and variety of others determine the extent of a society's ability to cope with the adverse effects of triggering events and develop adaptive capacities against them. Therefore, apart from its determining role on the severity of natural hazards, environmental sustainability also plays an essential role in determining the level of vulnerability to natural disasters. Environmental changes are directly related to natural ecosystem change, shift in disease patterns, degradation of natural resources, deforestation, and some other environmental changes which have a significant impact on the vulnerability patterns. In this context, the Environmental Performance Index (EPI) by Yale University ranks countries on performance indicators tracked across policy categories that cover both environmental public health dimensions, such as indoor air pollution and access to drinking water and sanitation, as well as ecosystem vitality dimensions, such as the emissions of toxic gases, biodiversity and habitat protection, deforestation, climate change and renewable energy. The individual performances of OIC countries, in terms of EPI, are depicted against other developing as well as developed countries in Figure 2.17 comparatively for the years 2000 and 2012. According to the figure, a significant majority of the OIC land area, and therefore population, is exposed to poorly-managed environmental conditions and the progress over the last decade has been modest when compared to some other developing and developed countries.

Figure 2.18: Educational Attainment (2010)



Source: World Bank Education Statistics

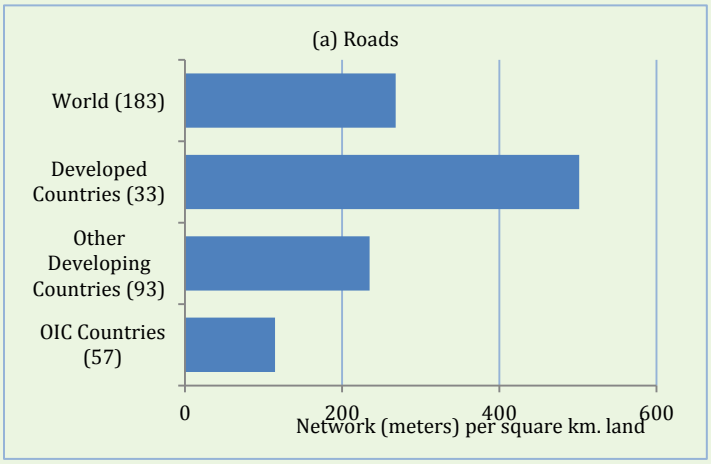
*The proportion of population **without any educational degree** is on average as high as 27% in the OIC member countries, reflecting the limited capability to reduce disaster risks.*

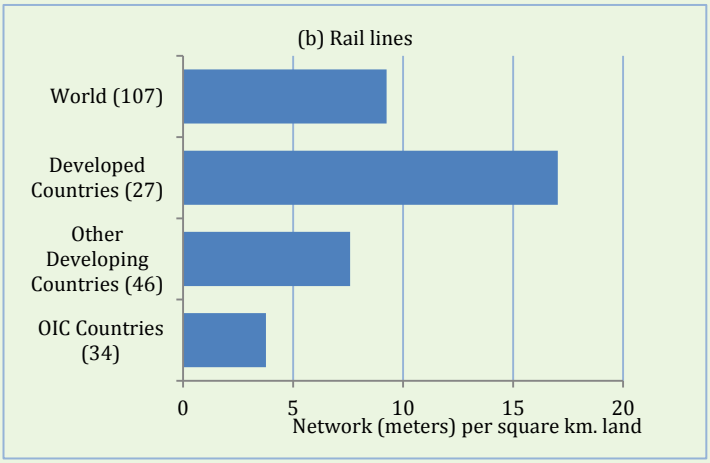
Education is believed to significantly improve awareness with regard to natural disasters and their underlying factors, and improve the resilience of people to these events by reducing their social impacts. Therefore, investment in education is promoted as being one of the most effective strategies for preparing to cope with the uncertainty associated with future disasters. Figure 2.18, in this context, introduces another challenge for OIC countries: based on the 2010 data from World Bank Education Statistics Online Database which is available for 42 OIC member countries, the proportion of population without any educational degree is on average as high as 27% in the member countries, as compared to only 4% with a tertiary school diploma. The proportion of high school graduates is, on the other hand, 21%. Other developing countries are comparably in a better position, however. In developed countries, the portion of the population without any educational attainment is as low as 2% whereas 35% and 18% of the population in these countries hold secondary school and tertiary school diplomas, respectively. As education levels in a society rise, there is often a greater willingness to take personal actions or to participate in community activities aimed at reducing risks from and vulnerabilities to disasters. Much of this may be tied to a rising capacity to take control of one's own life. The low levels of education may, however, be a particular challenge to introducing those changes that could reduce disaster risks.

Developing countries are particularly vulnerable to an array of disasters because infrastructure, including transportation, tends to be inadequate in both quantity and quality, and thus less resilient to disruptions. Natural hazards trigger a phase transition where the resulting transport conditions are very different to those ex-antes. When interacted with the natural hazards, vulnerabilities in the transportation infrastructure can lead to disasters by constituting a setback for the efficient coordination of response and recovery efforts and limiting the outreach of relief activities. OIC countries with their low capacity in various modes of transport, measured relative to the land size, are lacking the vital infrastructure to build resilience against natural hazards and natural disaster risks – lagging also behind other developed as well as developing countries. As indicated in Figure 2.19, the OIC countries, with the most recent available data as of 2012, have on average only 115 meters of road (only half of this is paved) and 4 meters of rail network per sq. km. of land area as compared to 235 and 8 meters in other developing countries and 502 and 17 meters in developed countries – for road and rail, respectively. The same argument is also true for air and maritime transport modes. As an earlier SESRIC report[10] reveals, in OIC countries, airport transportation infrastructure, in terms of both number of airports and carrying capacity, is weak

[10] SESRIC, 2012. Transportation Networks in OIC Member Countries: Impact on Tourism and Trade. Outlook Report, May.

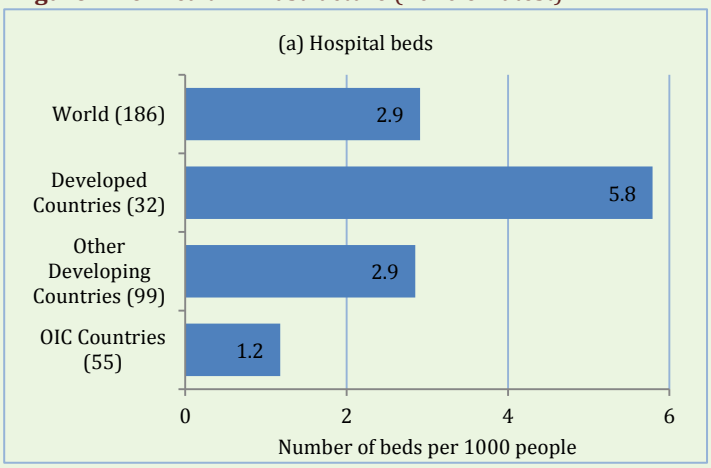
Figure 2.19: Road and Rail Lines (2010 or latest)

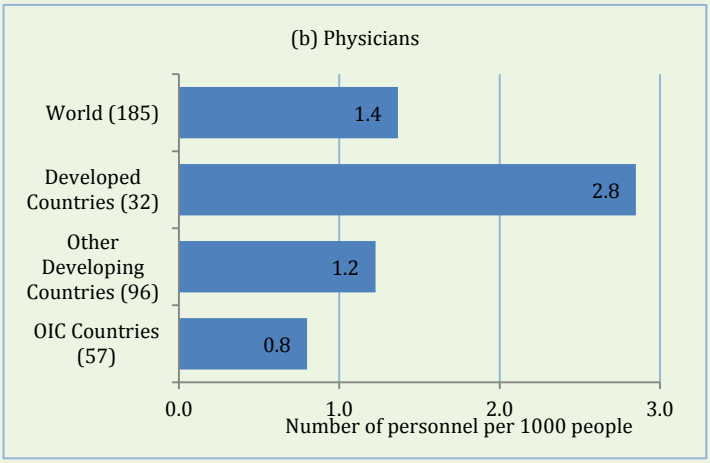




Source: World Bank WDI Online Database

Figure 2.20: Health Infrastructure (2010 or latest)





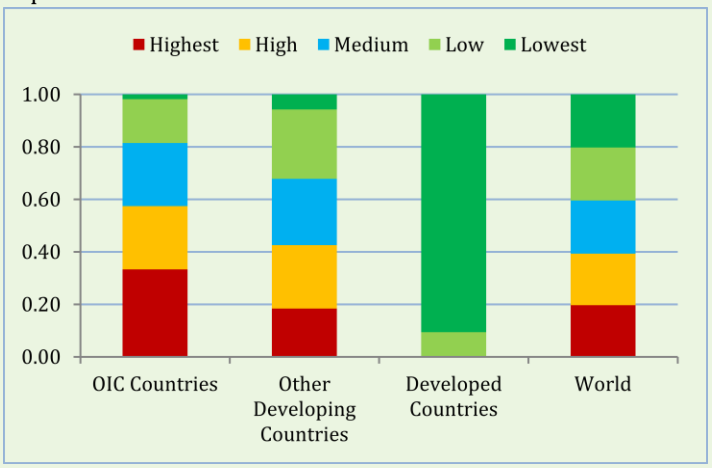
Source: World Health Organization (WHO)

and maritime transport is inadequate particularly due to the poor port infrastructure.

The level of disaster vulnerability among different population groups involves the measurement of systematic disparities in health infrastructure and capacity across these groups both before and after a disaster. The extent to which a health system's ability to care for exposed population is subject to disruptions before or during a disaster determines the level of vulnerability of that population to disasters. As a rough measure of this ability, Figure 2.20 depicts the number of hospital beds and physicians for per 1000 people living in the corresponding country group. These figures suggest that the OIC member countries are facing another challenge in the health infrastructures and adequacy of skilled health workforce.

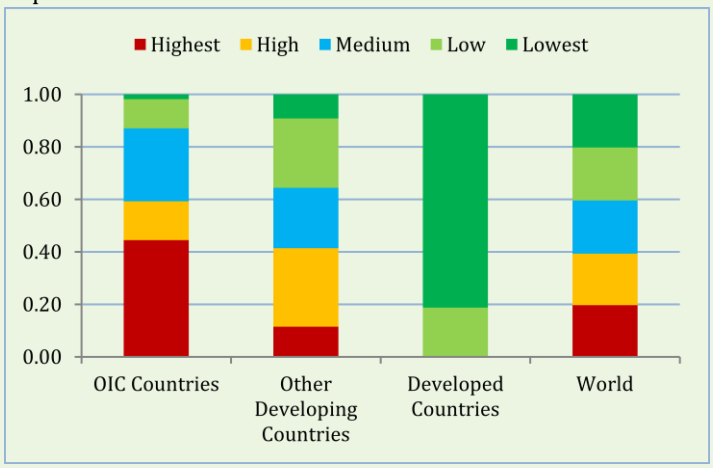
Last but not least, Information and Communications Technology (ICT) can be used to minimize the impact of disasters in many ways and almost all phases of disasters. For example, in the disaster mitigation and preparedness process, ICT is widely used to create early warning systems and to the extent that official communication is transmitted through ICT media (such as radio, television, telephone and internet), people using these media might be able to obtain critical information. Therefore, it is essential that ICT is given its due place in disaster management. However, the comparative performance of OIC countries in some other key ICT indicators is not promising as compared to other developing as well as developed countries in their ICT infrastructure, when measured by subscriptions to fixed and mobile-cellular telephones as well as fixed low-speed

Figure 2.21: Distribution of Countries based on Lack of Coping Capacities Sub-index



Source: UNU-EHS, 2012.

Figure 2.22: Distribution of Countries based on Lack of Adaptive Capacities Sub-index



Source: UNU-EHS, 2012.

and broadband internet. According to the most recent International Telecommunication Union (ITU) data, on average four out of five inhabitants in OIC countries do not use internet, compared to almost one-fifth in developed countries.

In view of the above analysis, Figure 2.21 shows the dispersion of OIC countries based on their scores in the Lack of Coping Capacities Sub-index of the WRI – as compared, again, to other country groups. The figure reveals the grievous fact that 57% of the member countries fall into the two categories which are associated with the severe lack of coping capacities (24% high and 33% highest). In comparison, respectively 24% and 18% of other developing countries are characterised by a severe and the severest lack of coping capacities.

All in all, most OIC countries still rely on the traditional disaster management structures that are mainly international post-disaster response and relief agencies, and lack the capacities for effective risk reduction. This grim fact is reflected in the poor risk reduction capabilities indicated by the Risk Reduction Index. According to the release in 2011 (GAR 2011), about 75% of the OIC member countries are identified as having low or extremely low capacities for effective risk management policies, strategies and activities for reducing the impact of natural hazards on vulnerable local communities. On the other hand, individual efforts particularly for mitigation and preparedness have so far lacked the systemic facilitation and enhancement of collective disaster risk reduction capacities among the member countries as an effective mechanism for assisting the low income member countries that lack the required coping capacities and are the most at the risk of human and capital losses due to disasters.

Adaptive Capacities

Adaptation is defined as a long-term strategy that not only aims to promote change and transformation but also encompasses measures and strategies dealing with and attempting to address the negative impacts of natural hazards and climate change in the future (UNISDR, 2012). For instance, in order to be able to survive with the changing environmental conditions, a farmer who aims to adapt to drought, may need to change his calendar of cropping or perhaps the crops themselves.

Similar to earlier figures where other two sub-components of WRI were reported, Figure 2.22 provides the distribution of different country groups, including the OIC, based on the extent to which they lack *adaptive capacities*. It should be noted from the figure that the OIC countries exhibit the most pessimistic look in this type of capacity. Almost 60% of the member countries are confronted with a severe or the severest lack of adaptive capacities (15% high and 44% highest).

Having a long-term strategy to deal with the negative impacts of natural hazards is the key factor in preventing in understanding the importance of adaptive capacities. Although the causes and impacts of natural hazards are increasingly well understood, the escalating losses associated with natural hazards indicate that long-term strategies are still lacking in many OIC countries.

All in all, this sub- section identified the major sources of risks and vulnerabilities to natural disaster in OIC countries – through examining their collective performance in a number of areas including susceptibility, and lack of coping and adaptive capacities. This was done through analysing indicators such as the output and productive capital density, population concentration, and trade concentration, income inequality, quality of governance, environmental performance, education, and transportation, health and ITC infrastructure. The results confirm the very fact that vulnerability is multi-faceted phenomenon. Analyses suggest that the disaster vulnerability in OIC countries source from a wide range of factors which, in turn, requires substantial and long-term commitment from all stakeholders, including the public, government institutions, civil society and the private sector to overcome these challenges.

AN OVERVIEW OF CONFLICTS IN OIC COUNTRIES

3

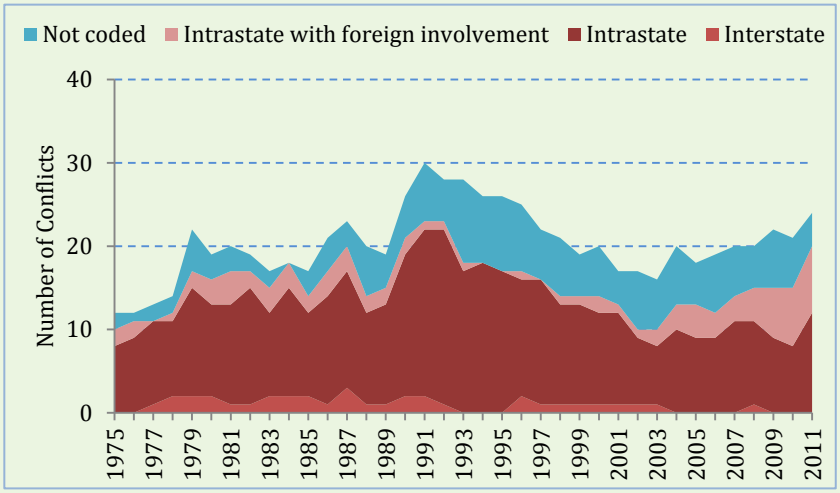
Over the last five years, major disturbances have shaken the countries around the globe. A food crisis in 2008 generated violence and political turmoil around the world. This was followed in 2009 by the worst global economic and financial crisis ever since World War II. While 2010 became one of the deadliest years for natural disasters due to the earthquake in Haiti and the flooding in Pakistan, the earthquake and tsunami in Japan made 2011 the most costly year ever recorded. Also in 2011, people across the Middle East and North Africa demonstrated for more freedom and rights, stimulating democratic movements across the region.

One thing is clear; the world is facing increasingly more challenges with respect to natural hazards and conflicts. Developmental gains accumulated over many years are exposed to greater risks of devastation with the onset of a disaster. According to the HSRP, during the period 1946-2005, 53 OIC member countries have spent a total of 621 years in conflicts, or 11.7 years per country. Almost 3 million people have died in OIC countries during these conflicts, or more than 4,600 per conflict. This average is almost the same for 107 non-OIC countries with 11 years of conflict. However, the death toll in non-OIC countries reached to over 7 million during this period.

In a World Bank report, Walter (2010) identifies three patterns that exist regarding conflicts and their recurrence. First, civil wars have a surprisingly high repetition rate. Of the 103 countries that experienced some form of conflict during 1945-2009, 59 countries could not avoid a subsequent return to civil war. This indicates that once a country experiences a conflict, it is significantly more likely to experience additional episodes of violence, confirming "conflict trap" argument of Collier and Sambanis (2002). The second trend identified by Walter is that recurring civil wars have become the dominant form of armed conflict in the world today. In fact, since 2003 every civil war that has started has been a continuation of a previous civil war, suggesting that the problem of civil war is not a problem of preventing new conflicts from arising, but of permanently ending the ones that have already started. Finally, civil wars are increasingly concentrated in a few regions of the world. The result is a greater number of civil wars concentrated in sub-Saharan Africa, suggesting that civil wars are increasingly being concentrated in the poorest and weakest states of the world.

In view of the above, this section reviews the conflicts and fragilities in OIC countries. This includes the trends in the number of conflicts, compared with other countries, the number of deaths in these conflicts and the nature of conflicts. This section also scrutinizes the major drivers of conflicts and vulnerabilities to conflicts in OIC countries.

Figure 3.1: Nature of Conflicts in OIC Countries (1975-2011)



Source: The Uppsala Conflict Database

The nature of conflicts in OIC countries is changing; with 8 records, the number of intrastate conflicts with foreign involvement reached to its highest level in 2011.

3.1 An Overview of Conflicts

Global systems following the World War II were mostly designed to manage interstate tensions. Yet, since 1945 there have been three broad shifts in the pattern of armed conflict: the end of colonial warfare, the almost disappeared conflicts between states, and a rise in conflicts within states. There are various classifications of conflicts around the world. The Human Security Report[11] refers to "state-based armed conflict" as the one in which one of the warring parties is the government of a state and in which there are more than 25 reported battle deaths in the calendar year.[12] A "major armed conflict," on the other hand, is defined as one in which cumulative deaths have reached 1,000. Finally, a "war" is an armed conflict in which there are 1,000 battle deaths each year.[13]

According to the Conflict Barometer 2012, the number of conflicts observed globally increased from 83 in 1945 to 396 in 2012,[14] including more than 40 OIC member countries with both low-intensity and high-intensity conflicts. The Stockholm International Peace Research Institute (SIPRI)[15] reviews the pattern of major armed conflict from 2000-2009 in its 2010 Yearbook and finds a decline in the number of conflicts over the decade – there had been a 25% reduction by mid-decade, but after that there was a slight increase again toward the end of the decade.

Figure 3.1 shows the nature of conflicts in OIC countries since 1975. According to the Uppsala Conflict Database, the total number of conflicts in a given year in OIC countries increased from 12 in 1975 to 30 in 1999, and then decreased back to 16 in 2003. Since then, it bounced back to 24 as of 2011. Half of these conflicts in 2011 were intrastate conflicts with no foreign involvement. On the other hand, with 8 records, the number of intrastate conflicts with foreign involvement reached to its highest level in 2011. No interstate conflict is recorded in 2011.

[11] The Human Security Report Project (HSRP) is an independent research centre affiliated with Simon Fraser University (SFU) in Vancouver, Canada. The HSRP tracks global and regional trends in organized violence, their causes and consequences. Research findings and analyses are published in the Human Security Report, Human Security Brief series, and the miniAtlas of Human Security.

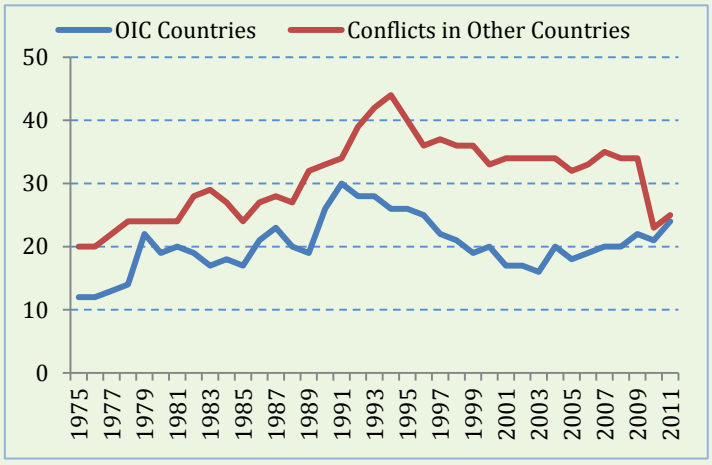
[12] This definition was originally developed by the Uppsala University's Department of Peace and Conflict Research. Certain politically-rooted identity conflicts are not included in this definition as government forces are not usually involved.

[13] It is critically important to understand that the use of these necessarily arbitrary numerical criteria for defining war is strictly an attempt to develop a reasonably consistent way of looking at trends. It is certainly not for the purpose of deciding which conflicts warrant urgent attention – i.e. the point is not to ignore a conflict with 999 deaths, but engage when it's 1001. Of course, an incident in South Sudan that produces 200 deaths and drives 20,000 people from their homes is an armed conflict that should and has focused attention on efforts toward stability there. The way it is handled statistically and is categorized by the research community has nothing to do with how it should be handled by the diplomatic and peacebuilding communities (Regher, 2013).

[14] This increase can be partly attributed to improved availability of information on current conflicts in recent decades.

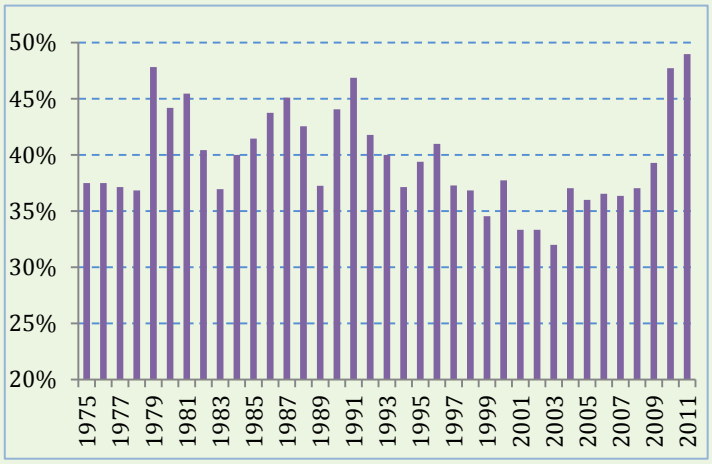
[15] SIPRI is an independent international institute dedicated to research into conflict, armaments, arms control and disarmament.

Figure 3.2: Conflict Trends in OIC Countries (1975-2011)



Source: The Uppsala Conflict Database

Figure 3.3: Share of OIC in Total Conflicts



Source: The Uppsala Conflict Database

One-third of the conflicts that were underway in 1987 around the world are still active today – testifying to the longevity of contemporary war. Of the 28 conflicts in 2011, only six are less than a decade old. Six have been underway for more than three decades, seven more for more than two decades, and another nine for more than one decade.

As highlighted before, 57% of all countries that suffered from one conflict between 1945 and 2009 experienced at least one conflict thereafter. It is important to identify what makes certain countries particularly susceptible to repeated conflicts. Political institutions are definitely the key to explaining why some countries can escape the conflict trap while others do not. Following Walter (2010), it is reasonable to argue that civil wars tend to recur in countries where the government can neither defeat an insurgent movement nor credibly commit to a peace plan. If a government was strong enough to defeat the rebels, or trustworthy enough to negotiate a peace settlement, it would eventually do so and war would end. The situation is generally even more challenging when no functioning government exist to settle a peace agreement. This will remain an important issue for OIC community to help those member states that are stuck in conflict trap.

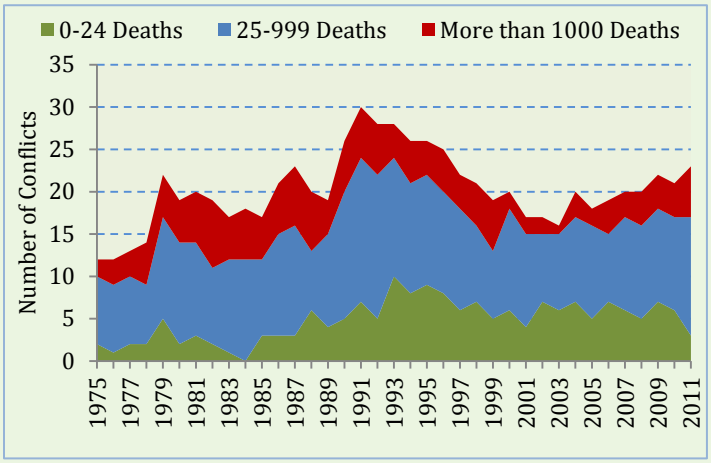
Conflicts in OIC Countries follow an overall increasing trend

A relatively simple typology of armed conflict relies on four basic categories: international or inter-state war, plus three overlapping types of intrastate war (state control, state formation, and state failure). According to Regehr (2013), out of the 81 wars that occurred during the last 24 years, 51% included state control objectives, 35% included state formation objectives, 25% reflected failed state conditions, and 11% was inter-state wars. In SIPRI's review of conflicts in the last decade it found that about 75% were over "governmental power" and about 25% over territorial issues.

According to the Uppsala Conflict Database, the number of conflicts in OIC countries followed an oscillating but overall increasing trend between 1975 and 1991. The falling trend during 1990s has been reversed by an upward trend after 2003 (Figure 3.2). During the same period, the number of conflict in non-OIC countries has fallen. Accordingly, the share of conflicts in OIC countries in total armed conflicts increased from 32% in 2003 to almost 50% as of 2011 (Figure 3.3).

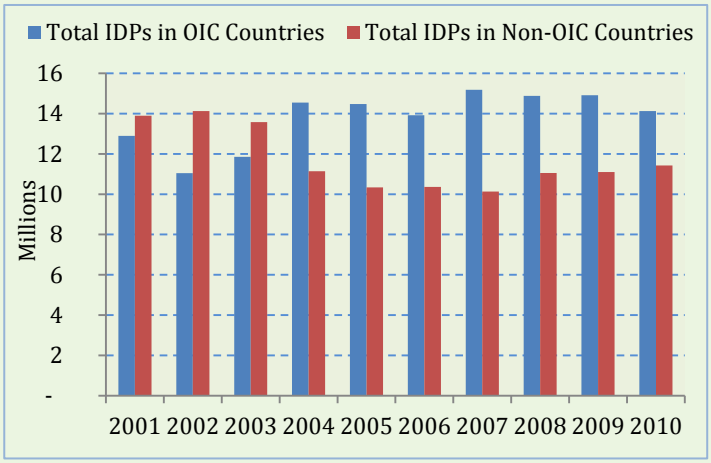
With respect to intensity of the conflicts in terms of death tolls, more than half of the conflicts in 2011 caused casualties between 25 and 999 (Figure 3.4). One fourth of the conflicts caused more than 1000 deaths. The number of conflicts with low-level casualties remained mostly within the range of 4-10 since 1987.

Figure 3.4: Scale of Conflicts in OIC Countries (1975-2011)



Source: The Uppsala Conflict Database

Figure 3.5: Internally Displaced People (IDPs) (2001-2010)



Source: The Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC).

In Africa, there are a number of ongoing armed conflicts. In some of these, there is fighting for what is essentially control of the state, or part of it, but some also include failed state conflicts – that is, more localized conflict that is focused neither on overthrowing the current government nor in reshaping the state but is rooted in the state's lack of capacity to maintain order and mediate local disputes. Notably, only few of Africa's current wars can be said to be about state formation. This is noteworthy because Africa has typically been regarded as a continent carved up into states with boundaries to suit imperial interests rather than local coherence, with the assumption that this colonial legacy is behind much of its enduring conflict. The conflict in Somalia includes state formation elements – the northern part of the country has since 1991 functioned as an independent state (Somaliland) – though it is not internationally recognized as a state. Other areas, such as Puntland in the north east, also function autonomously and it is not clear how these quasi-separatist states will link to Somalia as a whole once the fighting ends.

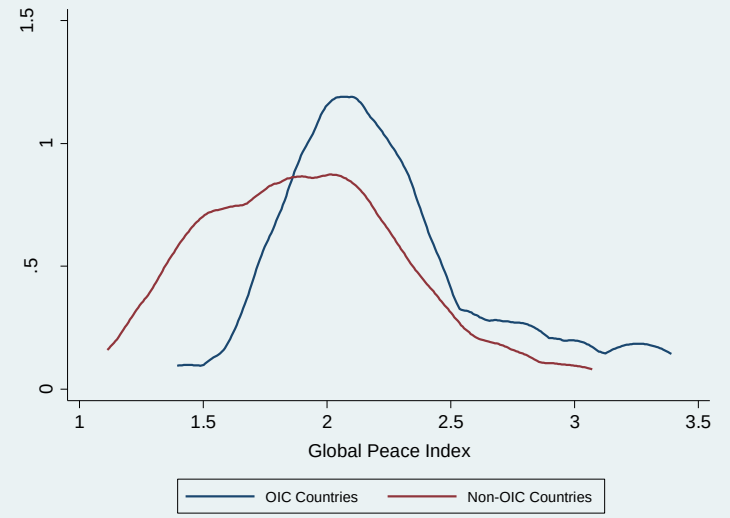
In Asia and Middle East, major hotspots are Syria, Afghanistan, Pakistan and Iraq. While Iraq and Afghanistan try to stabilize their systems after invasions, Pakistan struggles to maintain political stability amid conflicts with various armed groups. As being the major hotspot, the people in Syria first peacefully demanded reform by holding protests but then violently suppressed. The situation has been escalated from day to day and the country turned into a major source of instability for the region.

Moreover, millions of people are being forced to flee their homes because of conflict or violence across the OIC region, often with little or no possessions. Some crossed a national border in search of refuge; others remained within their country and became internally displaced people (IDPs). IDPs in every region faced a range of risks related to their displacement, including threats to their physical security and integrity, a lack of access to basic necessities and livelihoods, and violations of their rights relating to housing, land and property. As shown in Figure 3.5, the number of IDPs in OIC countries is estimated to be more than that in non-OIC countries since 2003. As of 2010, more than 14 million people in the OIC countries are internally displaced.[16]

The circumstances of people's displacement and their long-term prospects are as diverse as the situations of violence or conflict which had forced them to flee. For example, while the uprisings in the Arab region resulted in short-term spikes of displacement throughout the year, in Iraq well over two million people remained locked in situations of protracted internal displacement. In Afghanistan,

[16] While the database provided by IDMC is unique, frequently updated and reflects conflict-induced internal displacement around the globe, estimations for some countries are undetermined or provided within a certain range. No proxy is used for undetermined cases, but upper bound of the estimations used for the calculations.

Figure 3.6: Distribution of OIC Countries with respect to their GPI Scores (2012)



Source: Global Peace Index 2012.

According to the Global Peace Index (GPI), developed by the Institute for Economics and Peace in Australia, however, the average country level peacefulness in the world has barely changed in the last six years. If a population weighting method is used, peace has even decreased over the last six years.[1] The distributions of OIC and non-OIC countries with respect to their GPI index values in Figure 3.6 clearly show that level of peacefulness in OIC member countries are lower than non-OIC countries. While the distribution is leaned towards lower index values (more peacefulness) for non-OIC countries, the opposite is true for OIC countries. Average of 51 OIC countries listed in the GPI is 2.2, while this rate is 1.9 for 107 non-OIC countries. Furthermore, 9 of the bottom 15 countries are OIC member countries, with Somalia, Afghanistan, Sudan and Iraq occupying the lowest ranks. Best performing countries are Qatar and Malaysia with rankings of 12 and 20, respectively.

displacement was becoming increasingly protracted by 2011. As 60% of the internally displaced population in Afghanistan are children, the prospects for this next generation are particularly bleak (IDMC, 2012).

While the number of conflicts is not falling, remedies for such events are not plenty. The traditional UN approach to resolving violent conflict has included facilitation of comprehensive, one-time, peace agreements, and then support for efforts to repair the damage caused by war. In today's more fluid conflicts, where peace agreements are being signed, they are often not holding. The World Bank, in its very useful and timely 2011 World Development Report, *Conflict, Security, and Development*, estimates that 40% of fragile and post-conflict countries relapse into conflict within ten years.

Even without a relapse into full-scale conflict, however, weak post conflict governance and ongoing insecurity often allow other forms of violence to flourish – for example, in a number of societies destabilized by violent conflict, sexual and gender-based violence has continued at high levels. In their analysis of civil wars, Paul Collier and Anke Hoeffler found that crime rates – as measured by homicide rates – increase dramatically even after 'political peace' is established.

Overall, the analysis in this subsection indicates that conflicts are widespread in OIC countries hindering the peace, stability and socio-economic development. Despite the sensitivity of some conflicts in terms of international cooperation and intervention, efficient and effective mechanisms should be developed to help the countries and people in need. Section 6 of this report aims to discuss some critical aspects of increasing the resilience of the conflict-affected and disaster-prone communities and promoting peace and stability in OIC countries. The next subsection will provide some information on the drivers of conflict in the OIC countries.

3.2 Drivers of Conflict

There are several different analyses regarding the drivers of conflict. Putzel (2009) identified six key drivers of conflict: international military intervention; transborder armed groups and refugees; the impact of structural adjustment reform on fragile states; the trade in arms, drugs and minerals; the impact of the global financial crisis; and climate change. The academic debate on the causes of conflict was for a long time centred on whether greed or grievances were the most important cause of conflict. Collier and Hoeffler (2007) famously argued that greed has

been the most important driver of civil wars and that there is little evidence that grievances, such as political or economic repression, correlate to civil wars.

On the opposing side of the debate is Stewart (2010) who believes that conflicts were caused by horizontal inequalities and placed more emphasis on states becoming more successful at winning the trust and confidence of society through addressing inequalities and grievances. Many academics and practitioners including World Bank (2011), Keen (2012) and Brinkman et al. (2013), now recognize that violent conflicts are caused by a variety of factors, and that these factors are often interconnected and complex. Similarly, Gurr et al. (1993) argue that that when major political or economic grievances in society overlap with social identities, violence is more likely.

Referring to the work of several academics, Regehr (2013) discusses the different drivers of conflict: According to Evans (2006) armed conflict is likely to take place when communities are imbued with deeply held reasons for rejecting the status quo, when they have access to physical and political/social resources for violence, and when they are convinced or can credibly claim that such violence is their only hope for change. At the intra-state level, Ohlson (2008) argues that armed conflict requires a combination of three things: "reasons in the form of motivating grievances, resources in the form of capabilities and opportunity, and resolve in the form of a perception that nothing short of violence will allow you to achieve your goals". Bellamy (2011) adds the issue of identity – when political grievances are linked to particular communities and regions both the intensity of the grievances and the calculations of capacity are increased.

While the drivers of violent conflict are varied and complex, the importance of inequalities as a cause of violent conflict has long been recognized (Brinkman et al. 2013). There are different types of inequalities. Horizontal inequalities, as defined by Stewart to mean severe inequalities between culturally defined groups, are different from the "normal definition of inequality which lines individuals up vertically and measures inequality over the range of individuals". Horizontal inequalities can be considered in economic, social, political or cultural context. The economic inequalities happen when access to, use of and ownership of assets – financial, human, social or natural resources – are not equal and there are inequalities in income levels and employment opportunities. Social inequalities consist of inequalities in access to a range of services, such as education, health care and housing. Political inequalities consider the distribution of political power and access to political participation. Horizontal inequalities can also relate to cultural aspects and disparities in the recognition and standing of different groups' language, religion, customs, norms and practices (Stewart, 2010).

According to analysis conducted by UNDP (2011), many of the drivers of conflict are rooted in development deficits. This suggests that there are many opportunities for development actors to contribute to breaking cycles of armed violence and creating virtuous cycles of peace and development.

The causes of conflict depend on context, however, and determining what the key drivers of conflict what they are in any particular circumstance is usually not very straightforward. For example, it has been argued that specific manifestations of poverty, such as large-scale youth unemployment or food insecurity, can cause violent conflicts. If so, one could deduce that as the world becomes wealthier, it will inevitably become more peaceful, safer, and secure. Yet a number of countries with relatively high levels of economic and human development have seen their share of violence.[17] UNDP assesses that the reductions in poverty, although necessary, do not directly reduce the chances of violence and conflict.

Undoubtedly roots of discontent often do lie in poverty; but political and social exclusion and inequality can also be powerful motivators of upheaval leading to conflict as has been seen in a number of countries in recent times. Waves of popular unrest triggered the onset of democratic transitions in Eastern Europe, parts of Asia, and now

[17] Helen Clark, (2013) speech: Conflict and Development: Inclusive Governance, Resilient Societies.

in the Arab States region. An added dimension of the 21st century uprisings is the use of modern information and communication technologies as a means of organizing rapidly and on a wide scale.

Therefore, reductions in poverty *per se* do not necessarily avoid the chances of violent conflict. Instead, conflict and poverty might be better perceived as symptoms of a cluster of problems – including weak governance and institutions and significant levels of inequality related to a combination of economic, political, and social exclusion. The impact of more extreme and frequent weather events is likely to intensify and even create new disputes over access to natural resources. With increasing food demand as well as food price increases, global competition for resources both within and between states will be exacerbated, possibly leading to new security concerns.

Acemoglu and Robinson (2012) in their recent book, "Why Nations Fail: The origins of Power, Prosperity, and Poverty", argue that inclusive economic and political institutions create a 'virtuous cycle' which results in stronger states. The key message of the World Bank Report (2011) is similar – that "strengthening legitimate institutions and governance to provide citizen security, justice, and jobs is crucial to break cycles of violence."

While economic, cultural, environmental, and security conditions deteriorate in weak states, it is those same weakened states that bear the primary responsibility for maintaining security and prevent conflict. To meet that responsibility each state needs institutions capable of managing socio-political tensions and avoiding their escalation into violence. Nevertheless, states that are failing are also the states that have the weakest political institutions and are the least likely to find means of effectively reconciling national conflict.

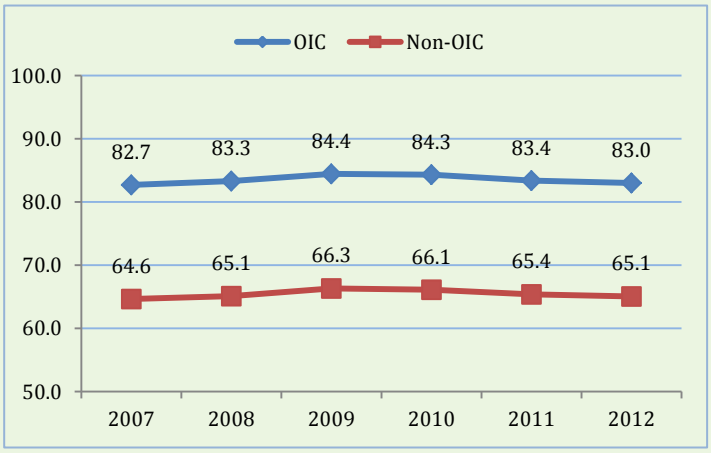
A key question from a development perspective then is: given the current understanding of the causes of conflict, how can development practitioners support efforts to address them and reduce the chance of conflict which undermines development progress? More broadly, recent thinking and work should also be guided by greater emphasis on building resilience to shocks and vulnerability through more effective and inclusive governance systems and collaborative efforts to address the complex causes of violence, prevention, as well as early recovery.

If countries and societies are not prepared to deal with volatility and shocks, especially where these disproportionately impact on certain groups and exacerbate existing inequalities, development cannot be advanced in a sustainable way. Resilience should be built up as a transformative process which draws on the innate strength of individuals, communities, and institutions to prevent, mitigate the impacts of, and learn from the experience of different types of shocks – whether they be internal or external; natural or man-made; economic, political, social, or other.

The range of potential causes of conflict and armed violence needs to be considered in integrated ways, and the work of humanitarian, peacekeeping, and development actors should be mutually reinforcing. Such an approach can encompass comprehensive violence prevention and crime control measures to further human security and protect human rights; targeting social cohesion, along with efforts to combat drug trafficking, the proliferation of illegal firearms, and human trafficking; addressing the particular needs of youth, women, and migrants; and, in post-conflict settings, integrating civilian and military approaches.

A joint initiative of OIC in this particular context is vital. This initiative should follow an integrated approach in managing conflicts. Even though armed conflict is heavily correlated with institutional underdevelopment that results in the absence of conflict management capacity, the international community has been very slow to recognize the promotion of human development. Development of both institutional and human capacities needs to become a strategic objective for the OIC countries.

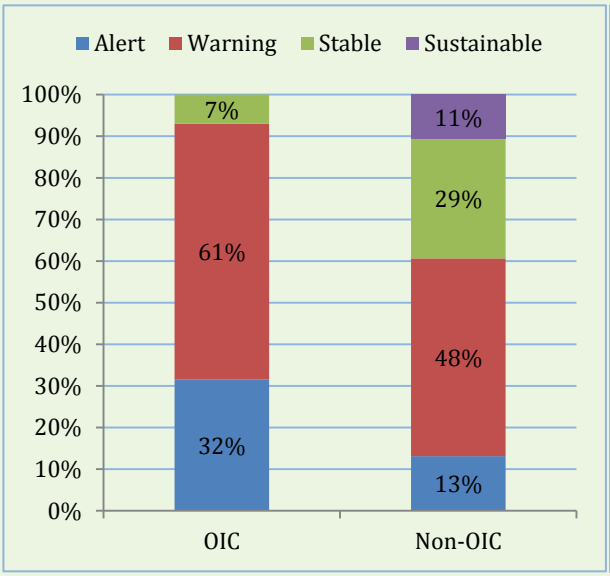
Figure 3.7: Conflict Vulnerability Index, Trend (2007-2012)

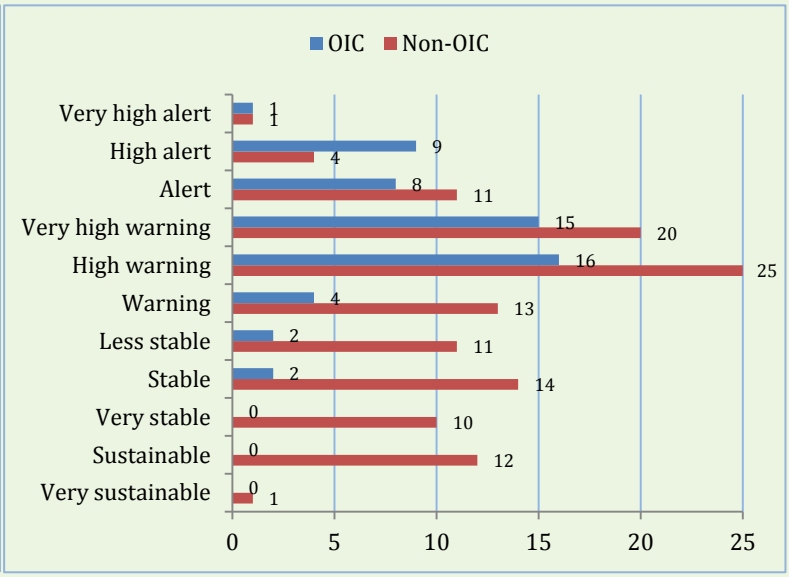


Source: The Fund for Peace.

*According to Conflict Vulnerability Index (CVI), **majority of the OIC countries (93%)** are classified at '**alert**' or '**warning**' level and average CVI for the OIC countries constantly lies above the average of non-OIC countries.*

Figure 3.8: Conflict Vulnerability Index, Levels of Fragility (2012)





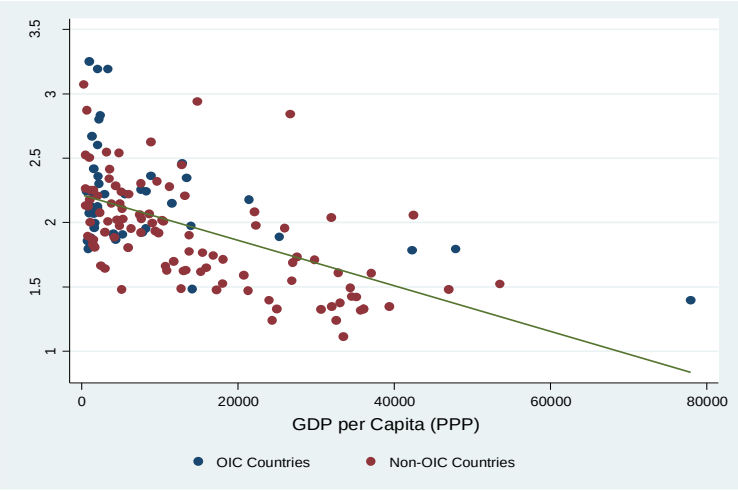
Source: The Fund for Peace.

3.3 Vulnerabilities to Conflict

Efforts by researchers to quantitatively measure vulnerabilities of countries to conflict tend to focus on four major categories: social, economic, governance, and security. Specific variables drawn on in each category vary widely and some of these variables already discussed for vulnerability to hazards in Section 2 are applicable for conflicts as well. Additionally, natural resources, ethnic fragmentation, demographic factors, denial of essential human needs, security environment, criminality and some transborder issues are considered in the literature to have impact on vulnerability to conflicts. Given this richness of potential causality concerning vulnerability to conflict, a variety of measures are developed to assess the vulnerabilities of countries to conflict.

There are six major indexes that can be used to measure vulnerability to conflict. These are prepared by the Brookings Institution (Index of State Weakness in the Developing World), Carleton University (the Country Indicators for Foreign Policy Fragile States Index), the Fund for Peace (Failed States Index), the Center for Global Policy at George Mason University (the Goldstone and Marshall State Fragility Index), the Center for International Development and Conflict Management at the University of Maryland (the Conflict Instability Ledger Measure), and the Economist Intelligence Unit (the

Figure 3.9: Peacefulness and Well-being



Source: World Bank WDI and the Institute for Economics and Peace in Australia.

Political Instability Index). These measures see vulnerability to conflict as a spectrum from failed states to consolidate d ones.

First four measures have the most similar conceptual frameworks and measurement approaches. The other two measures differ more from the first four and each other in what conceptually constitutes vulnerability, in their variables, correlations, and assessments. They focus more heavily on states that are most likely to fail. After carefully assessing all these indexes, Hughes et al. (2011) state that it is not possible to argue that any of these indexes is clearly superior in predicting vulnerability to conflict.

Given the inconclusiveness on the superiority of indexes, the present report will use the Failed States Index (FSI) developed by the Fund for Peace as a measure of vulnerability. The index is not designed to forecast when states may experience violence or collapse. Instead, it is meant to measure a state's vulnerability to collapse or conflict. Therefore, instead of FSI, it is preferred to be called as Conflict Vulnerability Index (CVI) throughout this section. The index is prepared to rank the sovereign states based on twelve indicators of state vulnerability - four social, two economic and six political.[18] A vulnerable state is a state perceived as having failed at some of the basic conditions and responsibilities of a sovereign government. The following attributes, proposed by the Fund for Peace, are often used to characterize a vulnerable state:

- Loss of control of its territory, or of the monopoly on the legitimate use of physical force therein,
- Erosion of legitimate authority to make collective decisions,
- An inability to provide public services, and
- An inability to interact with other states as a full member of the international community.

Since its publication in 2005, quite a number of OIC countries occupy the high ranks. Of the top 20 states in the list with highest vulnerabilities, OIC states constitute 50-60% of all states over the last 7 years (2005-2012). Again in 2012, 12 of the top 20 states were among the OIC member states. In terms of simple averages, average CVI for the OIC countries constantly lies above the average of non-OIC countries (Figure 3.7). The average of OIC countries was following an increasing trend during 2007-2009, but it then started to decline slightly. Ranging between 0-120 by construction, the average of the OIC countries remained over 83, while the most stable country Finland had a score of 20, indicating the relatively high levels of vulnerability of the OIC countries.

When vulnerabilities of states are classified according to their level of fragility and susceptibility to collapse, there is no OIC state among the sustainable states (Figure 3.8). Majority of the OIC countries (93%) are classified at 'alert' or 'warning' level. Of 18 OIC countries classified at alert level, one is regarded at very high alert, 9 at high alert and remaining 8 are at alert level. There are 35 OIC countries classified at warning level, 15 of which being at very high warning, 16 at high warning level and 4 at warning level. There are only 4 member countries considered as stable, 2 of which being less stable and 2 stable.

In addition to the indexes measuring vulnerabilities of countries to intra-state conflicts, the Global Peace

[18] For each indicator, the ratings are placed on a scale of 0 to 10, with 0 being the lowest intensity (most stable) and 10 being the highest intensity (least stable). The total score is the sum of the 12 indicators and is on a scale of 0-120.

Index of the Institute for Economics and Peace in Australia measures the presence or absence of domestic and international conflict associated with one country. Although external conflict sometimes does have a strong association with state weakness and failure, it is a different phenomenon. This index is used to investigate the linkages between the level of income and peacefulness. While political instability and transborder strains increase the potential of conflict and decrease the potential of economic growth, lower growth rates imply higher poverty rates. Political stability and equity, in turn, potentially foster peace in a country. Therefore, economic and political stability and equity are required to promote both peace and well-being.

Figure 3.9, in this regard, shows the relationship between levels of peacefulness and income by using Global Peace Index (GPI) and GDP per capita based on purchasing power parity (PPP). While higher income is associated with more peacefulness, low-income countries tend to suffer from less peaceful conditions. Quite a number of low-income OIC countries face the same challenge. A peaceful environment is important not only for economic indicators such as investment and growth, but also some social and political indicators such as schooling and the level of regional integration. Peaceful countries often share high levels of transparency of government and low corruption, which fosters socio-economic development and political stability.

As discussed in the previous subsection, poverty is *per se* not a direct cause of conflict, but poverty during the heightened conflict situations or wars may have various repercussions. First, poor countries, unlike rich ones, lack the resources to address the grievances that can spark armed uprisings. Second, poor countries tend to have weak security forces and so find it difficult to deter rebellions and to crush those that cannot be deterred. Conversely, armed conflicts can create or exacerbate poverty – war has aptly been described as "development in reverse."

Being an important element in increasing vulnerability, the effects of ethnic heterogeneity on economic development can also be substantial. There is a growing body of literature showing that cross country differences in ethnic diversity can explain a substantial part of the cross-country differences in public policies, political instability, and other economic factors associated with long-run growth (e.g. Easterly and Levine, 1997) and a high level of ethno-linguistic diversity implies a lower level of investment (e.g. Mauro, 1995). Ethnic diversity may increase polarization and thereby impede agreement about the provision of public goods and create positive incentives for growth-reducing policies that create rents for the groups in power at the expense of society at large. A cursory look at the relationship between the share of largest ethnic group in total population of countries, as a measure of ethnic fragmentation, and their average economic growth rates reveals that the latter two are positively correlated (not reported here).[19] This implies that low ethnic fragmentation increases the probability to attain high growth rates. The impact of ethnic diversity on average growth is, however, not particularly strong. This leads to argue that exogenously determined ethnic fragmentation does not have severe consequences for economic growth and negative outcomes can be avoided if further supported by public policies and political stability.

The drivers of and vulnerabilities to conflict discussed in this section are not intended to be exhaustive – acknowledging the fact that there are other country and region specific factors affecting the level of fragility and susceptibility of falling into conflict situation. OIC countries need to place more emphasis on building resilience to shocks and vulnerabilities to conflict through a more integrated approach and with a view to ensuring more effective governance practices and greater collaboration. The complex causes of violence as well as prevention and early recovery need to be addressed with collective efforts of all OIC community as well as international partners active in humanitarian, peacekeeping, and development fields.

[19] Data on ethnic fragmentation is obtained from Ellingsen (2000).

DISASTER – CONFLICT INTERFACE

4

There is an increasing amount of evidence that many countries especially in the developing world are experiencing both natural and man-made disasters (conflict) at the same time or shortly one after another. The interaction between these two compound existing vulnerabilities that put societies at risk, further worsening poverty and inequality in these countries. On flipside of the coin, the contexts in which conflicts and disasters overlap are daily realities for people who are affected. The crisis prevention programmes need to address the complex relationship between conflict-disaster. This requires the development of more holistic and integrated approaches. Development interventions that overlook the link between disasters and conflicts can potentially exacerbate the problem.

Disaster-conflict interface contexts are defined as those settings where disasters (risks, events and recovery) have a relationship with conflicts (risks, events and recovery) and/or vice versa, beyond simple geographic/demographic co-existence. This section offers an analysis of negative and positive commonalities that arise from the relationship between disasters and conflict, with a particular emphasis on OIC countries. Moreover, the analysis also aims to better understand the importance of these interactions for development policy-making in crisis contexts.

While there is a significant number of studies which provides a clear global picture of different types of disaster and conflict risks, more work is needed to understand the geographic relationship between conflicts and disasters, including the risks of climate change. Historically management and prevention of disasters and conflicts have evolved as separate disciplines. The governments and development organizations have adopted a segregated approach to tackling with these two types of crises. However the growing interlinkages between disasters and conflicts mean that the relationship needs to be better understood in order to reduce disaster risk and prevent the recurrence of conflicts more effectively. This will help the countries to build resilience both against disasters and conflicts in an integrated manner by establishing national policies and institutions and implementing interventions for risk analysis, early warning, contingency planning and recovery.

4.1 Rise of Complex Emergencies

Between 1999 and 2004 at least 140 disasters occurred in areas that were also experiencing conflict (Buchanan-Smith and Christoplos, 2004). Moreover, it has been estimated that between 2005 and 2009 more than 50% of people affected by natural disasters lived in fragile and conflict-affected states (Kellett and Sparks, 2012). Some other research suggests that the impact of natural disasters is more pronounced in conflict affected countries (Keefer et al. (2010). According to the World Development

Report 2010, not only conflict affected countries more vulnerable to effects of natural disasters, but disasters and external shocks can harm reconciliation and conflict recovery efforts therefore they can increase the risks of conflicts. Other researchers suggest that the convergence of disasters and conflicts poses particular challenges for governments and agencies working to secure development progress and puts great strain on the international humanitarian system (Harris, Keen and Mitchell (2013). Therefore the necessity of tackling conflict and disaster risk coherently is becoming more important.

A significant number of OIC member countries is exposed to complex emergencies rising from the overlap of disasters and conflicts. In a recent report by Overseas Development Institute, three OIC countries, Somalia, Afghanistan and Niger, are ranked as the most vulnerable countries to both conflicts and disasters including high levels of poverty and vulnerability to climate change (Harris, et al. 2013). Seven out of the top ten countries in the list are OIC member countries,[20] reflecting their high levels of fragility, disaster risk, poverty and climate change vulnerability. In the absence of proper attention to conflict and disaster prevention, many OIC countries may lose their developmental and political achievements.

In a number of OIC countries these two components of disaster and conflict are strongly intertwined. The case of Sudan is particularly revealing. While crisis in Darfur have inhibited efforts for natural resource management and exacerbated slow onset disasters and environmental scarcity, these in turn have contributed to an ongoing conflict in Darfur (Flint and de Waal, 2005). Similarly, conflict situation in Chad prevented the government officials and humanitarian aid agencies to effectively distribute food items to the most severely affected rural areas during the 2010 food crisis (Gubbels, 2011). There is also evidence that natural disasters exacerbate pre-existing conflicts, while in few cases natural disasters have contributed to peace-building and resolution of conflicts, such as Aceh conflict in Indonesia (see section 4.4 for more discussion).

Overall, there is strong evidence that conflicts increase the impact of natural disasters in many ways, such as by forcing people to move into areas with higher exposure to hazards, disturbing their physical and psychological health and limiting basic service provision, or simply by increasing vulnerability to natural hazards. Violence and conflict can exacerbate vulnerability to natural disasters and undermine the capacity of various actors to plan for and protect people against hazards (Harris, et al. 2013). Therefore, there is a need for more holistic and innovative methods of approaching disaster risks and reaching vulnerable and affected people.

Although the number of people affected by complex emergencies is increasing, mechanisms for dealing with such emergencies are lacking. Governments and humanitarian agencies are facing major challenges in promoting peace, security and development. At a time when poverty expected to be highly concentrated in fragile and conflict-affected states by 2025 (Kharas and Rogerson, 2012), a genuine and balanced engagement with communities living in such settings should become the main concern for regional and international development agencies.

4.2 The Interface: Specialities and Commonalities

Although disasters and conflicts have visible commonalities, the context of each interface can be unique and complex in nature from at least two perspectives. Depending on their geographic location, disasters and conflicts may look similar, but may result in very different impacts and relationships in different countries and even different regions within a country. The nature of interactions between disasters and conflicts also exhibit a very diverse inconsistent structure.

An in-depth field-based analysis on nine developing countries by UNDP – including some notable examples from OIC countries such as Sudan,

[20] These countries are Somalia (1), Afghanistan (2), Niger (3), Guinea-Bissau (4), Chad (6), Sudan (7) and Guinea (9). Bangladesh (14), Sierra Leone (16) and Burkina Faso (18) are also among the top 20 countries in the list.

Indonesia and Kyrgyzstan – concluded that, in most instances, disaster-conflict interface increases the risk of future crises and hampers crisis recovery efforts. The study identifies a number of negative tendencies including the following:

- Conflicts almost always increase the risk of disasters, and the more the conflict is hard to deal with, the greater risk it brings through environmental degradation which results from distressed coping strategies and lack of political will and/or capacity to mitigate risk of disasters;
- Disasters and conflict that happen at the same time intensify risk of future crises, undermine coping capacities and increase the prevalence of poverty;
- Disasters are more likely to contribute to conflicts over limited natural resources than any other type of conflict. Particularly in places where resources are scarce; disasters which are small-scale but arise rapidly are more likely to contribute to local conflicts whereas disasters which emerge slowly but last longer (e.g. drought) can deepen conflict over resources across larger areas;
- Inappropriate assistance and response to a conflict or disaster event can increase risk of crisis and societal vulnerabilities.
- Gender-related vulnerabilities and violence worsens with the overlap of disaster and conflict worsens.

While conflicts and disasters lead to extremely adverse cumulative effects on communities, there can also be positive spin-offs. The UNDP (2011) study notes the following positive tendencies as likely:

- Disasters which are large-scale and triggered rapidly (e.g. earthquake) can help mitigate the intensity of existing conflicts and restore peace
- Relatively smaller-scale disasters can provide opportunities to build capacity and trust, reduce tensions and restore peace only locally as they will not work for national conflicts
- In some post-conflict cases, disaster risk reduction tools and activities (e.g. promotion of community cooperation, solidarity and capacity development) can provide a window of opportunity for improving conflict situation.

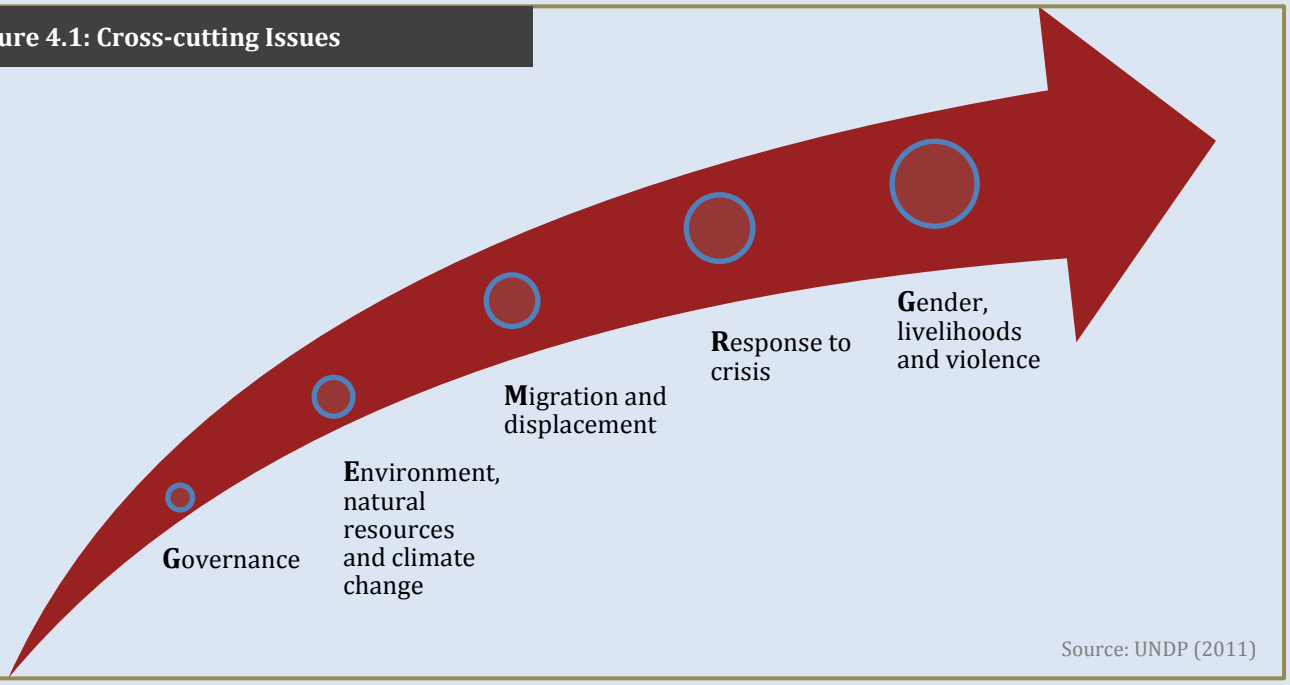
4.3 Cross-Cutting Issues

Section 2 offered a closer look at the major determinants of vulnerability to disasters, with a particular emphasis on the OIC countries. In Section 3, we've seen that these determinants are to a large extent applicable to man-made disasters, i.e. conflicts. Supporting this argument, case studies show that in certain contexts disasters and conflicts are linked through some common vulnerability factors including poor governance, environmental mismanagement, migration/displacement and inappropriate responses to the emerging crises (Figure 4.1). Furthermore, weak livelihoods and poor security situation can increase social vulnerabilities to both disasters and conflicts. On the other hand, disasters and conflicts can also increase poverty, exacerbate environmental degradation, lead to displacement/migration and worsen security and harm livelihoods.

Three is need for more studies investigating the opportunities for conflict prevention and disaster resilience programmes that can contribute to alleviating joint risks and propose appropriate strategies and actions.

The role of state and its institutions has a major impact on causing conflicts and disasters. UNDP study on disaster conflict interface reveals through country case studies that, in general, political will is higher only during the immediate aftermath of a crisis, but in these circumstances capacity is often lower. Along the normal development trajectory, however, governments are reluctant to take preventive measures such as disaster risk reduction mainly due to their short-term policy focus, constrained budget and changing priorities.

Figure 4.1: Cross-cutting Issues



Source: UNDP (2011)

In many developing countries, environmental degradation as well as the mismanagement of natural resources emerges as the most influential critical drivers of disaster-conflict interface. In the case of access to natural resources, for example, the issue of whether people have access to natural resources can be both cause and consequence of the disaster-conflict interface. The resultant environmental stress usually leads to households being displaced / resettled with few alternative sources for income generation. A significant number of studies, on the other hand, find that natural resource and land use management, including traditional and communal land management systems, are critical issues in the conflict-disaster interface and climate change has the potential to further intensify the vicious circle of environmental degradation, resource scarcity and increased crisis risk.

Migration and population displacement are other critical driving factors in disaster-conflict interface situations. Like the environmental factors discussed above, they can also be both cause and consequence of disasters and conflicts. Again, the relationship between conflict-disaster interface and migration is not always reciprocal. Migration can be part of a creative strategy to improve livelihood opportunities as well.

How critical stakeholders, i.e. government, relief agencies and other international community, responded to a conflict and/or disaster is another factor that impacts upon the conflict-disaster interface (Olson and Gawronski, 2003). Harris, Keen and Mitchell (2013) rather emphasize the term "resource allocation pre- and post-disaster." The nature and scale of interventions can have both positive and negative consequences on the level of disaster and/or conflict risk. In many cases, insensitive approaches that are not tailored to the physical and emotional mood of the affected population can raise crisis risk. The impact of a biased or poorly planned response can also undermine citizen-state relations and have a negative influence on social cohesion. Coupled with lack of transparency and manipulations on disaster response, biased responses can also lead to a public perception of distrust in the intentions of policy-makers and relief organisations. UNDP (2011) reveals such examples of national or international disaster responses that harmed the conflict-disaster interface in the past. However, there were also some positive examples of proactive disaster response efforts that intentionally or unintentionally generated positive spin-offs at the disaster-conflict interface.

Evidence on the gender dimension of the conflict-disaster interface is relatively scarce. Some studies

suggest that gender-based violence tends to significantly increase as a result of violent conflict and is compounded in the aftermath of disasters (see e.g. Ferris, 2012 or Klynman et al., 2007). The impact of combined conflict and disaster on people's livelihoods, on the other hand, is an important factor in considering how the interface affects their vulnerability. In many cases, the combination has a direct impact on livelihoods. For example, disasters can damage livelihoods in a way they indirectly increase levels of conflict risk. Conflicts often directly contribute to reducing community capacities to cope with disasters and this is mainly due to the impact of violence and insecurity on mobility, access to assistance, and community cooperation.

4.4 Examples of Interface in OIC Countries

In order to highlight the importance of complex emergencies arising from the interface of disasters and conflicts, this section provides some important examples of such events in the OIC countries.

Limited Resources – Endless Disputes: Opportunities for Somalia

Somalia has been in a state of armed conflict of one form or another since 1988. Massive levels of human rights abuses and destruction occurred, and over one million Somalis are thought to have perished over a period of twenty years as a result of conflict-related violence, while 1.5 million have been internally displaced and 900,000 live as refugees in neighbouring countries. Rape and sexual violence have become chronic problems and measures ranging from literacy to child mortality levels portray a stark picture.

Somalia lacks natural resources and faces major development challenges. Its economy is pastoral and agricultural, with livestock--principally camels, cattle, sheep, and goats--representing the main form of wealth (it accounts for about 40% of GDP and more than 50% of export earnings). Drought has impaired agricultural and livestock production. Because rainfall is scanty and irregular, farming generally is limited to certain coastal districts, areas near Hargeisa, and the Juba and Shabelle River valleys. Droughts and floods are the two dominant hazards affecting the majority of the country. Frequent droughts have increased poverty amongst the Somali population and significantly hampered the achievement of MDGs. Improved water resources management including the harvesting of rainwater can be an important strategy to reduce poverty. Some other approaches include improvement of drought early warning systems, better management of rangelands. Unfortunately most of the international interventions remain focused on humanitarian interventions and emergency recovery mode, and ignore long-term developmental solutions to address the drought risk reduction.

The peaceful end of an eight year transitional mandate in August 2012 offers unique opportunities for peace-making and peace-building. The major tasks at hand in Somalia are the establishment of the rule of law, institutions of state and the review of the Provisional Constitution. None of this is possible without mediating an end to the internal conflicts in the country. In fact, the manner in which these conflicts are resolved will have an impact on the future constitutional dispensation and the establishment of institutions of state, particularly at the regional and state level. The process of mediation must go hand-in-hand with the process of constitutional review. This would make the conflict resolution more credible and permanent because a peaceful and inclusive resolution of these core political issues will result in a new constitutional dispensation with regard to the establishment of a new regional dispensation which has the buy-in of both key political stakeholders as well as the public more broadly. In this process of reshaping new institutions it would be recommendable to work on both natural disaster and conflict prevention mechanism that can reinforce one another.

Added Complexity to Interface in Lebanon: Syrian Refugees

The on-going regional conflict and the influx of refugees, internal sectarian strife and the displacement of populations, unplanned urbanization, poor public infrastructure and services,

increasing unemployment and poverty, coupled with recurrent natural hazards (snow storms, floods, landslides, drought, forest fires, earthquakes) and risks (sea level rise, seismic and tsunamis) serve as constant reminders of Lebanon's pronounced, complex vulnerabilities. Lebanon is highly polarized nation with 18 recognized sects and ethnic groups. This complex architecture of the Lebanese society is the major underlying cause of its political instability and fragility. The sectarian divisions have also lead to armed conflict throughout the modern history of Lebanon.

The number of people affected by the ongoing crisis in Syria that began in March 2011 is progressively rising and the violent events taking place continuing to inflict irreparable damage both on society and the lives of individuals. Consequently millions of people have relocated within the country, or have been forced to immigrate to neighbouring countries, including Lebanon. As the numbers of those seeking safety in Lebanon spiral, immediate and significantly increased humanitarian support is needed in order to save lives and to ensure well-being of refugees and affected communities. Needs have consistently outstripped response capacity and concerns on the impact of the crisis on the socio-economic and security climate have reached a level that require broader international attention. Refugees in Lebanon are hosted in over 1,200 locations across the country, straining the capacities of local responders and putting severe pressure on public services and jobs. The living conditions of refugees and other displaced persons are increasingly difficult, and with the crisis entering its third year, the resources of both displaced and host communities are diminished. Local health, education, water, waste management

and community service actors have been at the front line of humanitarian efforts to date. This plan reflects scaled up integrated support to affected communities and regions necessary both to reach an increasingly dispersed refugee population and ensure continued cohesion with host communities. While the current response to Lebanon is very much incorporating the spill-over of the Syrian crisis, e.g. the influx of refugees, it is interesting to notice that the response to address both social cohesion within Lebanese society and social interaction between the Lebanese and the Syrians and livelihood goes throughout the country and is done in a very conflict sensitive and inclusive manner.

Disaster Diplomacy in Indonesia

Before the earthquake and tsunami of December 26, 2004 devastated the city of Aceh, Indonesia along with 221,000 killed or missing in Aceh alone, there was three decades of conflict between the Indonesian government and a rebel movement. The conflict itself cost 15,000 lives and effectively cut Aceh off from the rest of the country, leaving the province with little growth or economic opportunities. The scale of devastation caused by the tsunami led to a peace agreement in 2005 and it reflected one of the few cases where natural disasters have supported peacebuilding and led to the resolution of conflicts. The first free election of Aceh's governor took place in 2005. The peace has held for the last eight years and through two election cycles. Resolution of the conflict has ended Aceh's isolation and opened the door for development, investment, and economic reintegration with the rest of Indonesia and the world. The relief effort following the 2004 tsunami that hit Aceh is widely documented as an example of 'disaster diplomacy', where the disaster created space for negotiation and assisted the peace process (Waizenegger and Hyndman, 2010, and World Bank 2012).

Disaster-Conflict Linkages in Uganda

In the Karamoja region, north-eastern Uganda, inconsistent rainfall has contributed to crop failure, livestock losses, disease and displacement and left some groups dependent on relief aid for survival. Competition over limited resources has also exacerbated local tensions and resulted in greater migration. Traditional mechanisms for negotiating and mediating the management of natural resources have been undermined by a range of external factors. Natural disasters and conditions of vulnerability have contributed to conflict and instability by exacerbating local conflict, small arms violence and criminal activity. The government responses to these complex problems are often argued to have exacerbated the vulnerability of some groups while favouring some others. A series of disarmament programmes have also been undertaken, but the interplay of natural resource scarcity, natural hazards, insecurity, inter-clan conflict and contested governance has continuously undermined such programmes.

In such settings, strengthening livelihood security could reduce not only the risk of natural disasters, but also the likelihood of violent confrontation over scarce resources. Subsequently various relief agencies sought to strengthen the local resilience of some groups through supporting diversified livelihood opportunities to increase household security. In this complex framework, attempts to implement programmes in ways that better recognise the dynamics of disasters and conflict concurrently have been more successful in reflecting this complex reality (Harris, Keen and Mitchell, 2013, Cordaid and IIRR, 2011, and Powell, 2010).

Cross-border Impacts of Interface in Kyrgyzstan

Since independence in 1991, Kyrgyzstan has seen periods of democratic progress and of authoritarian backlash. Two presidents were removed from power in 2005 and 2010 after popular uprisings. Kyrgyzstan is a multi-ethnic country with strong minority groups. Regional disparities and other developmental challenges lead to sudden eruptions of local violence. During the inter-ethnic violence in the south in June 2010 about 420 people died, 2,000 were injured, while over 2,000 houses and 300 businesses were destroyed. Kyrgyzstan faces also significant impacts from a wide range of natural hazards including floods, mudslides, avalanches, snowfalls, glacial lake outburst flooding and constant earthquakes.

The link between disaster and conflict is particularly pronounced in the Ferghana Valley, with some additional cross-border dynamic. Socioeconomic, ethnic and political tensions in the region were driven by natural resource conflict and, somewhat more indirectly, by disaster-related insecurity. Evidence demonstrated that disasters and disaster risk were often made worse by poor management of natural resources, and their harmful impact on local and regional social cohesion. For example, flooding hit some populations that were not able to move from at-risk areas because the new areas offered no alternative livelihoods to cotton growing; their traditional income source. Poor water management also made the area vulnerable to drought, flooding and mudslides. Drought added also to cross-border tensions that already existed over water management issues. For example, drought periods in 2000 and 2001 considerably strained relations between Uzbekistan, Kazakhstan and Kyrgyzstan. Drought also had an impact on community social cohesion within Kyrgyzstan and created local animosity in neighbouring communities over the border in Uzbekistan and Tajikistan (UNDP, 2011).

Coups and Deprivation in Comoros

The Comoros islands have suffered from a secessionist conflict since 1997 stemming mainly from profound political and economic inequalities between the islands. The main island Grande Comore, the base of the federal government, is accused of collecting most foreign aid without allocating resources to other islands of the federation. The discrimination in the distribution of political and economic resources, together with a major political instability, resulted in around twenty military coups since independence in 1975. Its unpredictability is almost in line by its poverty. Comoros is one of the poorest countries in the world and 60% of the population lives below the poverty line. Food insecurity is pervasive and there is an increase in hunger since 1990. In such fragile setting, various disasters, mainly storms and volcanos, affected more than 350.000 people (more than 40% of population) in Comoros since 1997, exacerbating the conditions of vulnerable groups even further.

In the case of Comoros, internal conflicts stemming from political and economic inequalities appear to increase vulnerability of communities to external shocks significantly. There is a need for OIC and international community to engage to resolve the conflict and other fragilities in the island state and help the vulnerable groups in the country.

Many other examples of interface that exist in the OIC region can be added to the list, including the most notable examples of Chad and Sudan. All these facts exemplified clearly highlight once again that disaster/conflict management has many facets and there is a need for paradigm shift in disaster risk management towards a more comprehensive approach. There is need for institutional mechanisms for managing risk in fragile and conflict-affected states with clear institutional mandates, at national, regional and global level. It is necessary to make sure that interventions in one field do not exacerbate risks in another. Three is also need for more studies investigating the opportunities for conflict prevention and disaster resilience programmes that can contribute to alleviating joint risks and propose appropriate strategies and actions.

Part II

Managing Disasters and Conflicts

Sections

Part II analyses all relevant dimensions of disaster management and then enrich the analysis on each dimension with case studies to draw important lessons and propose practical solutions. This part involves three sections.

Section 5 analyses the latest approaches and relevant experiences in disaster management under following subcategories: Risk management and vulnerability reduction, promoting public awareness and social protection, information, knowledge sharing and capacity development, coordination of emergency response, and sustainable recovery. Section 6 on critical aspects of conflict management in OIC countries includes conflict analysis and early warning mechanisms, key measures and institutional capacity building for conflict prevention, coordination and resource mobilization, and peace-building and post-conflict recovery. Section 7 focuses on management of disasters and conflicts when they coincide. It includes analysis on risk management and vulnerability reduction, disaster relief and rehabilitation, reconstruction and sustainable recovery, and regional and international partnership.

CRITICAL ASPECTS OF DISASTER MANAGEMENT

5

The geographic, social, economic and political diversity of OIC member countries make them susceptible to variety of natural hazards as well as man-made crises. The inherent societal vulnerabilities, which have aggravated over the past few decades, often transform the hazards into catastrophes causing heavy losses to lives, livelihoods and development infrastructure, while undermining peace and stability in the affected countries. The risk profile of OIC countries is being further intensified due to the impact of climate change (and variability). Many OIC member countries share common hazards due to their geographic proximity, which can affect more than one country at a time. For example most of the Arab States are exposed to risk of drought, while some others also to common threats from earthquake; e.g. Jordan, Lebanon, Palestine and Syria. Member countries in Middle East and North Africa, on the other hand, are facing similar type of political risks that have recently erupted as humanitarian crises in many of them. The occurrence of such common hazards across more than one country at a time could lead to regional catastrophes, highlighting the need for regional cooperation.

In order to minimize human and development losses due to disasters, the OIC member countries need to follow a holistic approach involving disaster mitigation, preparedness, response and recovery. Some member countries of the OIC have made good progress in disaster risk management; including Bangladesh, Indonesia, Iran, Jordan, Lebanon, Maldives, Pakistan and Turkey amongst others. In this framework, this section provides the most critical aspects of the proposed holistic approach of disaster management in OIC countries. These are risk management and vulnerability reduction; promoting public awareness, participation and social protection; information, knowledge sharing and capacity development; coordination of emergency response; sustainable recovery.

5.1 Risk management and vulnerability reduction

The occurrence of hazards often cannot be prevented fully, but their impact can be substantially lessened by various strategies and actions, which are referred to as *mitigation*. It is a continual process to reduce the adverse consequences of disasters upon people, livelihoods and built environment. Mitigation measures for natural disasters encompass engineering techniques and hazard-resistant construction as well as improved environmental policies and public awareness. A disaster occurs when a hazard impacts on vulnerable people. Vulnerable people have low capacity to anticipate, cope with, resist and recover from the impact of a natural hazard. Although capability to avoid hazards is restricted, societies can be made more resilient to

Box 5.1: Disaster Management Law in Indonesia

After the devastating tsunami in 2004, the Government of Indonesia formulated the **Disaster Management Law 24/2007** after an extensive consultative process over 3 years. It is a very progressive law, in the sense that it not only calls for enhanced focus upon disaster mitigation and preparedness, but also takes a human-rights approach, which means that the law acknowledges that safety from disasters is a right of the Indonesian citizens and the government has the duty to ensure the fulfilment of this right. The law provides authority for management of all types of disasters including those set-off by natural events, non-natural events, social processes, and conflicts.

hazards with effective risk management and vulnerability reduction strategies.

At the operational level different natural hazards entail specific mitigation strategies. However, there are higher level approaches which provide a broader framework for disaster mitigation against multiple hazards. This section provides a detailed description of these approaches against the following topics: risk governance; risk assessment; mainstreaming disaster risk management into development strategies; and climate change adaptation and environmental management.

Risk Governance

Effective risk governance is crucial to identifying disaster risks in a timely manner and to implementing schemes to reduce or minimize vulnerabilities and risks from impending hazards. Risk governance requires formulation of national and local policies supported by an appropriate legislative framework and spearheaded by institutional mechanisms that prioritize mitigation. Unfortunately the existing policies in most OIC member countries promote a "response-oriented approach", where government machinery turns into motion only when a disaster has struck. No prior thought is given to allocating resources or implementing schemes for mitigation of risk. **A policy shift from response to mitigation is a primary condition for a good system of risk governance.** A change in policy will allow the allocation of resources and resetting of institutional priorities and mandates. It will lead to the creation of a "culture of prevention". In the recent past, some OIC member countries have revamped their policies to this effect; e.g. Bangladesh, Egypt, Indonesia, Maldives and Pakistan.

Normally primary disaster legislation provides a broad framework for disaster mitigation. It is important to prepare **supporting legislations or policy documents** to elaborate the arrangements for policy implementation including the definition of departmental responsibilities. Such documents can provide guidance about the risk context, define priorities for disaster mitigation and describe ministerial and stakeholder responsibilities (Box 5.1).

Another equally important requirement is the **establishment of effective institutions** at national, province and local levels to spearhead efforts for disaster mitigation. Due to its multi-disciplinary nature, disaster mitigation requires multi-sectorial coordination and cooperation. Therefore, the formation of multi-sectorial coordination and policy making bodies is crucial at all levels. Even coordination within the government system remains a major challenge due to the involvement of multiple ministries, departments, and technical institutions. In recent decades, governments have introduced disaster management committees / council / commissions to facilitate intra-governmental coordination and policy-making; e.g. the National Disaster Management Commission in Pakistan. Some countries have also set up national platforms for disaster risk reduction to facilitate coordination amongst multiple stakeholders including government and non-government.

The disaster management committees are forums for making decision, sharing information and agreeing on responsibilities. However, the implementation of those decisions requires constant follow-up, capacity development and accountability. Left on their own, these committees will not be able to provide the requisite support and follow-up. Therefore, it is

essential to put-in-place appropriate organizations which can serve as focal points for policy formation and implementation, while serving as Secretariat to the coordination committees. These organizations are crucial to ensure the implementation of policies through planning and organizing multiple functions, including disaster risk analysis, information management, training, implementing public awareness campaigns, early warning dissemination and ensuring compliance of land-use policies and building codes. Such organizations also serve as the focal points for organizing emergency response during disaster situations by facilitating coordination and deployment of multi-sectorial and multi-disciplinary resources through an emergency operations centre or control room. The experiences from different countries indicate that the setting-up of such focal organizations and coordination committees has helped to harmonize efforts and achieve significant results in terms of disaster mitigation. The National Platform for DRR of Indonesia (PLANAS-PRB) is a good example of such platforms, which includes civil society organizations, professional associations, tertiary and research institutions, government, international organizations, media and private sector (see also Box 5.2).

Risk Assessment

The policies and organizations are not sufficient in themselves to reduce disaster risks, thus the countries must work to implement disaster mitigation schemes. An important first step towards disaster mitigation is **disaster risk assessment**. This means production of disaster risk maps and accompanied analysis. Since disaster risk assessment is a costly and time-consuming process, it is important to decide the purpose, scale and scope of such assessment. The experiences from different countries indicate that the national level risk assessments shall be kept simple and low cost. This may include preparation of hazard maps to define the general hazard zones. A database of past disasters can be a good tool to understand historical disaster patterns in different regions and their impact. Currently, Djibouti, Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco, Syria and Tunisia are among the countries that have prepared databases of historical disasters for the past 30 years by using the *DesInventor* software. Coupled with hazard mapping and disaster database, an analysis of the socio-economic and environmental conditions in different regions of the country can be a very useful tool to get insights into the factors that enhance exposure and vulnerability of different segments of society to disasters.

At the local level, however, more comprehensive assessments are advisable. Such assessment shall include: i) micro-scale hazard zonation, ii) exposure mapping for settlements and infrastructure, iii) and vulnerability analysis. Such detailed local assessments are critical to facilitate land-use planning and application of building codes in different hazard zones. However, the absence of in-depth disaster risk assessment shall not hold back governments and/or stakeholders from disaster mitigation activities. In most countries, the hazard exposure of different sub-regions is well known, at least to the scientific community. Therefore, consultations with academia, scientific institutions and civil society organizations can be a good starting point to gain insights about risk exposure in the country and to implement disaster mitigation schemes in high exposure regions. In the meantime, a more in-depth disaster risk assessment could be conducted, which when completed could help to refine disaster mitigation programs (see Box 5.3).

It is also important that disaster risk assessment is conducted on periodical basis to remain abreast of changing risk scenarios. The countries need to develop technical capacities in their national institutions to conduct disaster risk assessment, but **unfortunately most OIC member countries suffer from poor capacities for disaster risk assessment**. The major gaps in national capacities for disaster risk assessment revolve around lack of sufficient quantity of hazard monitoring infrastructure and lack of technical know-how of various ICT technologies.

Mainstreaming Disaster Risk Management into Development Programs

Disaster mitigation needs to be adopted across all sectors of development in countries/regions that are

Box 5.2: Challenges in Risk Governance

The experiences at OIC level as well as at global level indicate that **risk governance faces multifarious challenges**. The key amongst them are as following:

- **Political and bureaucratic commitment:** Achieving attention of politicians and bureaucrats is crucial for the success of disaster risk management. However, this remains a biggest challenge for various reasons. First, the OIC member countries face multiple societal, developmental and political challenges; including poverty, conflicts, deficiency in energy and water supplies and social and political upheavals amongst others, therefore energies of politicians and bureaucrats remain concentrated on such issues and away from disaster mitigation. Second, typically catastrophic disasters happen after long intervals, therefore in the absence of mega-disasters politicians, bureaucrats and citizenry tend to overlook the problem of disaster mitigation, and remain focused upon other issues of urgency. Consistent awareness and advocacy are critical to achieve political and bureaucratic commitment.
- **Allocation of resources:** Following from the first challenge is the issue of allocation of resources. Experiences indicate that although some countries have made good progress on revamping of policies and setting specialized organizations and forums for disaster risk management, but the allocation of funding remains a major gap. In the absence of sufficient funding for disaster mitigation programs, the new policies and institutions remain useless. Governments can set up a National Disaster Management Fund to deposit the annual emergencies fund. In case such money is not spent by the end of the year, policy shall allow the fund to be used for disaster mitigation activities in the next year, instead of allowing it to lapse. Governments shall encourage the private sector to finance disaster mitigation, as well as the use of insurance shall be encouraged. Governments can prepare joint programs with the United Nations system to mobilize funds for disaster mitigation.
- **Technical capacities:** Typically most OIC member countries have weak technical capacities in the area of disaster risk management. This in return hinders the adoption of mitigation approaches in development programs. It is crucial to launch short-term training programs to develop governmental capacities in the immediate term. In the longer term, disaster risk management courses shall be integrated into the public administration schools so that all new officers acquire basic skills about disaster risk management during their entry training.
- **Policy Implementation:** In addition to the lack of funding, a number of other factors hinder the implementation of policies; e.g. i) lack of effective monitoring and evaluation systems, ii) corruption, iii) lack of transparency, and iv) lack of incentives for ensuring compliance and penalties for non-compliance. During the 2005 earthquake in Pakistan over 30,000 children were killed due to poor quality of public schools, which in many cases collapsed while private houses next to them kept standing. No punishments were apparently awarded to any officials from the offices responsible for construction of schools.

exposed to disaster risks so that losses to life and assets in all development areas can be minimized. The key strategies for mainstreaming disaster risk management include: i) promoting safer construction of buildings and infrastructure, ii) applying land-use planning to reduce exposure of settlements and infrastructure to natural hazards, iii) education, awareness and training to enhance technical capacities and personal safety, iv) risk transfer through insurance of large scale infrastructure and critical facilities, v) and citizen participation through community based disaster mitigation activities.

In order to achieve mainstreaming of disaster risk management into development programs, the ministries and departments need to reform their approaches to project design, management and monitoring and evaluation. They need to modify the project procedures to ensure that disaster risk assessment and mitigation are integrated into different phases of the project cycle. The ministries and departments also need to develop in-house technical capacities or rely upon external technical resources to organize risk assessments for various mega projects and to incorporate mitigation approaches in them. It is important to set up a small

disaster mitigation unit in each ministry. Such unit can serve as the focal point to ensure that disaster mitigation is integrated into all aspects of ministerial planning and management.

Climate Change Adaptation and Environmental Management

Environmental conservation, climate change adaptation and disaster mitigation are closely associated. Global studies indicate that more than 80% of the natural disasters are hydro-meteorological; e.g. floods, droughts, desertification, cyclones, storms and fires etc. Therefore, environmental degradation and climate change intensify the frequency and severity of hydro-meteorological hazards. For example, deforestation in upstream areas can increase the risks of flooding and landslides, while deforestation in rangelands can increase desertification, storms and droughts. Climate change is also expected to intensify disaster risks significantly, particularly causing more droughts due to reduced rainfall, more flash flooding due to concentrated rainfall, increased riverine flooding due to melting of glaciers, more storms, cyclones and fires due to rising temperatures and sea-level rise leading to coastal flooding/erosion and salinization of ground water sources in coastal zones.

In this context prudent environmental management can significantly reduce disaster risks and the adverse effects of climate change. Environmental management as a strategy for disaster mitigation and climate change adaptation would revolve around following key elements: sustainable water resources management, sustainable land-use management, and integrated coastal zone management.

Sustainable Water Resources Management: Effective water resources management is critical for its implications with regards to environment, climate change adaption and disaster mitigation. Many countries that suffer from flooding, droughts and desertification are countries which suffer from poor management of water resources: e.g. Djibouti, Iraq, Pakistan, Somalia, Sudan and Syria. Introduction of efficient irrigation technologies to reduce water losses in agricultural sector is critical, because agriculture sector is one of the largest consumers of water. Urban and industrial sectors are also major consumers of water resources. Recycling of urban and industrial water could supply significant amounts of water for reuse in industrial sector and for agricultural purposes. Some countries are also focusing upon identification of new sources of water; e.g. desalination of sea-water by Saudi Arabia and UAE, but this is a relatively expensive technology requiring large amounts of fuel consumption, which also cause environmental damages to the ocean flora, fauna and coastal resources. Integrated Water Resources Management (IWRM) is a very innovative and participatory approach, which is being experimented by many countries. IWRM is implemented at a watershed level, where through active engagement of all key stakeholders water needs of different sectors are identified and through analysis of available water supply, decisions on sectorial water allocation are taken. The decisions on sectorial distribution of water are based upon multiple criteria, such as economic importance of the sector, environmental importance of the sector, the role of sector in providing livelihoods.

Sustainable Land-use Management: Better land-use management can play a crucial role in promoting disaster mitigation and climate change adaptation. Many OIC member countries in the Arab States region suffer from desertification, droughts and storms; e.g. Algeria, Djibouti, Iraq, Libya, Morocco, Somalia, Sudan, Tunisia including the Gulf countries. These phenomena in return are reinforced by poor land-use, in addition to poor water resources management. The poor land-use results from over-exploitation of fragile rangelands by ever-growing livestock herds, the maintenance of which is beyond the carrying capacity of fragile ecosystems. Sustainable rangeland management requires reforestation, soil conservation, communal management arrangements, reduction in livestock populations, and introduction of alternative livelihoods sources amongst others.

The management of riverine, coastal and urban lands is another big piece of the puzzle. Multiple factors are driving increased concentration of populations in

Box 5.3: Istanbul Seismic Risk Mitigation and Emergency Preparedness Project (ISMEP)

The Governorship of Istanbul with financial support from World Bank is implementing the **Istanbul Seismic Risk Mitigation and Emergency Preparedness Project (ISMEP)** project with the aim to prepare the city against a possible earthquake. The total cost of the project is USD 1.2 billion, most of which is a loan. The project is working with 3 main objectives: i) increase emergency preparedness capacity, ii) reduce seismic risk for priority public buildings, and iii) promote application of building codes. In order to reduce seismic risks in public buildings, the project evaluated seismic vulnerability of 1515 buildings including schools, hospitals, policlinics, administrative buildings, dormitories and social service buildings. The project has reinforced about 763 buildings through retrofitting and reconstruction. These include 656 schools, 22 hospitals, 10 policlinics, 30 office buildings, 20 dormitories and 22 social service buildings. The reinforcement of schools has helped to provide safe learning environment to 1 million children by reducing their vulnerability to earthquake. The project is also working with the General Directorate of Highways to reinforce bridges and viaducts. In order to ensure application of buildings codes in private buildings, the project has helped to digitize the building data. This has helped to improve licensing, certification and monitoring of the private buildings. Additionally the project has also provided training to engineers about "regulation for the buildings constructed in the earthquake zones. ISMEP is the largest earthquake safety project in OIC countries.

riverbeds and coastal zones, thus enhancing the exposure of such populations to flooding, coastal erosion and coastal storms amongst others. In Bangladesh, for example, it is estimated that more than 10 million people live inside riverbeds, thus leading to periodic life and property losses due to flooding and changes in the river course. In the North African region large segments of population are concentrated in coastal zones including in Algeria, Egypt, Libya, Morocco and Tunisia. This concentration resulting from urbanization and tourism related livelihoods has significantly increased the exposure of these societies to the impact of climate change. The improvements in land management practices in riverine and coastal zones require implementation of land-zoning wherever possible, conservation and remediation of natural habitats.

The phenomenon of urbanization contributes significantly to increased societal exposure and vulnerability to natural disasters; including flooding and earthquakes. The growing demand for urban lands, corruption and poor management has resulted in poor environmental management and disaster mitigation practices. The natural drainage systems in the form of small rivers, canals or waterways are occupied and covered with construction. Therefore, a rain which was previously considered "normal" could now lead to major flooding in the urban centres. There are even worse examples of poor urban land use in cases where cities have been built on the path of water drainage. The Jeddah flooding of 2011 is, but one such example, which resulted from location of Jeddah in the pathway of water and the related poor drainage to the ocean. In urban areas, the provision of open spaces, protection of natural drainage channels and safety of plantation is a crucial environmental management approach with significant implications for disaster mitigation.

Integrated Coastal Zone Management (ICZM) is also a cutting-edge approach which is currently being experimented in countries like Egypt and Tunisia to promote sustainable use of environmental resources in the coastal zones and to promote climate change adaptation. Like IWRM, the ICZM is a participatory, multidisciplinary approach. The approach balances the advantages of economic development with the protection and preservation of coastal areas and the minimization of losses to life and property. From the perspective of disaster mitigation and climate change, the key sectors that will be most relevant for implementation of ICZM approach would include water resources, agriculture, industry, tourism and environment.

5.2 Promoting public awareness, participation and social protection

Activities, projects or programs aimed at developing institutional capacity for effective disaster risk management are not sustainable if they lack motivation, namely moral support at communal level. Therefore, the determinant of the success of disaster management works is the level of awareness in the face of existing risks in communities and the creation of safety culture at communal level by means of community-based practices. Safety culture is not only important for reducing risks at individual level but also for attracting public opinion's attention to institutions' disaster management programmes and projects. Consequently any project or programme in disaster management should consider this communal aspect in its formulation.

The best method to create safety culture is to penetrate into society through grassroots communication strategy. Otherwise, the targeted behavioural change could never be achieved effectively through official channels and traditional mass media. Close interaction with people through their involvement is a vital concept for this grassroots communication strategy targeted at behavioural change, this can only be achieved through civil society organisations based on voluntary activities. Civil society organizations engaged in community-based disaster awareness and reduction practices should be supported with a strong mechanism which brings them together with state organisations at central and local level for efficacy.

Based on the experiences of the related institutions in OIC countries, following a set of criteria for community-based disaster reduction (CBDR) projects are formulated:

- *Diversification and widening target population size:* Access to the maximum number of persons from different segments of population should be achieved to the extent that the targeted effect to seek behavioural change can be achieved.
- *Community participation:* Project target groups should be involved in project management process in all phases. This is necessary to have a correctly formulated framework from beneficiary perspective and also to increase ownership.
- *Grassroots communication:* Credible and respectable community leaders should be engaged as focal points to reach community in the natural flow of life. Traditional ways of communication are very effective to establish a common understanding.
- *Organisational strength:* The undertaking organisation should use its organisational network at local level for outreach. If it does not have such a network, it should establish partnership with institutions having their extension at local level.
- *Increased involvement of stakeholders:* CBDR programmes or projects should be supported through the involvement of government institutions at local and central level to reveal political will and priority for disaster reduction.
- *Scientific approach:* Cooperation should be established with universities to ensure that the scientific component is sufficiently incorporated in CBDR programmes or projects.
- *Applicable tools:* Methodology for dissemination should be practically applicable through capabilities existing in different contexts. They should be adaptable. If sophisticated tools are used, there will be a serious risk of non-adoption.
- *Pioneering people:* From well-known opinion leaders such as famous scientist or celebrities should be benefited for PR activities in CBDR programmes or projects to increase popularity of disaster reduction.
- *Stakeholder information management:* All stakeholders should be continuously informed with regards to CBDR programmes or projects in a timely manner.

Participation

Public awareness and participation is essential at every stage of disaster management. Citizen participation is absolutely crucial for the success of any disaster mitigation programs, because ultimately all disasters are local in term of their impact and all mitigation works are done at the local level in villages and cities. In addition to disaster mitigation, it is also

crucial to raise awareness among individuals and organizations involved in early warning and in the implementation of early warning systems, particularly at the community level. For an effective response, it is critical to empower communities and restore the capacities of authorities. There is also a need to develop a proactive strategy to enhance capacities of governments and societies to address recovery processes and to heighten awareness on the importance of disaster resilient recovery.

For that reason, capacities, resources, knowledge and technical know-how for DRR need to be strengthened and channelled down to local levels of governance. Public, private, regional and international partners and donors need to be committed and systematically engaged. Investments need to be boosted in raising awareness on disaster risks, impacts and prevention measures. The governments can launch specialized programs on community based disaster risk reduction. Amongst OIC countries there are many examples of such programs, including the Cyclone Preparedness Programme in Bangladesh, the Seismic Risk Reduction Programme in Aqaba Jordan and ISMEP Project in Istanbul.

Social Protection

Poverty and disaster risks have a mutually reinforcing relationship. Studies have indicated that the economic situation of families that have suffered frequent disasters worsened due to the loss of sources of income or damage to houses. Poor families also find it hard to recover from the impact of a disaster, because they tend to have least access to facilities provided by governments. Similarly a poor family has low chance to spend money on disaster mitigation, simply because it doesn't have the resources required to build a house that can withstand an earthquake or a cyclone. In this manner the cycle of poverty, disaster losses, enhanced poverty, and intensified disaster losses continues. An analysis of the impact of 2009 drought in Syria indicated that the affected population was adversely affected in all aspects of its wellbeing; e.g. loss of income, loss of health, increased mortality, loss of education, thus making them poorer than earlier.

Therefore, the reduction of structural poverty is crucial to minimize vulnerability of poor populations to disaster risks. Various microfinance programmes in OIC countries helped to reduce the poverty of families resulting from the better livelihood options has also reduced their vulnerability to cyclone and flood disasters. To support vulnerable communities, the Government of Bangladesh is implementing a Comprehensive Disaster Management Programme (CDMP). Under the CDMP a Local Disaster Risk Reduction Fund (LDRRF) has been established to increase community resilience. The small grants disbursed by the Fund finance community level disaster risk reduction by community based organizations. The Fund provides support to conduct community risk assessment, prepared risk reduction action plans, and implement projects. The community risk assessment and planning process plays a crucial role in raising awareness of community members about the disaster risks, their rights and the need for self-help. The interaction between communities and local authorities also help the authorities to align their development plans to disaster risk management. Similar micro-loan supported risk management funds are provided in some other OIC member countries, including Tajikistan.

5.3 Information, knowledge sharing and capacity development for preparedness and response

The role of information is crucial in efficiently managing all types of emergencies and achieving orderly transitions from response to sustained recovery. Preparing the community to disasters at all levels will require a sound analysis of disaster risks together with extensive needs assessment, well-developed early warning systems, contingency planning, stockpiling of equipment and supplies, the development of arrangements for coordination, evacuation and public information, and associated training and field exercises. These must be supported by formal institutional, legal and budgetary capacities.

Information management and analysis is equally important after a disaster. Before taking any action after a disaster, a good quality of information on the people affected and their needs are required. People living at the periphery are often neglected and needs assessments usually lacks gender- and age-based analysis. However, in many cases, countries lack the capacity to collect the relevant data and monitor and evaluate the whole process, leading to the following general gaps:

- Lack of comprehensive, inclusive and timely assessment of needs of the affected population;
- Ambiguity around population to be targeted and lack of clear definition and quantification of vulnerable groups;
- Lack of common key indicators and targets for the sector specific response;
- Lack of data for monitoring and planning of interventions;
- Inadequate level of monitoring and evaluation of quality and impacts of interventions

Therefore, maintaining up-to-date data on hazards and vulnerabilities, preparing risk assessments and using these as the basis for disaster mitigation plans, emergency response and post-disaster recovery are several key steps in disaster management.

There is, however, a significant gap in capacity to collect and utilize data and information as well as sharing the knowledge on disasters. Accordingly, most government officials and citizens in OIC member countries lack knowledge of disaster risk management. Therefore the **role of training, education and awareness** is critical to develop technical knowledge of in-service officers, new recruits and general public. Many countries are taking action in this regard. For example, in many OIC countries, including Bangladesh, Pakistan and Sudan, a number of universities are offering courses of different aspects of disaster risk management, including diploma and degree. In some countries, the ministries of education are integrating disaster risk management concepts into the high-school curricula. Lebanon, for example, is working to integrate one course into the National School of Public Administration and one into the Armed Forces Training Academy.

Why information needed

Ability to quickly and appropriately respond, when required, relies foremost on effective information and knowledge management and sound analysis of disaster risks. Such ability will encompass various dimensions of disaster preparation, including needs assessment, resource mobilization and coordination, contingency planning, and early warning. A vital step in organizing an effective and relevant disaster response is the **needs assessment**. It must be planned in advance, properly and thoroughly. It is critical to ensure that needs assessments are credible, so that affected-populations, donors, media, private sector and civil society trust in the results.

Disaster risk management by its very nature is a multi-disciplinary and multi-sectorial subject, which requires **coordination and collaboration** amongst different ministries, departments and stakeholders with effective information and communication mechanism. Coordination is required for longer term policy and planning, as well as during actual emergency operations to coordinate deployment of resources. Typically most countries have set up multi-sectorial coordination mechanisms in various forms. However, in most cases such coordination mechanisms remain dormant during most of the year and they are activated only at the time of disaster, thus providing little time for preparedness. Therefore, the countries lag behind in their preparedness capacities.

In the recent years, many OIC member countries are setting up multi-sectorial coordination bodies. It is important that these bodies meet on periodical basis and discuss issues of disaster mitigation and preparedness, identify gaps in capacity, propose strategies and assign responsibilities to departments. Some countries have also set up more operational and broad representational bodies in the form of national platforms, which bring together members of government ministries, academia, civil society, and UN amongst others. Such broad forums are

extremely useful in identifying capacity gaps, enhancing capacities and defining roles.

Resources mobilization is closely related to coordination. An effective coordination forum amongst government ministries, local governments, civil society, UN agencies, donors, private sector and media allows all the stakeholders for transparent sharing of information about needs, resources and gaps. It helps to develop trust and collegiality. If all stakeholders are together in assessing capacities or post disaster needs and in devising plans for relief or capacity development, then they all have ownership of the process and the results. In this way there are higher chances that stakeholders would offer support to each other in the form of human, information, physical and financial resources.

There is also need for a systematic approach, **contingency planning,** to identify what catastrophes can happen in an area and gear up systems and resources to organize an effective response when the emergency happens. Contingency events should be identified with plans, strategies and approaches for avoiding or coping with them so as to minimize losses of life and property. The objective of contingency planning is not to develop a plan for every possible contingency, but to think about major catastrophes and possible responses. People who have given thought to contingencies and possible responses are more likely to meet major goals and targets successfully.

Unfortunately the culture of contingency planning is not widely prevalent. Only a few countries globally are actively engaged in periodic contingency planning. In developing countries, the governments, if at all, recruit consultants, who design contingency plans and then such documents are stacked in cupboards and forgotten. Civil defence organizations only ceremoniously engages in contingency planning, creating a fake sense of security amongst officials that we have a contingency plan, but such plans would prove useless when the catastrophe happen. Best contingency plans are those which are prepared on periodical basis, with everyone's participation and then followed by regular drills and coordination meetings to operationalize them, when needed.

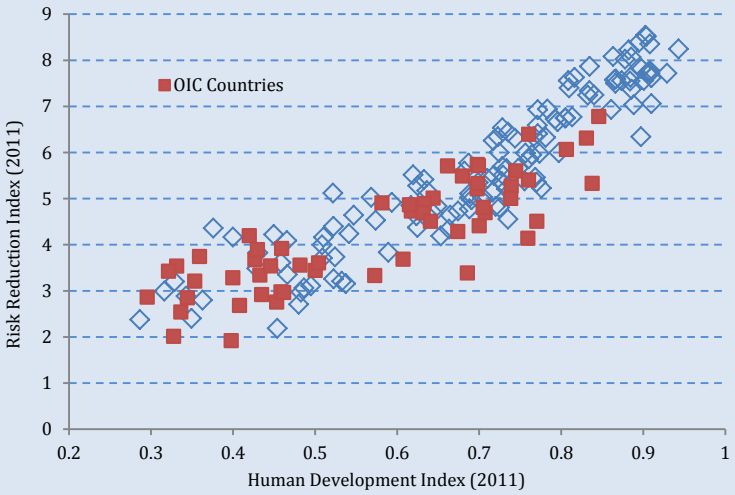
The provision of timely and effective information that allows individuals exposed to a hazard to take action to avoid or reduce their risk and prepare for effective response, **early warning**, is another key aspect of disaster management where an effective information and knowledge management required. Early warning systems include a chain of actions, including understanding and mapping the hazard, monitoring and forecasting impending events, processing and disseminating understandable warnings to political authorities and the population, and undertaking appropriate and timely actions in response to the warnings. Early warning systems empower individuals and communities threatened by hazards to act in sufficient time and in an appropriate manner so as to reduce the possibility of personal injury, loss of life, damage to property and the environment, and loss of livelihoods.

Early warning (coupled with preparedness) plays a critical role in preventing hazardous events turning into disasters. Clear warnings, received in time, coupled with the knowledge of how to react, can mean the difference between life and death, or between economic survival and ruin, for individuals and communities. Early warning and preparedness systems are widely acknowledged as good investments to protect life and property. But many countries and communities still do not have effective systems and are highly vulnerable to natural hazards. This was sadly demonstrated in the Indian Ocean Tsunami in December 2004 which killed more than 200.000 people.

Capacity development

Every stage of disaster management requires well-developed capacities at all levels to cope with the challenges of that specific stage. Capacity development is not only about transfer of knowledge and technical skills, but also enhancing capabilities to find the best solutions for a particular set of circumstances. The process of capacity development includes engaging stakeholders to the process, assessing the capacity needs, formulating and implementing a response and evaluating capacity development.

Box 5.4: Human Development Index vs. Risk Reduction Index



A simple cross-section graph of countries' state of human development measured by the United Nations' Human Development Index and their capacities and conditions for effective disaster risk management measured by DARA's Risk Reduction Index (RRI) indicates that the majority of the member countries with highest vulnerability to disasters (such as Bangladesh, Pakistan, Afghanistan, Nigeria, Sudan, Somalia, Uganda, and Niger) also suffer from low levels of human development.

After securing commitment and sponsorship of all key stakeholders, existing capacities should be analysed and needs for future capacities should be identified. The capacity assessment should be based on the relationship between hazards and the levels of vulnerability in a particular context. This process can then be followed by development of a strategy for capacity development and implementation of that strategy. Implementation can be a mix of short term measures in the form of performance or skill enhancement and more complex and long term measures to address more challenging operational or institutional issues. To ensure that outputs are translating outcomes (capacity development) and impact (capacity goals), an evaluation framework should be established to measure results.

Capacities grow over time and evolve in different ways. It follows that capacity development approaches need to be highly contextual, iterative and flexible for "good fit". Capacity development efforts can rarely be limited to technical dimensions. Because capacity development is about change, it is also about the political economy and the realities of interest and power. Capacity can be considered an end - a development outcome - in itself. Capacity provides the basis for making development policy choices, not only a means for achieving certain goals.

International cooperation is also very crucial for effective disaster risk management and capacity development. Cooperation is not only about money. It is also about **sharing of information, knowledge and good practices**. Some countries are much more advanced within and outside the OIC membership, with regards to disaster risk management, while others are at the bottom. The countries at the bottom can learn a lot from those at the top edge. Sharing of information about potential hazards is equally critical, particularly in the case of riverine flooding amongst riparian countries. For example, Iraq, Iran, Syria, and Turkey share rivers amongst themselves. The low or high flow of waters in the rivers in one country has consequences for other countries in the form of flooding due to high flow and shortage of water from lower flows. Sharing of information on rain-systems is also critical in some cases; e.g. between Ethiopia and Sudan, where rains in Ethiopia could cause flash flooding in the downstream areas of Sudan. If Sudanese authorities could receive timely information from their neighbours about the rains, they could take action to evacuate communities from the path of danger.

Another critical issue in information and knowledge management is **transparency and accountability.** Since poor management of disaster risks could lead to catastrophes causing human and economic losses, a good risk governance system must have built-in transparency and accountability mechanisms. It thus allows institutions and individuals to monitor, learn and adjust their actions in line with those whom they

are accountable. The establishment of multi-disciplinary coordination forums with representation from all key stakeholders is crucial for transparency and accountability. The civil society organizations and media particularly have a very important role in ensuring that DRM plans are prepared, resources are allocated and plans are implemented by the responsible public institutions, private sector bodies and other stakeholders. Thus the representation of media and civil society in coordination forums is essential. Equally important is the establishment of a good communication system, which keeps everyone informed about the existing plans, programs, progress and hurdles. Such communication system can be built by the national and local disaster management authorities through regular publishing of plans, progress reports, field updates, evaluations and financial disbursements through their websites and media.

5.4 Coordination of emergency response

Disaster response includes the activities taken in anticipation of, during, and immediately after an emergency to ensure that its effects are minimised. The impacts of disasters are immediate and, in many cases, long-lasting. When a disaster strikes, communities generally find themselves deprived of basic needs, with infrastructure being crumbled. While it causes loss of life and damage to property and infrastructure, the survivors need immediate action as they are left without adequate shelter, food, water and other necessities to sustain life. Immediate and effective action is required to prevent further loss of life and traumatization of survivors.

The consequences of a disaster are frequently complex. A disaster may disrupt markets for goods and services over a broad area, reducing the availability of foodstuff and opportunities for income generation. At the same time, it affects the provision of public services. In case of health, it may destroy essential health infrastructure such as hospitals, resulting in a lack of emergency and longer-term medical care for the affected population. In addition to social and economic impacts, some political instability may come to happen in cases of complex emergencies resulting from several different hazards or from a complex combination of both natural and man-made causes and different causes of vulnerability.

In this context, the OIC Ten-Year Programme of Action (TYPOA) emphasizes the importance of supporting countries affected by disasters to rebuild their buffer stocks. It states that "*Islam advocates solidarity with, and assistance to, all the needy without discrimination, which requires the Islamic States to develop and adopt a clear strategy on Islamic relief action and support the trend towards cooperation and coordination between individual relief efforts of Islamic States and Islamic civil society institutions on the one hand, and international civil society institutions and organizations on the other hand*."

It is crucial that emergency response activities do not make a bad situation even worse. Circumstances in disaster-hit places may potentially evolve quite rapidly and often in unpredictable ways. This requires a close coordination and cooperation between all stakeholders involved in the response, including the affected community itself. In complex emergencies, particular attention should be given to displaced migration.

For an effective emergency response, a comprehensive assessment of needs should be conducted immediately after an emergency and updated throughout the response. An effective coordination mechanism will considerably increase the success of the intervention. Collaboration with regional and international partners may be crucial for some emergency response activities. In this context, this subsection provides a brief guidance on effective emergency mechanism. It will be followed by international quality and accountability standards on disaster response, financing mechanisms for disaster response and early recovery, and regional and international cooperation in response to disasters.

Emergency response mechanisms

The response phase primarily focuses on restoring law and order, ensuring a secure environment and

distributing resources and supplies to survivors. For an effective response, emergency response mechanism should include affected community, national and local governments, donor governments, multilateral agencies, national and international NGOs, academic institutions, military and the media, as well as the private sector and religious groups. Some important issues are highlighted below for an effective response.

- Precise and timely communication is necessary for better decision making, effective coordination and public awareness. This requires a well-functioning **command-and-control system**. In case it is malfunctioning, restoring law and order will be particularly crucial to an environment in which significant relief activities are needed. Otherwise, a disrupted civil society and security will make it more difficult or impossible to distribute resources to those in need and prolong suffering.
- **Food and shelter** are critical determinants for survival in the initial stages of a disaster. While shelter is necessary for safety, security and protection from diseases, food assistance will be needed where disasters have major impact on food stocks or crops and when people are not able to draw on their own savings or food reserves. Along with food and shelter, **safe water and sanitation** are among the highest priority interventions in emergency situations. Available water sources should be protected from contamination and emergency sanitation facilities need to be provided immediately.
- Effective and proper handling of public **health emergencies** is of utmost importance. It is crucial to ensure that the actions of all health actors are coordinated and, in particular, the actions of external health actors are well coordinated with those of the national and local health authorities and actors. It is desirable to have a health strategy plan for planning health response throughout the affected area(s), including the allocation of resources among areas. Prolonged crises and complex emergencies may have a severe impact on health systems in the affected countries. While unreliable and incomplete information hinders sound decision making for effective response, rapidly evolving conditions increase uncertainty. Health professionals in conflict affected countries often have limited experience in analysing the major distortions of disrupted health systems and formulating measures to develop effective strategies and plans for health system revision.
- **Search-and-rescue** (SAR) operations in a disaster situation are conducted to rescue the greatest number of people in the shortest amount of time, while minimizing the risk to the rescuers. SAR is considered a multi-hazard discipline, as it may be needed for different types of hazards including earthquakes, storms, floods and industrial accidents or incidents caused by any sudden onset event.
- Becoming increasingly complex, disasters brings with them an enormous potential for the uprooting of large numbers of people. Crisis-induced **migration** takes place in case of a slow onset of a disaster, like severe drought. It is an impulsive response to the perception by the migrants that they will have access to food and security elsewhere. In effect, the hazard itself does not cause the crises of disaster and displacement. It is generally the lack of comprehensive disaster risk reduction strategies, poor emergency preparedness, shortages of food, water and essential health services and similar weaknesses in local and national governance capacity. If particular circumstances caused by a disaster do not require transferring people, governments should take necessary measures to avoid unnecessary movement and displacement of people.
- The delivery of emergency relief requires **logistical facilities** and organizational capacity to ensure the timeliness and efficiency of response. A well-organized supply chain is crucial for handling the procurement, storage and dispatch of relief supplies for distribution to disaster victims in good condition and at the time they are needed. Humanitarian supply logistics cannot be contrived at the time of the emergency. It must be regarded as a keystone of emergency planning and preparedness.

- Timely, predictable, and effective **information and communications technology** services improve response and coordination among humanitarian organizations, operational security environment for staff and assets, and decision-making through timely access to critical information.

In addition to these measures, responding agencies should use various tools such as systematic evaluation and peer review to ensure the quality of services according to globally accepted disaster management standards and to assess the impact of those activities on the lives of disaster affected populations. A variety of international initiatives aimed at self-regulation and development of common standards have been taken by the actors in the international humanitarian community. Even though these initiatives are voluntary and without solid enforcement mechanisms, they indicate the widespread recognition of the need for better quality and greater accountability of humanitarian activities. The most important one is perhaps the Sphere Project, which aims to improve the quality of assistance provided to people affected by disasters, and to enhance the accountability of the humanitarian system in disaster response. Likewise, the HAP Standard in Accountability and Quality Management is designed to help organisations that assist or act on behalf of people affected by or prone to disasters, conflict, poverty or other crises to design, implement, assess, improve and recognise accountable programmes.

Operational efficiency and effectiveness

A typical emergency situation include high uncertainty and necessity for rapid decision making, risk of possible mass casualty, severe resource shortage, and disruption of infrastructure. Therefore, effective coordination of emergency response is usually challenging. This can be further complicated by factors such as disconnected authorities, conflict of interest, and the high demand for timely information. For an effective and efficient response mechanism, there is a need for adaptation from the current ad hoc co-ordination to pre-planned, pre-arranged and predictable a system. When national capacities are overwhelmed, a well-organized and reliable system at regional or OIC level can save more lives. There are several international initiatives and approaches to coordinate the response activities more effectively.

The Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC) is the primary mechanism for inter-agency coordination of humanitarian assistance. As a decision-making group, it brings together international organizations, including UN agencies, the World Bank, the International Organization for Migration and other major humanitarian organizations, working to provide humanitarian assistance to people in need as a result of natural disasters, conflict-related emergencies, global food crises and pandemics. The IASC plays a key role in preventing gaps and duplications in humanitarian response, with real-time evaluations and feedback mechanisms to improve the quality of assistance.

In order to enhance predictability, accountability and partnership, the **Cluster Approach** was introduced by UN in 2005 as a bureaucratic innovation. The cluster approach aims to ensure that international responses are appropriately aligned with national structures and to facilitate strong linkages among international organizations, national authorities, national civil society and other stakeholders. Most IASC clusters – in particular the WASH, Shelter, Nutrition and Health clusters – explicitly base their own indicators on the Sphere indicators.

In this context, OIC countries can benefit from such mechanisms to improve the quality, performance and accountability of response activities. Moreover, establishment of an OIC Emergency Coordination Mechanism is recommended to coordinate the relief efforts among the OIC member countries.

Financing response

A key aspect of emergency relief and early recovery activities is a well-managed funding mechanism. Disaster-hit countries may lack the necessary resources to effectively address the needs of affected people as well as for restoring basic infrastructure and services. Disasters may have an enormous impact on social and economic welfare of

affected countries. This impact is especially severe in low and middle-income countries, where governments often have inadequate resources to restore critical infrastructure and provide assistance to the affected people and private sector to recover their assets. If a state lacks resources to support its citizens, the vulnerable segments of the society will further suffer from disasters in terms of heightened poverty through loss of assets and income generating opportunities. In addition, there is also need for financial instruments not only for providing needed ex-post resources, but also contributing importantly to ex-ante social protection and incentives for risk reduction and adaptation to climate change and post-conflict situations.

To better support developing country governments affected by disasters, multilateral agencies such as the World Bank and the Inter-American Development Bank have created new instruments that provide middle-income countries with contingent credit that can be immediately accessed in case of an emergency. These allow for immediate access to liquidity in case of disasters, combining the benefits of low interest rates provided by multilateral credit with rapid and flexible access to resources. At regional or OIC level, OIC member countries can also establish funds to support people in need. The Caribbean Catastrophe Risk Insurance Facility (CCRIF) provides an example where small island states acted together to create a regional reserve mechanism to secure access to immediate liquidity in case of a major disaster.

International partners in disaster response

There are a number of international institutions and initiatives to support the governments in disaster preparedness and response. With respect to preparedness, the most notable are UN International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (UNISDR), Global Facility for Disaster Reduction and Recovery (GFDRR), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (UN-OCHA). UNISDR was mandated to serve as the focal point in the United Nations system for coordination of disaster response. The World Bank's GFDRR provides technical and financial assistance to developing countries to mainstream disaster reduction in their development strategies. While the UNDP is extensively involved in disaster risk reduction and preparedness, UN-OCHA's mandate includes supporting and strengthening national capacity of emergency response.

There is also a diverse range of international initiatives to support immediate disaster response. United Nations Disaster Assessment and Coordination (UNDAC), managed by UN-OCHA, is a key agency for international disaster response system for sudden-onset emergencies. The International Search and Rescue Advisory Group (INSARAG) aims to improve the quality and coordination of urban search and rescue activities. International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (IFRC) supports the activities of the National Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies through a variety of tools and mechanisms. Finally, many different non-governmental organizations (NGOs) have highly developed rapid response mechanisms to support relief activities.

Both national authorities and international humanitarian organizations should seek the opportunity to effectively work together. The complexity of facilitating and regulating an international humanitarian response involving various actors may exceed the capacities of government officials, particularly in the critical days following a disaster.

Compared to organizations at global scale, regional organizations with more commonalities (usually linguistic and cultural) can provide a good basis for building trust and confidence. This, in turn, can increase their capabilities in establishing common policies for disaster management and resolving disputes and conflicts. This is especially critical when disaster risks are not bounded with national boundaries, and require involvement of neighbouring countries.

Regional organizations can build a regional multi-hazard network for an effective disaster risk management with possible cooperation areas including information sharing, capacity building,

Box 5.5: OIC Humanitarian Affairs Department (ICHAD)

The OIC attaches great importance to the issue of disaster risk reduction and the commitment to reduce the loss of life, livelihood and economic assets through natural disasters, an initiative which seeks to accelerate the worldwide implementation of the Hyogo Framework for Action 2005-2015 and the increasing role disaster risk reduction efforts and initiatives is playing in the OIC Member States' national policies. In this vein, ICHAD which is the OIC focal point closely cooperates with ISDR and other stakeholders in disaster risk reduction, such as LAS, ISESCO, the Saudi Arabian Presidency of Metrology and Environment and the Islamic Development Bank. The OIC supports the development of main tools for disaster risk reduction such as the development of guidelines to evaluate risk and strategies to integrate disaster risk reduction in sustainable development policies and plans. Consequently, ICHAD annually produces a comprehensive Report on Disasters in OIC Member States, and on request of Member States affected by disasters, the SG makes appeals for assistance to Member States, philanthropists and international community to come to their aid, including follow-up action.

A case in point is the Banda Aceh Tsunami Orphans support programme jointly undertaken by the OIC and the Islamic Development, and the housing projects for Pakistan flood affectees. ICHAD participates in all major conferences, workshops and seminars on disaster risk reduction. It is worth mentioning that the OIC participated in the launch of the 2009 Global Assessment Report on Disaster Risk Reduction held in Manama, Bahrain in May 2009, prior to which the OIC, UNISDR and the Bahrain Mission in Geneva organized an information meeting in which an overview of the Global Assessment Report was presented and discussed among the Permanent Missions of the OIC in Geneva. The OIC also participated as an observer to the bi-annual Global Platform for Disaster Risk Reduction at its second session in June 2009 in Geneva.

It will be noted that all studies indicate that humanitarian disasters will triple in the coming decade due to climate change and other factors. In 2010, for instance, the disaster rate registered bigger proportions, with 25 Member States suffering from catastrophes and humanitarian crises. The total estimated financial losses stood at 50 billion dollars, with the worst floods disaster ever in modern history hitting the Islamic Republic of Pakistan. In face of these daunting challenges, Member States are called upon to seriously consider mitigating these threats in view of the mega disasters likely to affect Member States. Hence, the ever-pressing and vital need to set up a Special Emergency Response Fund within the OIC General Secretariat so as to urgently cope with the thorny issues of delivering emergency assistance whenever disaster strikes OIC Member States. Similarly it is imperative to seriously consider strengthening the capacity of the Organization of Islamic Cooperation to efficiently address humanitarian emergencies through disaster prevention and preparedness.

technology sharing, joint infrastructure, and the promotion of common standards. Furthermore, regional disaster response systems can be established with potential areas of cooperation including rapid emergency assessments, regional deployment of equipment and teams, coordination mechanisms with international organizations, and joint emergency information management.

There are more than 10 regional organizations with significant strategies and plans for improving preparedness and response. The Organisation of Islamic Cooperation (OIC) itself established a department for humanitarian activities known as the Islamic Conference Humanitarian Affairs Department (ICHAD) in 2008. It has been involved in mobilising resources for specific disasters (see Box 5.5). It carried out emergency interventions recently in Somalia, Palestine, Yemen, Pakistan, Niger, Bosnia Herzegovina, Afghanistan, and Philippines. It also established a network of NGOs in 2011. At the international level, the OIC has widened its scope of cooperation with many international humanitarian organizations such as OCHA, UNHCR, UNDP, WFP, UNISDR, USAID, the Saudi Red Crescent Society, the Turkish International Cooperation Agency (TIKA), Muslim Aid, etc. OIC subsidiary organs, Islamic Solidarity Fund (ISF) and Islamic Committee of International Crescent (ICIC) have also been working to address the vulnerable segments of population in Islamic countries.

5.5 Sustainable recovery

Recurrent disasters and crises disrupt economic, political and social systems of society and erode development gains of affected countries, thus pushing them into a downward spiral, where losses outweigh limited development gains and disaster risks continue to accumulate. Countries frequently affected by crises may be involved in a vicious circle of deepening vulnerabilities and increasing poverty, as in Sudan, Somalia and Yemen.

Disaster recovery offers a window of opportunity, albeit transient, to change and transform the society. Post-disaster period provides a supportive political context to take decisions for transformative changes for (re)-building a more resilient society by reducing vulnerabilities, risks and removing underlying causes. An effective recovery process, however, requires timely policy guidance and financial, technical and institutional support in order to achieve maximum benefits from the rehabilitation and reconstruction process after disasters. When recovery is well managed, disasters may become opportunities for reducing risk and securing development. If recovery is managed only poorly, however, the disasters can undermine future development by deepening inequalities, worsening poverty, increasing vulnerabilities of affected populations and enhancing risks.

Globally, disaster recovery remains a major challenge, because most governments and societies are not well prepared to organize post disaster recovery. While the number of disasters and their impacts have grown enormously in the recent decades, the capacity of countries to manage the recovery process remains limited. However, some OIC member countries such as Bangladesh, Indonesia, Iran and Pakistan have initiated efforts to build capacities for disaster recovery. These countries can act as a knowledge depository and share their experiences with other member countries of the OIC.

Transition Strategies

Rebuilding the affected areas in all dimensions of human development—social, economic, political, physical and cultural—poses a significant challenge after a disaster. The full recovery after a mega disaster will require considerable financial resources, skilled human resources, and strong coordination and institutional arrangements to accomplish swift recovery and sustained reconstruction to 'build back better'.

Evidence from recent disasters has shown that recovery efforts by the affected population begin concurrently with humanitarian assistance. The affected population engages in spontaneous recovery activities as soon as the conditions permit. However, in the absence of a support mechanism for recovery, these spontaneous and sometimes haphazard recovery efforts could increase the vulnerability of the affected people. For this reason, it is important that planning for rehabilitation commences as soon as possible after the disaster. The objective is to support people's own initiatives, strengthen their productive capacity early on when it matters most, and harness opportunities for reducing disaster risks.

Early support with regards to recovery will enhance the capacity of disaster affected populations to fully participate in the longer-term reconstruction and re-development process. Early recovery, therefore, not only fills an essential gap related to transitional needs emerging between relief and rehabilitation, it also provides the well-needed foundation for successful reconstruction; e.g. policy development for the inclusion of risk reduction on the reconstruction process, training for safe-building techniques, building code revisions, and the restoration of local governance systems for managing the construction process.

Strategies for Resilient and Sustainable Rebuilding

The global experiences in recovery have led to the formulation of certain key principles for an effective recovery process, which are also valid for OIC countries. These are illustrated as below.

i. **Focus on the most vulnerable:** The disaster can increase vulnerability of groups that have special needs, including women, the disabled, children and orphans, the displaced, the elderly

and those who are unable to claim support. Recovery programming must be based on disaggregated data collection, assessment and differential impact analysis. Gender should be the key dimension for disaggregation. Particular emphasis needs to be placed on recovery solutions that are affordable and can be accessed by people with special needs. Recovery programmes shall integrate opportunities for reducing vulnerabilities and minimizing disadvantages.

ii. **Restore local capacities:** Restoring the institutional capacity of local governments and civil society organizations will enable them to become quickly operational and provide recovery support. External support shall build upon and not duplicate existing local capacities, knowledge and strengths and fill gaps where needed through technology transfer, know-how and awareness-raising.

iii. **Rebuild livelihoods:** An important feature of post-disaster recovery is to enable the affected population to quickly re-engage in economic activity. The objective is to rebuild people's lives by creating income opportunities and jobs. This will prevent dependencies and help disaster victims lead self-determined lives.

iv. **Reduce disaster risk:** A good recovery process must prevent the recurrence of disasters and harness conditions for future development. While prioritizing expediency, rebuilding efforts shall aim to produce housing and infrastructure that is more resilient to future disasters. Capacity development on disaster risk reduction shall be part of the recovery process. Environmental restoration and protection concerns shall be considered when rebuilding.

v. **Engage the civil society and private sector:** In addition to governmental and international efforts, private investments from affected people, their relations, and other sources are important inputs to the recovery process. The private sector may provide help in reconstruction of housing and infrastructure, provision of insurance, micro-credits, fast procurement of goods and services and in financing. Volunteers from NGOs, political parties, religious groups and youth organizations can be an enormous asset for the recovery effort.

vi. **Community ownership**: Where appropriate, the principle of community ownership shall be followed in planning and implementation of recovery process. Recovery needs assessment must take into account capacities of affected population, so that local initiative and resources are fully understood and used to the maximum extent. Community consultations will help to set priorities and build consensus around rights, responsibilities and resources. All affected populations need to be given full access to impartial information on all assistance and recovery efforts.

vii. **Transparency and accountability:** An effective information and communication strategy needs to be put in place at all levels so that affected people are adequately informed of the overall design of the recovery programme, time frames, entitlements, sources of technical help and avenues for articulating their concerns and grievances. Multiple channels of communication need to be deployed with the participation of community and religious leaders, school teachers and NGOs.

viii. **Subsidiarity and decentralization:** Planning, implementation and monitoring should take place as close to the affected people as possible. Decentralization is an important vehicle for sharing responsibilities between federal, provincial and local levels, because it empowers local levels, instils a sense of ownership and fosters participation. Based on the principle of subsidiarity, tasks shall be transferred to the lowest institutional or social level that is capable of completing them.

ix. **Coordination and coherence:** Strong coordination will constitute a permanent dialogue and consensus-building mechanism between government agencies, civil society, cooperation agencies, donor and lending institutions. Common standards, guidelines, oversight mechanisms and monitoring systems will ensure equitable and judicious utilization of resources.

x. **Equity:** In case different regions/provinces are affected by a disaster, a formula shall be devised to provide equitable support to all regions in line with the extent of damage.

xi. **Non-partisan compensation:** It is important to keep the process of recovery and reconstruction as non-partisan, so that regions or social segments favouring one political party are not favoured or penalized based upon their political affiliation and compensation is provided based upon objective needs-based criteria.

xii. **Speed is essence:** Reconstruction and rehabilitation is not work as usual. There will be people out there waiting for their houses, schools and hospitals to be built. Emergency procurement procedures, quick approval of projects and fast disbursements will have to be made to keep the timelines. At the same time the whole process will have to be kept flexible and dynamic to remain relevant to evolving situations.

Current Recovery Challenges

Experiences of post disaster recovery operations in OIC countries and the world reveal considerable shortcomings and gaps that seriously hinder full recovery processes of disaster affected regions. The following are the most common features of current recovery processes in the form of challenges:

Relief and development nexus: The conventional approaches to recovery and reconstruction, which require lengthy impact studies, heavy process for design of recovery programs and projects, the negotiation of multilateral loans for reconstruction and the timeframe for approval of development funding generated a *gap* between the ending of humanitarian assistance and the initiation of recovery activities in which affected people are usually left without support for recovery. Similarly, during the *gap,* people begin to recover spontaneously, rebuilding and reproducing conditions even more risk prone than those that existed before the disaster occurred. In some cases, the longer-term reconstruction never gets off the ground, or is considerably delayed because of the lack of execution capacity, political obstacles to loan agreements, a lack of donor interest in funding longer-term recovery and reconstruction, or the outbreak of new crises. This prolongs the *gap* until the next disaster occurs.

Institutional gaps and weak governance: The institutional mechanisms for managing recovery processes rely excessively on ad-hoc measures and usually are limited to manage short term public investment on infrastructure while the human development aspects needed for the restoration of the functionality of the society is marginal or even absent. Few governments (national, municipal and sub-national levels) are prepared to undertake processes to bring communities back to normal in the aftermath of a disaster. The presence of weak recovery governance mechanisms results in inadequate policy guidance and regulatory frameworks for recovery planning and uncoordinated management of recovery processes. In most countries, the governance of recovery remains highly centralized both at national and city level and the process lacks meaningful engagement or participation of crisis-affected communities.

Inadequate vulnerability reduction in reconstruction: Most of the disaster recovery operations fail to seize the window of opportunity that disasters offer for positive structural change and to address the root causes of vulnerabilities. There is indeed great opportunity to promote reform, establish the needed link with sustainable development and reduce risk by reconstructing a new environment after widespread destruction. Inadvertently, much of the reconstruction of built environment, far from reducing vulnerability, reintroduces risk factors similar to those responsible in the first place for the heavy price in lives and assets paid by the communities affected by natural disasters, mainly due to inadequate specific knowledge on how and where to reconstruct to reduce risk and lack of a clear co-ordinating framework.

Inadequate attention to socio-economic aspects of recovery: While, in best cases, physical reconstruction may by and large have been completed within reasonable time, the socio-

economic conditions of affected populations were often found to lag far behind the pre-catastrophe levels for a protracted time. As a result, the negative consequences of the catastrophes for the affected populations hence tend to linger on, often unseen, because of inadequate recovery processes.

Resource gaps and inappropriate focus of investment: A comparative analysis of financial flows for the humanitarian emergency relief phase and the recovery phase suggests international assistance at its peak in the immediate aftermath of the catastrophe; however, in the months down the road funding levels drop dramatically and funds are received in ad hoc and un-coordinated manner. Therefore, recovery is usually limited to short-term public investments that are mainly focused on repair or reconstruction of damaged infrastructure, a necessary but not sufficient aspect of recovery. The restoration of the functionality of society as a whole is usually not well covered.

Methodological gaps: Lack of established normative tools and methodologies for both needs assessments and strategic recovery planning for medium to long-term recovery, absence of recovery policy guides, regulatory and coordination mechanisms also appear as a limiting factor in recovery operations. This leads to inadequate integration of risk reduction measures in immediate reconstruction, weakens central monitoring and control, does not sufficiently sustain governments in formulating and presenting to donors well thought plans for strategic investment and rapid revitalisation of local economies.

Capacity gap: While the number of disasters and their catastrophic consequences grows, the capacity of countries to manage the recovery process restoring the functionality of the society and building back better is quite limited. Systematic actions are required to build capacities in developing countries in order to avoid further deterioration of the living conditions of affected populations after disaster and to secure development gains.

Lack of awareness and knowledge on recovery management: The insufficient awareness on the gravity of short-medium and long-term consequences of poorly managed recovery is reflected in a lack of political commitment and resources to turn disasters into opportunities. As a result, recovery processes are mostly guided by a short-term vision and characterized by the replacement of damaged infrastructure.

Ways Forward: Preparedness for Recovery

Restoring development through rebuilding the physical, social, and human capital of disaster affected communities takes years and the challenge lies in planning strategically to reduce this time-frame and in improving the underlying quality of the recovery process both in urban and rural areas ensuring human security. To achieve it, the lack of recovery specific preparedness and planning measures remains a core issue. Whilst increased focus has been directed globally to contingency planning and emergency response, there have been limited and inadequate investments in developing capacities for managing recovery and this remains a major challenge in the transition from relief to development. Similarly, transitional funding targeting the planning of recovery strategies and programmes is often relatively neglected in the gaps between emergency and development financing.

The appropriate management of recovery is crucial to reduce the risk for future disasters and strengthen the resilience of the communities. However, few governments (national and sub-national levels) are prepared to undertake and to manage the necessary actions and processes to bring communities back to normal in the aftermath of a disaster. To be effective, disaster recovery needs to be an integral part of the response planning systems. The necessary legislative and institutional systems as well as recovery personnel and resources must be in place well before a disaster occurs.

CRITICAL ASPECTS OF CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

6

Best practice shows that conflict prevention and peacebuilding should be guided by the following two broad goals:

i. **Placing a greater emphasis on building resilience to shocks and vulnerability through more effective and inclusive governance systems will help mitigate the impact of violent conflict; and**
ii. **Collaborative, country-lead efforts to address the complex causes of violence, its prevention, as well as early warning can assist governments and communities to prevent violent conflict.**

If countries are unprepared, unable or unwilling to deal with vulnerability and shocks, especially where these disproportionately impact on certain groups and exacerbate existing inequalities, development cannot be advanced in a sustainable way. This means that institutions should be strengthened, communities equipped with the skills to prevent conflict and technology available to monitor and predict where violence may occur in a concerted effort to minimize its impact and develop tools to support the mediation and resolution of conflict when it arises. Resilience needs to be built up as a transformative process drawing on the strengths of individuals, communities and institutions to prevent and mitigate the impacts of and learn from the experience of different types of shocks- whether they be internal or external; natural or man devised; economic, political, social or other.

The range of potential causes of conflict and armed violence needs to be considered in integrated ways and the work of humanitarian, peacekeeping and development actors should be mutually reinforcing. Such an approach can encompass comprehensive violence prevention and crime control measures to further human security and protect human rights; reinforce social cohesion along with efforts to combat trafficking in illicit substances, arms and human beings; addressing the particular needs of women, youth and vulnerable groups; and in post-conflict settings, integrating civilian and military approaches.

Traditionally the UN and other key actors have prioritized the facilitation of comprehensive, one-time peace agreements and then supported the efforts to repair the damage caused by war. Recently, with more fluid and complex violent conflicts occurring, we are seeing that peace agreements though signed are not respected. The World Bank estimates that 40 % of fragile and post-conflict countries relapse into conflict within 10 years. Even when there is no large-scale relapse, high levels of violence- including homicides and gender-based violence- continue to impact the countries stabilization, reconstruction and rehabilitation efforts.

Box 6.1: Social Cohesion and Conducive Environment for National Dialogue in Yemen

Despite the fragile security and the critical humanitarian situation, Yemen is presently achieving remarkable progress on the political agenda. The Transition Agreement signed in November 2011, engaged the former regime and opposition in a clear process for transition to good democratic governance. One year after the signing of the GCC Implementation Mechanism, key transitional benchmarks have been successfully attained: the handover of power to a Government of National Unity has occurred successfully, in February 2012 the second phase of the Transition was ushered in when President Hadi was elected with overwhelming numbers, in a poll that was at the same time a kind of referendum on the November agreement and on the transition as such. In July 2012 a Preparatory Committee for the National Dialogue was selected following a consultative process among the key constituencies identified in the GCC. The whole process is bringing an air of normality in most parts of the country.

The country has entered a critical stage in it transition. The preparations towards the National Dialogue Conference have raised expectations among Yemenis who are all hopeful towards a peaceful transition. However, the National Dialogue Conference still needs to start off. Distrust among the different groups in society remains a key challenge in bringing different groups around the table. This distrust is often fed through political motivations and sometimes also because of a fear to be excluded from the National Dialogue. Both have already provoked sources of frustration that led to attempts to spoil the preparation of the dialogue process. Beyond the political divide lines, the fractures in the social tissue remain vivid. Divides exist along the axes of age, gender, political back ground, geographic region etc. One of the challenges of the weakened state is to provide in basic services at the community level. The long standing conflicts and the food security are a serious burden on formal and informal structures of the communities including tribes, civil society organizations, small business, local authorities, etc. Yemenis await tangible benefits from the current stability that is improvements on the job market, improved inclusive participation into the transition, restored relations throughout the country, equal access to public services, etc. If the pressure on the social structures within the Yemeni society remains unaddressed there is a genuine risk that socio-economic tensions undermine the political process.

In fact, many societies currently undergoing popular uprisings or other forms of rapid political, social or economic upheaval find the primary challenge to be the recurrence of potentially violent tensions rather than a specific, time bound conflict. After decades of revolution and repression as the main forums of political expression, government, civil society, political parties and security agencies must learn and apply new means of collaboration, inclusion, trust building and constructive negotiation**.** If consensus on vital reforms is not achieved on time, societies might find themselves on the brink of conflict once again. The task of forging new political systems based on consensus cannot be undertaken by outsiders only. National capacities like key players, institutions, mechanisms and processes are to be strengthened with experience and a solid contextual understanding of the issues. Mediation in a context of sectarian, political, regional and inter-tribal tensions is best undertaken by 'insider mediators' or national and local facilitators possessing significant political and social capital, ability and credibility to mediate within their own countries to resolve conflicts, promote peaceful management of tensions and create a consensus-building culture (see Box 6.1).

6.1 Conflict analysis and early warning mechanisms

As discussed in Section 3 and repeated throughout the report, certain risks and vulnerabilities have the potential to lead to violent conflict if not mitigated early on. Risks can include but are not limited to: competition over scarce natural resources; low income and low economic growth; ethnic/cultural/religious cleavages; youth bulge; repression, corruption and weak state institutions; inequality; flawed or incomplete transitions to democracy; and unresolved conflicts. It is important

to note that these risks, while present in most conflicts, do not alone make violent conflict inevitable. The actual outbreak of violence requires a particular event or trigger.

Conflict triggers are almost always present in a society but are usually the last visible step in an already deteriorating situation that has the power to propel instability into violent conflict if not managed properly. Some common conflict triggers can include: regime change and military coups; elections; neighbouring conflicts; massive population movements; disasters etc. The existence of political crisis or armed conflict in a country will often indirectly amplify the impact of a natural disaster by exhausting coping mechanisms and response capacities. Effective preventative strategies rest on three principles: early reaction to signs of trouble; a comprehensive, balanced approach to alleviate the pressures or risk factors that trigger violent conflict; and an extended effort to resolve the underlying root causes of violence (Holl et al., 1997).

Early warning is more than just prediction. It is contingency planning in an attempt to prevent the emergency or escalation of violent conflict and is comprised of three elements: **Risk knowledge, systematic data collection and conflict assessments; Monitoring and warning services; and Response capability.**

Risk knowledge, data collection and conflict assessment is based on a determined set of important variables to be monitored each with a pre-determined weight of importance that is contextually and even geographically specific. Data collection systems should reach from the national to the local level and may include anecdotal evidence such as information coming from communities and NGOs, reports in the press or empirical data and statistics such as population movements. To capture and analyse this information a large network of local expertise and engagement with civil society, NGOs and intergovernmental organizations is important.

Some factors that can be used in the monitoring of early warning include:

- Sudden demographic changes or population movements,
- Rising unemployment rates,
- Rise in society intolerance and prejudice- often made explicit in the media,
- Economic shocks or financial crises,
- Destruction of cultural icons or religious sites,
- Inequality and discrimination within the State legal or legislative system,
- Destabilizing referendum or elections,
- Foreign intervention,
- Influx of refugees.

Monitoring and warning services: The monitoring of conflict trends assists national governments, local communities as well as intergovernmental organizations plan the appropriate intervention and will facilitate advanced planning and early deployment of supplies and personnel as well as prompt diplomatic efforts depending on scale. Local Observatories on Violence or Conflict are an effective means to monitor trends, different types of violence, context and interventions. National Observatories have the ability to bring together diverse sectors such as public health, law enforcement, the media and local communities to develop an appropriate response or intervention. According to Ganson and Wennmann (2012), observatories can “serve as a connecting point for a variety of actors, exploring which data is needed and can be made available in a specific setting; and bring together and analyse situational intelligence that represents an enormous knowledge base on conflict drivers and stress factors”. Observatories are an institutionalized effort to source data and analyse locally and present a focal point for on-going monitoring and evaluation to improve conflict prevention results.

CEWARN, the Conflict Early Warning and Response Mechanism in the Horn of Africa “is a collaborative effort of the seven IGAD Member States (Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia, Sudan and Uganda) and one of IGAD’s programmes targeted at mitigating and preventing violent conflicts in the sub-region. Since its establishment in 2002, CEWARN

has been functioning with a particular focus on cross border conflicts". Preventive diplomacy, "including the use of mediation, arbitration and confidence building measures to de-escalate tensions and resolve conflicts" needs to be mainstreamed along with the development within conflict regions of standing capacity facility or deployments for conflict resolution. Some other examples of projects seeking to produce early warning systems are: Global Events Data System (GEDS); Minorities at Risk (MAR); Crisis Watch; Failed States Index; and FEWER International.

Response capability: Any early warning mechanism is only as strong as its response mechanism. In a world of new technologies, the information i.e. warning can be alerted very fast, yet what remains problematic is the response side. In this regard it is good practice to invest in national capacities in the analysis of conflict dynamics, but also in the design of response mechanism to early warning mechanisms. An example of the latter is to link a capacity of local mediators to an early warning mechanism at a community level.

Infrastructures for Peace, that make use of a society's collaborative capacity to find solutions to disputes through multi-sector stakeholder dialogue focusing on problem solving, is one means for response to potential early conflict (Kumar and De la Haye, 2011). While often time consuming to set-up, once functional this mechanism can work in tandem with early warning systems as an effective means to identify and address potential violent conflict.

6.2 Key measures and institutional capacity building for conflict prevention

Table 6.1 highlights key measures as well as where institutional capacity building needs to occur in order to successfully facilitate the prevention and recurrence of armed conflict. All these structural and direct measures should be considered either in part or as a whole as a potential way to resolve and prevent conflict based on a thorough analysis of the context, needs, opportunities, resources available-human, financial and technical- and end goal.

Best practice from global approaches to achieving a lasting peace as well as sustainable development show that five sets of institutional capacities are required:

i. Systems need to be in place that guarantee inclusive governance where citizens and groups perceive themselves as having equal access to the state, especially rule of law and to the economy;
ii. The recognition of basic human rights for all citizens without discrimination needs to be ensured through good governance mechanisms;
iii. Standing mechanisms and a solid base of skills for the resolution of conflict and peaceful settlement and crises needs to be built;
iv. Transitions need to be managed inclusively, effectively and on the basis of consensus including governance transitions in post-conflict settings;
v. A concerted effort needs to be made on building social cohesion amongst polarized or divided groups or communities primarily through local education and dialogue and/or economic activity that links communities through shared values.

Armed conflict is heavily correlated with institutional underdevelopment resulting in the absence of conflict management capacity. The promotion of human development of both institutional and human capacities needs to become a strategic objective for the OIC countries in order to successfully manage conflict.

Table 6.1: Structural and Direct Measures to Prevent Armed Conflict and Violence

Structural Measures	Direct Prevention
Economic Measures - Reducing deprivation and poverty - Reducing inequalities, especially horizontal - Promoting economic growth - Supporting structural reform - Providing technical assistance - Improving the terms of trade and trade openness - Supporting community development and local ownership ***Governance Measures*** - Building institutional capacity and ensuring delivery of social services - Strengthening and supporting democracy - Supporting the diffusion or sharing of power - Strengthening the independence of judiciaries - Eradicating corruption - Strengthening local conflict resolution capacity ***Security Measures*** - Strengthening rule of law - Ending/preventing impunity - Reforming the security sector - Encouraging disarmament and effective arms control / management with particular reference to small arms ***Human Rights Measures*** - Protecting fundamental human rights and building national capacity, with specific protection of minority, women, and children's rights - Supporting the work of the International Criminal Court ***Social Measures*** - Intergroup confidence building, including interfaith dialogue - Strengthening and supporting civil society - Establishing freedom of the press - Preventing and punishing incitement and hate speech - Educating on diversity and tolerance	***Early Warning*** - Establishing a UN early warning and assessment capacity ***Diplomatic Measures*** - Fact-finding - Forming "groups of friends" among UN membership - Deploying eminent persons/envoys - Exercising the good offices of the secretary-general - Pursuing arbitration (including International Court of Justice) - Supporting indigenous conflict resolution processes ***Sanctions*** - Banning travel - Embargoing trade and arms - Freezing assets - Imposing diplomatic sanctions ***Inducements*** - Promoting economic or trade incentives - Offering political inducements ***Military Measures*** - Mobilizing preventive deployments - Developing and/or threatening rapid deployment capability - Jamming and other means of preventing incitement ***Legal*** - Referring matter to the International Criminal Court

Source: Bellamy (2011)

6.3 Coordination and resource mobilization for conflict affected people

With regard to coordination and resource mobilization, much of the interventions highlighted in Section 5.4 for natural disasters are applicable for conflict situation as well. Affected people require support to overcome the existing challenges they face and recover their livelihoods. Inadequate assistance can cost lives and uncoordinated activities may be harmful to early recovery, peace-building and state-building. Building the capacity of central state coordination units is often the best strategic approach over longer term. Where government

leadership of coordination and resource mobilization is not in place or not yet sufficiently strong, international partners can play a critical role in leading the response and building national capacity. Donor coordination is, however, not easy in situations of conflict and fragility as in situations of natural disasters. Each donor may have different motivations and political and security interests for engaging in fragile situations. This makes alignment of coordination between donors and national governments difficult.

There has been a recent proliferation of new coordination tools and initiatives, including joint needs assessment and analysis, common strategic frameworks, Multi-Donor Trust Funds and joint implementation arrangements. Post-conflict needs assessment should be conducted during or after a peace process or political transition to be used as inputs into coordination mechanisms. They can also provide a baseline, as well as a means of raising funds. Multi-Donor Trust Funds (MDTFs) have become increasingly important in post-crisis situations. They can serve as a joint funding modality, and a framework for strategic coordination. MDTFs reduce the costs of information sharing, administration and coordination for donors, and can encourage joint approaches to complex state-building processes. They also improve the predictability of resource flows for affected countries.

The evidence gleaned over the years reveals that preventing conflicts and building and sustaining a lasting peace in war-torn societies are among the most daunting of challenges for global peace and security. As many countries are vulnerable to lapsing or relapsing into conflict and therefore concerted efforts are required to reduce these risks by strengthening national capacities for conflict management, and to lay the foundations for sustainable peace and development. Several international initiatives have been highlighted in Section 1.3, including United Nations' Conflict Prevention, Peacekeeping and Peacebuilding Architecture, European Union Security Strategy and The Global Partnership for the Prevention of Armed Conflict (GPPAC).

6.4 Peacebuilding and post-conflict recovery

The concept of conflict prevention and peacebuilding within the Islamic world is supported by traditional principles of non-violence and peacebuilding that include the pursuit of justice; doing good; the universality and dignity of humanity; the sacredness of human life; equality; the quest for peace (personal, interpersonal, communal, regional, and international); peace-making via reason, knowledge and understanding; creativity; forgiveness; proper deeds and actions; responsibility; patience; collaborative actions and solidarity; inclusivity; diversity; pluralism and tolerance (Smock and Huda, 2009). These principles are the foundations for the prevention of conflict as well as its resolution and it is these principles in action that produce a vibrant and well-functioning society able to promote objectives such as increasing solidarity among members of the community; bridging the gap of social and economic injustice; relieving the suffering of people and sparing human lives; empowering people through participation and inclusivity; promoting equality among all members of the community; and encouraging the values of diversity and tolerance (Nimer, 2003). Peace traverses two core Islamic values: Compassion and Justice. Building upon this philosophy with capacities inherent in each State is the means to prevent violent conflict as well as break the cycle of recurrent conflict.

Women play a pivotal role in defending and promoting peace in their communities and countries. It has also been shown that if women aren't involved in peace processes, peace is likely to be unsustainable. Muslim women have been at the forefront of democratic movements and have also been recognized internationally for their work in ending conflict and supporting transitions to democracy.[21] It is also argued that through the

[21] In Liberia, Leymah Gbowee brought together women from all faiths to form the Women for Liberia Mass Action for Peace, an

education of women and girls, by encouraging micro-finance, supporting entrepreneurship and promoting political inclusion, Muslim women around the world can be empowered to assert a more significant role in conflict prevention and peacebuilding processes.

While there is extensive literature that focuses on Islam and violence, there is a dearth of resources that describe/outline/focus on Islam, nonviolence and peace. More attention needs to be paid to OIC countries with positive experiences of conflict prevention, resolution, recovery and peacebuilding supporting peace initiatives that are ongoing in conflicted areas.

Many within the established Muslim religious leadership are providing legitimacy through religious interpretation to oppressive and despotic regimes. While religion doesn't create violence independent of predisposing social, economic and political conditions, it can be a catalyst for those who would use the power of religious leadership to justify violent responses to injustices. Therefore, there is need to train and support a new class of religious scholars who are well versed in both the traditional Islamic sciences and the modern social sciences. There are civil movements with worldwide reach in education and interfaith dialogue in many conflicted Muslim countries. Through these movements, dialogue activities foster tolerance and acceptance, educational projects indirectly help to raise socio-economic standards of a community and encourage local communities to cooperate around charity and educational projects, and poverty alleviation programs are helpful for the establishment of pluralistic societies and the sustainability of democracies. All this aids in the realization of basic human rights to reduce conflict and provide opportunities for building social cohesion within conflictive communities.

OIC member states, especially in the Middle East and North Africa, have experienced profound transformation over the past few years. This transformation has opened up possibilities for economic and political reform that could lead to more inclusive growth stability and sustainable, equitable development. At the same time, rapid change has also opened up risks for greater social and sectarian conflict and the burgeoning demands and expectations of newly mobilized groups- especially youth and new political movements- could lead to prolonged and potentially violent tensions. The experiences of many OIC member States themselves offer creative solutions for addressing these challenges.

Entry points for opportunities to promote peace, sustainable development and stability among OIC member countries can be divided into four clusters: management of transitions to lead to greater peace and development; management of recurring tensions over land and natural resources; addressing the threat of extremism; and preventing relapse into conflict.

6.4.1 Management of transitions to lead to greater peace and development

Transitions and demands for reform and participation need to be managed so that they lead to more successful polities and economies rather than to further breakdown of society and systems. Heightened sectarian tensions, prolonged deadlocks over critical reforms and sustained social and economic turbulence could lead to chronic instability and greatly reduce the growth prospects of these countries.

Opportunities: The OIC should work in partnership with member countries to establish national platforms to manage social, political and economic transitions by fostering multi-actor dialogue, engaging critical actors and encouraging sustained conversations among them in order to build confidence or consensus around development priorities.

organization that played a critical role in ending Liberia's civil war. In 2011, the Nobel Peace Prize was awarded to Tawakkol Karman for her defense and promotion of human rights in Yemen.

Box 6.1: Efforts by the Kyrgyz Government to prevent and manage conflict

Through supporting national and local institutions, policies and processes for the prevention and management of conflict, the Kyrgyz Government with support of some international organizations and facilitation has been able to establish key components of the national peace architecture, including policies, institutions and processes. This has overall improved the ability of Government and communities to prevent and manage conflicts and respond to tensions in a comprehensive way. The Government is engaged in dialogue with representatives of local peace committees, local authorities and civil society organizations for effective cooperation on responding to emerging tensions at the local, regional and national levels. Sustainable conflict prevention capacities are being built and institutionalized within state structures so that the Government can take the lead and coordinate the management of potential conflicts and political risks. National mediation capacities are additionally being strengthened.

In order to strengthen the above components of the national infrastructure for peace in Kyrgyzstan, the Government, with support of some international organizations, is now working on the following recommendations:

- **Strengthen the national infrastructure for peace by supporting processes, policies and institutions improving the linkages between the local, regional and national levels.** This includes facilitation of dialogue between key Government decision makers and representatives from advisory/ peace committees, local authorities and civil society organizations to cooperate more effectively on responding to emerging tensions. National mediation capacities should additionally be further strengthened.
- **Address socio-economic drivers of conflict through integrating livelihoods and conflict prevention**. Sustainable livelihood opportunities for vulnerable groups from diverse ethnic backgrounds should be promoted in communities at risk of violent conflict. Further activities should promote and diversify livelihood options of low-income households (women, youth), and small and medium enterprises (SMEs) with access to a broad range of financial, micro-credit/financing, income generation and business support services. These activities will decrease social and inter-ethnic tensions and ultimately influence socio-economic stabilization in potential hotspots.
- **Address tensions in the cross-borders areas** - i.e. related to the use of pastures and access to water on the Tajik-Kyrgyz border. Initiatives related to the management of natural resources, confidence-building and conflict prevention in the cross-border area – and regionally - should be supported.
- **Support empowerment and active participation of women in peacebuilding across all conflict prevention interventions** within the national implementation of Security Council Resolution 1325.

Multi-actor dialogue has been central to stable transitions in recent months in Tunisia, Niger, Guinea, Yemen and Senegal. National dialogue platforms -with women's organizations playing significant roles- have brought together critical actors for sustained conversations in order to build confidence or consensus around crucial priorities. Egypt's Social Contract Centre (a part of the Information and Decision Support Centre) provides a platform for consensus building on development priorities.

6.4.2 Management of recurring tensions over land and natural resources

Cyclical conflict over land and natural resources has often characterized relationships among and between communities, especially in sub-Saharan Africa and central Asia. As pressures from climate change and global economic instability have grown, so has the duration and intensity of such conflicts. In many OIC countries, including Nigeria, the Sahel, Sierra Leone, Uganda, Guinea-Bissau, Guinea, Kyrgyzstan and Tajikistan, these conflicts have taken on regional, inter-religious or inter-ethnic dimensions and threatened the stability and development of these countries.

Opportunities: The OIC should seek to establish organized platforms of religious leaders and elders as part of a systematic conflict resolution mechanism as well as regional and district peace committees or commensurate mechanisms with a view to addressing cyclical conflicts over land and natural resources.

Several countries and regions within countries have built effective 'Infrastructures for Peace' for managing recurring tensions. These instruments have included actors from both governments and organized civil society. Systematic conflict resolution efforts by organized platforms of religious leaders and elders have been crucial to addressing cycles of violence in Nigeria, Uganda, Benin, Afghanistan and Somalia. Regional and district peace committees or commensurate mechanisms, often working closely with local governments, have played similar roles in Kyrgyzstan, Sierra Leone, Chad, Guinea and Guinea-Bissau. Lebanon's Common Space Initiative plays a standing role at the national level in this regard (see also Box 6.1).

6.4.3 Addressing the threat of extremism

Extremism, often centred on sectarian issues, has threatened stability and development in several member States of the OIC. Countries such as Mali and Somalia have borne the brunt of the impacts of this violence. Others, like Afghanistan and Iraq, have faced this threat in the context of ongoing transitions. Still others have seen their development achievements and economic stability threatened by extremism as in the case of Nigeria. Resources that could otherwise be spent on development have been used to combat this increasing phenomenon.

Opportunities: The OIC should establish conflict resolution mechanisms to address some of the drivers of recurring violence and scarcity at the local level and develop societal consensus around governance priorities that can accommodate a range of ideas and hence increase resilience to extremism and, in particular, sectarian threats. Training and engaging moderate religious leaders to encourage values of diversity and tolerance is an area to be explored and supported.

OIC member stated have already established best practices to address sectarian and extremist threats. Key States in Nigeria, especially Plateau, have developed effective early warning and response systems. Some OIC countries have made significant strides recently in creating consensus around governance priorities that can accommodate a range of ideas and hence increase resilience to extremism. Malaysia, Indonesia and Lebanon have long provided models in this regard. Afghanistan and Pakistan have sought to bring development closer to communities affected by this phenomenon, and hence reduce extremist influence. Sahel countries are moving to take similar approaches while also establishing conflict resolution mechanisms to address some of the drivers of recurring violence and scarcity at the local level that have also fed extremism.

6.4.4 Preventing a relapse into conflict

Several OIC member states are engaged with situations of post-conflict recovery, either nationally or within particular regions. The north of Uganda, Somalia, Cote d'Ivoire, Sierra Leone, Guinea-Bissau, Comoros, Libya, Tajikistan and Aceh in Indonesia are all witness to ongoing efforts in this regard, some with international assistance. Lasting peace will necessitate identifying and addressing future challenges peacefully and on the basis of equitable development. Capacities towards this end will have to be systematically built.

Opportunities: The role of women and civil society in sustaining post-conflict peace and development methods for participatory peacebuilding should be explored further. With regard to post-conflict recovery, some of the most advanced best practices are now provided by OIC member States.

Box 6.2: Supporting Recovery in Somalia

The capacity of the new government to extend and deepen its authority is limited, and progress both in capacity-building and accountability measures is likely to be gradual and slow. Somalia will still constitute a failed state in the short term, and the government will not be in a position to serve as principal guarantor of peace and security for most Somalis. In the interim, informal local governance and security arrangements will continue to be the main source of conflict management and prevention, security, and basic law and order in south-central Somalia.

In order to support developing the formal architecture of state-building, priorities of the government are as follows: state security forces reformed and developed, humanitarian assistance and support to return provided to poor, vulnerable and displaced persons, regulatory and administrative capacities developed, public service provided, relations and power-sharing arrangements agreed upon with sub-national administrations and non-state entities; in preparation to 2016, key questions from the interim constitution such as the status of Mogadishu, the concept of federalism or the role of religion, all need to be settled.

Droughts and floods are the two dominant hazards affecting the majority of the country. Frequent droughts have increased poverty amongst the Somali population and significantly hampered the achievement of MDGs. Improved water resources management including the harvesting of rainwater can be an important strategy to reduce poverty. Some other approaches include improvement of drought early warning systems, better management of rangelands. Unfortunately most of the international interventions remain focused on humanitarian interventions and emergency recovery mode, and ignore long-term developmental solutions to address the drought risk reduction.

However, as immediate measure, the following must be also taken into account:

- The "do no harm" principle is essential at this point in time; policies must not inadvertently trigger armed conflict or political violence when the new administration is in a position of vulnerability, nor may they inadvertently undercut local peace and security arrangements.
- Security is a top priority of the new government, and external actors will be expected to contribute to programs that enable the government to establish more control over its security sector.
- Efforts to promote repatriation of refugees/IDPS must be sensitive to outstanding conflicts over land.
- State-building efforts will need to consider how to protect space for informal hybrid partnerships with informal sources of governance and security.
- The weakness of the civil-society led government will make it still dependent on AMISOM protection, which will see its energies shift toward managing inter-clan and inter-factional disputes.
- Introduction of basic services into liberated areas is a high stabilization priority, but can only occur when a broad agreement is reached on local administration.
- Almost all standard aid/development programmes – whether addressing livelihoods, protection, health, education, and other goals – can help to address the many underlying conflict drivers. The challenge is ensuring that assistance aimed at addressing underlying conflict drivers do not inadvertently contribute to dynamics that precipitate conflict.

Engaging women and civil society to constructively support peace processes has yielded results in places like Aceh. Uganda has piloted innovative measures to address land conflicts precipitated by the return of IDPs and refugees to the north. After several false starts, Somalia's emerging system of government reflects some of the best available methods for participatory peacebuilding through power sharing agreements with subnational administrations and non-state entities and open discussions on the concept of federalism and the role of religion. Sierra Leone's Political Parties Registration Commission carries out effective conflict resolution at the national and local level on matters relating to elections, and to the role and work of political parties therein (see Box 6.2).

MANAGEMENT OF DISASTERS AND CONFLICTS WHEN THEY COINCIDE

7

Strategies, policies and actions on disaster management and conflict prevention/peacebuilding are often considered in an isolated manner. While the two crises are usually distinct in both their onset and repercussion, strong linkages exist especially in terms of how the interface, if not understood and managed, can escalate and reinforce the impacts of disasters and/or conflict with potentially severe consequences. It is for this reason a thorough understanding of how disasters and conflicts can coincide and reinforce both positive and negative impacts is critical.

Without a concerted effort to analyse and understand the interface between the two responding to the inherent complexity of complex emergencies can often affect the management outcome. Ideally, all interventions should be targeted at reducing the risks of both disaster and conflict. A paradigm shift is required towards a more comprehensive approach based upon institutional mechanisms to manage risk in fragile and conflict affected states with clear mandates at the national, regional and global level. Conflict sensitive approaches and interventions that do not exacerbate risk also need to be developed. There is also a need for more studies investigating the opportunities for conflict prevention and disaster resilience programmes that can contribute to alleviating joint risks and propose appropriate strategies and actions.

Obviously there are differences between the disaster and conflict phenomena. The trigger for disasters is typically a natural hazard while the trigger for conflicts can be a political decision, a failure of dialogue, a new economic policy, an action by security agencies, a confrontation between two different social or ethnic groups or a fight over a scare natural resource; e.g. land, forest, water body etc. Most disasters, with the exception of drought, have sudden impact and are comparatively short lived. Disaster events usually disappear within hours, days or months. The violent conflicts, on the other hand, build over time, start slowly with small incidents and skirmishes and may transform into full-blown conflict in months, years or decades. Conflicts, once started, may continue for years and decades. Conflicts may pass through various phases of violence, dialogue, failure of dialogue, relapse to violence, peace talks, and resumption of peace or continuation of violence. During their lifetime, conflicts can spread or shrink to smaller scales depending upon a variety of variables; e.g. conflict financing, supply of arms or lack of it, dialogue process, role of external stakeholders etc.

One similarity in the management of both disasters and conflicts is the investment in national capacities. The theory of change supporting this is that strong national actors and processes do mitigate crisis more effectively and enhance the probability to prevent the relapse of violent conflict and in the case of

disaster be better prepared to respond more adequately. Agencies dealing with disasters typically include Civil Defence, fire services, Red Crescent, armed forces, search and rescue services, etc. The agencies that deal with conflicts typically include Ministry of Reconciliation, the National Mediation Office, civil society, armed forces, police, courts, political parties, parliaments and civil negotiators/mediators, etc.

There are, however, a variety of ways in which disasters and conflicts overlap with each other. These relate to root causes of disasters and conflicts, the post-disaster/post-conflict relief for the victims, and the post-conflict/post-disaster recovery of affected populations. This section provides an overview of these areas of overlap and the common aspects of management of conflicts and disasters. These approaches are discussed under three titles; i) risk management and vulnerability reduction, ii) disaster relief and rehabilitation, iii) reconstruction and sustainable recovery.

7.1 Risk Management and Vulnerability Reduction

Risk management and vulnerability reduction aims to understand hazards and build capacities needed to efficiently manage all types of potential emergencies and plan orderly transitions from response to sustained recovery. Risks arise from vulnerabilities to potential hazards that are present at a certain point in time and within a specific context. Assessments of risk require systematic collection and analysis of data and should take into account the dynamics and variability of hazards and vulnerabilities that arise from processes such as urbanization, rural land-use change, environmental and land-use policy both formal and informal, environmental degradation and climate change. Risk assessments and maps help to motivate people, prioritize early warning needs and guide preparations for response and disaster prevention activities.

Irrespective of the immediate triggers behind conflicts or disasters, there are a variety of processes and phenomenon that need to be assessed and understood. Many of the root causes behind conflicts and disasters are similar and these causes can increase exposure and vulnerability of a population to conflicts and disasters. Therefore addressing the root-causes will assist in preventing both conflicts and disasters. Some common root causes for both conflicts and disasters include the following:

- Poverty and socio-economic marginalization
- Environmental degradation and competition over exploitation of natural resources
- Lack of equal access to basic services; e.g. education, health, communications etc.
- Centralized and exclusionary political systems

Poverty and socio-economic marginalization of social groups based upon class, ethnicity, language or other identities increases vulnerability of people to both conflicts and disasters. In the case of conflicts, the sense of economic marginalization may provoke animosity and anger within a deprived community and push it towards conflict with ruling classes/elites. Extreme poverty may also push people to commit crimes or join the ranks of anti-regime militias, thus fuelling an on-going conflict or triggering a new one.

Poverty increases people's vulnerability to disaster losses as well. The lack of safe livelihood opportunities force people to live and work in coastal zones, riverbeds, mountainous slopes, or arid rangelands – marginalized geographic regions that are most exposed to storms, floods, earthquakes or droughts. In Bangladesh for example over 10 million people inhabit riverbeds where they build their home and engage in subsistence farming and fishing. During the yearly monsoon season many of these settlements and crops are washed away. When the rivers change their course they demolish large communities, leaving thousands homeless, and poorer than before.

The economically marginalized find it impossible to construct engineered homes that are safer from earthquakes, floods or cyclones. They live in shacks or adobe houses which remain highly vulnerable to

collapse during disaster events. They lack the ability to evacuate before the occurrence of a disaster, since they may not have the means of transportation at their disposal or access to government services.

Therefore, poverty reduction remains a primary strategy for both conflict prevention and disaster risk reduction. The member governments of OIC should develop economic policies to address poverty by providing better livelihood options and employment for youth. This could include the establishment of micro-credit programmes for the most poor and vulnerable, job skills training, establishment of local markets and constructing infrastructure to provide access to markets etc. Most importantly the governments should take equal action for poverty reduction for ethnic, religious and linguistic minorities so as to remove a possible impetus for conflict.

Sustainable and equitable management of natural resources is also a very important strategy for conflict prevention and disaster risk reduction. The extraction of mineral resources is a major source of income for many countries. Often corruption and lack of transparency in awarding of contracts, extraction processes and unfair distribution of benefits from such income provokes a sense of deprivation, anger and exploitation amongst local communities. The persistence of such conditions can push communities towards violence and conflict over perceived or actual unfair treatment by authorities. The poor management of mines, oil wells and gas and oil fields could cause small scale localized disasters in the form of fire incidents, thus exposing local people to disasters.

The more important dimension of natural resources and environment concerns water, land, forests and rangelands. The growing global population, urbanization, intensive agriculture and industrialization are increasing competition for water, arable land, wood, and pastures. Such competition is most acute amongst local communities in arid zones of Sahara, Arabia, Africa and South Asia where most member states of the OIC are located. The case studies from Somalia, Sudan, and Yemen indicate the cyclic relationship between natural resource scarcity, overexploitation, increase in severity of droughts, storms, desertification, leading to displacement of communities, the settlement of displaced communities in new resource scarce regions leading to competition between local and migrant communities over use of water, pastures, forest, resulting in conflicts and leading to more severe exploitation of resources and more conflicts and disasters.

Therefore, the sustainable and equitable use of rangelands, arable land, forests, and water becomes a very important entry point for conflict prevention and disaster risk reduction through reducing people's vulnerability to competition over resources. This requires policy interventions in various sectors including environment, agriculture, water resources and livestock. Such policies will need to ensure that scarce natural resources are not over exploited, so that they continue to provide a source of livelihoods to dependent communities for the future. This can be done by reducing demand on the one hand and increasing or maintaining supply on the other. The demand reduction can be achieved by reducing people's dependence upon livestock and rain-fed agriculture to minimize their reliance upon scarce resources. The supply can be maintained by equitable and well managed exploitation and through conservation of resources. This may include forestation, rainwater harvesting and efficient irrigation technologies to save water. The case of Somalia has indicated a close link between tree cutting, charcoal trade to Gulf countries, control over charcoal trade by Al Shabaab leading to increased income for the terrorist organization and thus enhancing its capacity to continue and spread conflict regionally. Extensive tree cutting has also resulted in transformation of mild meteorological droughts into severe agricultural droughts over the years thus leading to deaths of thousands of livestock due to fodder shortage.

Box 7.1: International Legal Framework applicable in armed conflicts

The international legal framework applicable in armed conflict is primarily composed of three interrelated and mutually reinforcing sets of rules: International Humanitarian Law; International Human Rights Law; and International Refugee Law.

While international humanitarian law regulates the protection of persons and the conduct of hostilities in armed conflict, international human rights law imposes standards that governments must abide by in their treatment of persons both in peacetime and war. International refugee law focuses specifically on protecting persons who have fled their country due to persecution or other serious violations of human rights or armed conflict. The common objective of these legal regimes is to protect human life, health and dignity.

The rules on humanitarian assistance in armed conflict

Humanitarian assistance in situations of armed conflict is primarily regulated by international humanitarian law. In international armed conflict, the basic rule is that a state must accept relief actions for the civilian population of any territory under its control (other than occupied territory) when the population is not adequately supplied and when relief, which is humanitarian and impartial in nature, is available. Refusing a relief action is thus not a matter of discretion and agreement could be withheld only for exceptional reasons. In any event, offers of relief shall not be regarded as interference in the armed conflict or as unfriendly acts.

The basic rule with respect to occupied territory is that the occupying power has the duty of ensuring the food and medical supplies of the population and that it should bring in the necessary foodstuffs, medicine and other articles if the resources of the occupied territory are inadequate. If, however, the whole or part of the population in an occupied territory is inadequately supplied, the occupying power must agree to relief schemes and must facilitate them by all means at its disposal. Similar rules apply in non-international armed conflicts as well. Humanitarian agencies may offer their services, and the state involved must, in principle, allow humanitarian assistance.

Source: The Sphere Project.

A very important factor also related to poverty reduction is the equitable provision of **basic services including education, health and infrastructure**. The provision of basic services provides a sense of well-being amongst local communities and strengthens their association with the state. However, the lack of provision has the opposite effect. It aggravates a sense of deprivation and weakens social solidarity and cohesion, therefore becoming a driver behind instability and conflicts. The lack of basic services also increases people's vulnerability to natural hazards. With access to a connecting road, a community can evacuate upon receiving a flood warning and save lives or in case of drought it can migrate. The absence of roads hinders timely evacuations or the provision of relief supplies. The presence of health services in the community helps to deal immediately with flood, earthquake or other disaster and conflict related injuries. The absence of such service leads to increases in sickness and epidemics.

More recently, preliminary efforts are undertaken to link the early warning mechanism for natural disaster with conflict related early warning mechanism. Critical in this effort is to capacity national actors at all levels to: i) assess the situation and be able to warn both for national disasters and conflict; ii) analyse the urgency of the situation; and iii) decide the appropriate response e.g. call upon a local mediator, police, army in the event of conflict.

Finally an **exclusionary political system** is an important root cause behind society's vulnerability to conflicts and disasters. A political system that is not democratic, inclusive, transparent and accountable generates a perception of injustice, helplessness and being wronged. People living in such a system lack the freedom of expression and the sense of control over their destiny. This leads to pessimism and frustration, which in return could lead to social tensions and violence against the state. It has also been noted that political systems where

powers are centralized don't allow for timely detection and response to disaster risks due to the inherent autocratic nature of the regime, lack of multi-sectorial coordination, information sharing and communication. This in return hampers timely assessment of disaster risks, sharing of early warning information amongst stakeholders and turns preventable hazard events into disasters.

Therefore an inclusive, transparent, and accountable political seem not only prevents violent conflicts, but also reduces the risks of natural disasters. The governments must make special efforts to integrate ethnic, linguistic and religious monitories and remote rural communities into the system by providing them voice and representation, because these are the communities that remain most vulnerable to conflicts and disasters.

The addressing of root causes of conflicts and disasters require multi-sectorial planning and interventions. Almost all government ministries and departments, including parliament, political parties and other stakeholders have a crucial role to playing this; e.g. security and justice system, media, civil society. The role of government is critical in providing a vision and framework for sustainable and equitable development with an inclusive approach. The government can provide such a framework through various planning tools; e.g. the national annual budget, the poverty reduction strategy papers, the national environmental strategy, national education, health, water and energy policies etc. A willing and responsive government can also launch special targeted programmes to eradicate poverty, provide basic service, protect environment and increase political participation of marginalized social segments.

7.2 Disaster Relief and Rehabilitation

Conflicts and disasters both result in similar kind of consequences for affected populations and may lead to mortality, casualties, displacement and destitution. They can result in loss of livelihoods, destruction of houses, damage to infrastructure and degradation of environment. In short, both conflicts and disasters can create similar needs in terms of relief and rehabilitation.

The relief needs emerging from conflicts and disasters may include provision of shelter, food, water, and sanitation services to affected communities. In the case of disaster victims, they may also require clothing to cope with harsh weather as they might have lost their household goods due to the sudden destruction of their houses in an earthquake. The authorities may need to setup camps for displaced people and for migrants. Inside the camps, the authorities would need to manage supply of food, water, clothing, sanitation, education, basic health services and security. The authorities would need to involve all key relevant ministries and departments; e.g. social affairs, health, education, environment, water supply, local government etc. and security forces. The need for security, although common for both cases, could be more acute for conflict affected populations, as opponent militias or ethnic groups may attack camps of displaced population for the purpose of ethnic cleansing or revenge.

The need for camp management and relief phase might be shorter in case of floods, cyclones and earthquakes, where government may restore services and build houses in a few months/years and the displaced communities may go back. However, in case of drought and conflict related displacements there is a high possibility for affected communities to settle permanently in the hosting area, therefore turning the camp into a permanent settlement. This if not well managed can lead to other issues; e.g. competition and conflict between displaced and host communities over local environmental resources and job and business opportunities. It is critical therefore that the authorities devise appropriate policies and procedures to define the rights of local communities and displaced populations with regards to use and exploitation of various resources and opportunities.

Box 7.2: International Funds for Relief

Immediate Response Mechanism of World Bank

On December 8, 2011, the World Bank's Board of Executive Directors approved a new mechanism that will allow **International Development Association (IDA)** countries to rapidly access up to 5% of their undisbursed IDA investment project balances following a crisis. Small states and countries with small undisbursed balances will be able to access up to US$5 million.

The Immediate Response Mechanism (IRM) complements longer-term emergency response tools available to IDA countries, such as the Crisis Response Window, offering them financial support within weeks rather than months of an emergency. The inclusion of contingent emergency response components in selected existing and/or future investment projects will facilitate the rapid disbursement of funds.

In the case of crises, notably natural disasters and economic shocks, IDA would provide immediate financing in support of recovery efforts, such as the activation or scaling up of safety nets to mitigate the impact on vulnerable groups, repair or restoration of basic physical assets, protection of critical development spending such as on health and education, and creation of programs to jump-start economic activity.

The Bank has also the multi-donor **State- and Peace-Building Fund (SPF)**, created in 2008, to support measures to improve governance, institutional performance, and reconstruction and development in countries emerging from, in, or at risk of sliding into crisis or arrears. SPF funds are available to all Bank member countries, IBRD and IDA-eligible countries, as well as countries in arrears.

Further information can be found at World Bank's website.

The Central Emergency Response Fund

The Central Emergency Response Fund (CERF) is a humanitarian fund established by the United Nations General Assembly in 2006 to enable more timely and reliable humanitarian assistance to those affected by natural disasters and armed conflicts.

The CERF's objectives include promoting early action and response to reduce loss of life, enhancing response to time-critical requirements, and strengthening core elements of humanitarian response in underfunded crises. CERF was created by all nations, for all potential victims of disasters.

Further information and 5-year evaluations of the Fund for 5 OIC countries (Afghanistan, Burkina Faso, Niger, Pakistan and Somalia) are available at UN-OCHA website.

The restoration of livelihoods as quickly as possible is key. In most cases both conflicts and disasters destroy the livelihoods of the most vulnerable social groups by killing their livestock, causing destruction to house or tools of production, loss of crop by flood or sabotage etc. Therefore in both cases, the authorities will need to design special programmes to restore livelihoods of affected people or provide them new sources of livelihoods.

In terms of management of relief, same departments will be responsible for organizing relief and response for both conflicts and disasters. These may include the civil defence, health services, social affairs, interior, and planning. Red Crescent society also performs an important part in relief and response for both types of crises. Therefore, development of general capacities for relief and response can help the governments to deal effectively with both conflicts and disasters.

7.3 Reconstruction and Sustainable Recovery

Conflicts and disasters can destroy livelihoods, agriculture, industry, housing, and other infrastructure including roads, telecommunications, bridges, schools, hospitals etc. The damages and

losses, however, may vary depending upon the nature of disaster and conflict. For example, large earthquakes could be most devastating to housing and built infrastructure. Floods could be highly damaging to crops and rural housing. Cyclones could be damaging to housing, telecommunications, and mangroves and crops in coastal areas. Droughts mostly cause losses to livestock and agriculture sectors. Similarly, depending upon the nature of conflict, the damages may include destruction of houses of opponent social groups and their crops, or it may involve the destruction/burning of government offices, telecommunications, schools, health centres, and infrastructure like bridges, dams and roads. The recovery from conflicts and disasters may require governments to help with restoration of livelihoods, construction of houses and infrastructure in different sectors as described above.

Disaster recovery provides an opportunity, however brief, to potentially change and improve societal interaction. Effective recovery methods entail appropriate policy guidance and financial, technical and institutional support in order to achieve maximum benefits for affected populations from the rehabilitation and reconstruction process after crises. If managed correctly, crises may become opportunities for lowering future conflict and disaster risk and acquiring economic and societal growth.

Recovery efforts must support people's own initiatives, strengthen their productive capacity early on when it matters most, and minimize recurrent risks. Quick recovery activities are essential for quickly normalizing lives and restoring livelihoods. Global recover experience shows that there are key areas of focus for initial recovery efforts: address the needs of the most vulnerable; restore local capabilities; rebuild livelihoods; reduce recurrent risk of disaster or conflict; and engage civil society and private sector early on to direct rehabilitation efforts. This must be done despite the inherent

challenges of institutional gaps and weak governance, recurrent conflict and disaster risks.

Normally an assessment is needed to analyse the nature and extent of damage and identify strategies for reconstruction and recovery. The assessment would be followed by designing a recovery framework, which would be followed by sectorial recovery and reconstruction plans and their implementation. In many countries now governments have established central recovery and reconstruction agencies, which deal with assessments, recovery planning and recovery management for both conflicts and disasters. The Earthquake Reconstruction and Rehabilitation Authority (ERRA) in Pakistan is one example. The ERRA was created in the aftermath of 2005 earthquake. However, since then the authority has managed assessments, planning and operations for recovery after the 2008 earthquake in Baluchistan, 2009 IDPs from Swat who were displaced due to a military operation against the Taliban, and the 2010 and 2011 flood recovery. The Government of Pakistan has passed new legislation to assign the mandate of recovery management to ERRA in case of all kinds of crises. ERRA operates through its subsidiary entities at the provincial levels when the need arises.

7.4 Regional and International Partnership

In order to address the common aspects of conflicts and disasters, the OIC can develop partnerships with a range of international and regional stakeholders. A brief description of both is as below.

Global Partnerships: At the global level there are a variety of agencies which work with governments to develop effective systems for prevention, response and recovery from conflicts and disasters. The most important amongst them are: the European Union, the World Bank, the UNDP and UN-OCHA. The first three agencies specialize in issues related to conflict and disaster prevention, while UN-OCHA is concerned with relief and response to conflicts and disasters.

The World Bank through its – Centre on Conflict, Security and Development – provides assistance to conflict affected countries to conduct assessments and implement programmes for conflict prevention, conflict resolution and conflict recovery. United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) through its Bureau for Crisis Prevention and Recovery (BCPR) manages a large multi-disciplinary team of experts on conflict and disasters. It helps in post conflict/disaster assessments, conflict/disaster prevention, conflict resolution and conflict/disaster recovery. It provides small financial aid as well. UN-OCHA provides support in organizing relief to conflict and disaster affected communities (see Box 7.2).

Regional Partnerships: The member countries of OIC are spread across different continents and sub-regions. Therefore, they are members of different other intergovernmental bodies as well. The OIC shall work closely with Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN), South Asian Association of Regional Cooperation (SAARC), League of Arab States (LAS), Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC), Inter-governmental Authority for Development (IGAD) and African Union (AU). These inter-governmental bodies have their own strategies and programs to assist the member countries in areas of disaster risk management and conflict resolution. OIC can build synergies with the existing strategies and programmes of these organizations.

POLICY IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8

As the number of disasters in OIC countries is growing, the number of affected people is mounting. The physical, social, economic and environmental capacities and conditions of most OIC countries for effective management of risks are found to be limited. Conflicts are also main obstacles to development in OIC countries, as a large number of member countries are experiencing recent and protracted conflicts. The share of OIC countries in total armed conflicts reached almost 50% in 2011. The number of internally displaced people (IDPs) in OIC countries is estimated to be more than that in non-OIC countries since 2003. Meanwhile, the disaster-conflict interface seems likely to intensify over time with urbanisation, migration, and changes to environmental and socio-economic conditions potentially heightening underlying exposure and vulnerability to complex emergencies.

Considering all these challenges that OIC member countries face in terms of managing disasters, this report proposes a set of recommendations to reduce vulnerabilities and minimize the impact of disasters and conflicts. It offers strategic approaches in preventing and mitigating the potential disasters in OIC member countries. These recommendations are classified under three categories: natural disasters, conflicts and disaster-conflict interface.

8.1 NATURAL DISASTERS

While the occurrence of natural hazards cannot be stopped, disaster risk and adverse impacts can be minimized by reducing social, economic and environmental vulnerability and improving prevention and preparedness for response. In this context, the following actions are recommended to be taken at both national and OIC/international cooperation levels to effectively reduce natural disaster risks.

Risk Management and Vulnerability Reduction

Effective governance is crucial to identifying disaster risks and implementing schemes to reduce vulnerabilities and risks. The following approaches are recommended to improve governance for disaster risks:

- Formulate national and local policies that prioritize mitigation and, at the broader level, adopt **a policy shift from response to mitigation** to establish a culture of prevention;
- Prepare **supporting planning frameworks** (e.g. National Disaster Risk Management Framework or a National Disaster Management Plan) to elaborate the arrangements for implementation policy and to define responsibilities of ministries and other stakeholders, and define priorities for disaster mitigation;

- Establish effective **disaster management committees/council/commissions for coordination and policy making** where all key stakeholders, including government, academia, civil society, international organizations, private sector and media, are represented. They should be supported with appropriate organizations at national, province and local levels to serve as focal points for policy formation and implementation as well as to serve as secretariat to coordination committees;
- Develop and implement **disaster risk assessment schemes** including, inter alia, the production of disaster risk maps and accompanied analysis, preparation of hazard maps to define the general hazard zones and establishment of a disaster database, accompanied by an analysis of the socio-economic and environmental conditions in different regions of the country;
- **Integrate disaster risk management concerns into national development planning** in order to promote safer construction of buildings and infrastructure, apply land-use planning to reduce exposure of settlements and infrastructure to hazards, and introduce risk transfer through insurance of large scale infrastructure and critical facilities as well as community based disaster mitigation activities;
- Encourage related ministries and departments to mainstream disaster risk reduction and subsequently to **reform their approaches** to project design and management so as to integrate disaster risk assessment and mitigation project cycle. The ministries can setup in-house disaster mitigation units to provide required technical assistance in this regard;
- Establish **regional insurance scheme** among countries that are exposed to similar types of disasters and develop insurance pools among small states that are not able to absorb the impact of adverse natural events.
- Promote and mainstream the implementation of **prudential environmental management strategies** for mitigation of disaster risks and adverse effects of climate change, e.g. protection and remediation of forests, rangelands, mangroves, water bodies and other such resources;
- Promote **sustainable water resources management** through, inter alia, reducing water loss due to leakage and inefficient irrigation systems, recycling of urban and industrial water, rainwater harvesting, focusing on new resources of water (e.g. desalination), and implementation of innovative and participatory approaches such as Integrated Water Resources Management (IWRM);
- Promote **sustainable use of rangeland** as well as riverine, coastal and urban lands and their effective management through, inter alia, reforestation, soil conservation, reforestation, soil conservation, communal management arrangements, reduction in livestock populations, and introduction of alternative livelihoods sources, introducing resilience frameworks, implementing land-zoning wherever possible, conservation and remediation of natural habitats and construction of relevant infrastructure such as river and coastal dikes. Integrate also urbanization into sustainable land management into urbanization through provision of open spaces, protection of natural drainage channels and safety of plantation;
- Promote **climate change adaptation** through cutting-edge multidisciplinary approaches such as Integrated Coastal Zone Management (ICZM).

Promoting Public Awareness, Participation and Social Protection

One of the main determinants of the success in disaster risk management is the level of awareness and participation. A lack of awareness of hazards and vulnerability can build complacency, leading to ignorance for risk reduction. Social protection of vulnerable communities also plays a key role. In this context, the following approaches are recommended at both national and OIC/international cooperation levels to promote public awareness, participation and social protection:

- Organize **public awareness campaigns** on risk reduction related to specific hazards and risks regularly, at least once a year, for example during the International Day for Disaster Reduction. Target as many sectors of the community as possible, including schools, professional institutions and general householders, with the preparation of educational materials relevant to each group.
- Develop and implement **awareness, dissemination and education programs** for general public and all other stakeholders. Include risk reduction and concepts of culture of safety into the school curriculum. At the top of the chain, government officials and policy makers also need to be targeted with specific awareness campaigns, in order to generate high-level motivation for disaster mitigation measures
- **Integrate disaster risk management** concerns into national development planning in order to implement education, awareness and training activities to increase technical capacities and personal safety;
- **Improve access of the poor to facilities provided by governments**; e.g. loans, credits, compensation packages, technical resources, etc.;
- Devise national strategies and private sector programmes to **reduce structural poverty** through, inter alia, implementing micro-credit programmes for the poorest of the poor, as poverty reduction contributes to reduction in vulnerability to disaster risks.

Information, Knowledge Sharing and Capacity Development

Preparing capacities for disaster risk reduction requires a sound analysis of existing capacities and gaps, risks, well-developed early warning systems, contingency planning, stockpiling of equipment and supplies, coordination mechanisms, public information, and associated training and field exercises. In this context, the following approaches are recommended at both national and OIC/international cooperation levels to promote information, knowledge sharing and capacity development:

- Establish **national and local databases** to collate developmental and disaster risk information and to produce analysis of hazards, risks and vulnerabilities;
- Set up team of experts to gather, collate and analyse information and produce analysis of risks, needs and capacities;
- **Develop and regularly update a well-designed contingency planning**, conduct regular drills and coordination meetings, maintain the inclusion of all relevant stakeholders in contingency planning process as it helps participating parties to learn about possible scenarios, needs and existing capacities and gaps;
- **Establish a multi-disciplinary early warning forum** to ensure information sharing among key actors and the integrated implementation of early warning action across all sectors. Ensure at national level that authority for issuing warnings is clearly defined in the law and the chain of command for dissemination of warning is clearly established.
- **Conduct analysis** of all early warning needs, covering hazards and vulnerabilities, institutional and social factors, and existing

capacities, and gaps and develop a national plan for systematic strengthening of early warning systems, covering technical and social elements;

- **Stimulate community-based risk assessment and early warning systems** through the assignment of specific responsibilities for risk reduction and emergency management to local bodies, the support of local training and information needs, and the use of traditional knowledge and experience in warning system design;
- **Institute a public education programme** that reaches the whole population at least once a year to teach them about risks they face, the meaning of warnings and the appropriate responses to take and undertake annually a well-publicized exercise to demonstrate and test national early warning systems, evacuation plans and public response, preferably involving all or large fractions of the at-risk population;
- **Strengthen the capacity of the local institutions** by involving local experts in skills training measures as disaster risk reduction depends upon measures to be taken at local level. Accordingly establish and/or support local training facilities which will be the key objective of any future capacity building programme;
- **Establish capacity building networks** among the relevant institutions in the member countries with a view to sharing, transfer and exchange of knowledge and expertise;
- **Build a regional multi-hazard network** for an effective disaster risk management with possible cooperation areas including information sharing, capacity building, technology sharing, joint infrastructure, and the promotion of common standards;
- Establish an **OIC Disaster Management Centre** to provide training, research and information services to develop capacities of the member countries of OIC as well as to coordinate timely response to disasters through **effective sharing of information, knowledge and good practices** at regional and international level;
- **Strengthen cooperation with multilateral organizations** including UNDP, UN Office for Disaster Risk Reduction (UNISDR), the World Bank and the Global Facility for Disaster Reduction and Recovery (GFDRR) with a view to raising awareness and formulating regional policies, acquiring and/or enhancing capacities for disaster risk management, sharing best practices and lessons, and securing financial resources for mitigation-related large-scale infrastructure projects.

Coordination of Emergency Response

In order to organize rescue after disaster and stabilize physical and emotional condition of survivors, an effective coordination mechanism is needed. In order to promote quality standards in humanitarian response, OIC member countries need to base their national disaster response guidelines on relevant international standards as well as moral values of humanity and Islam. In addition to that, special coordination and response mechanisms should be established for effective disaster management. In this context, in order to strengthen the response capability and enhance cooperation during emergencies, the following actions are proposed:

- Establish mechanisms to quickly **identify the needs on the ground and national sources to meet these needs** during sudden onset emergencies;
- **Establish a database of existing emergency response capacities** of the different Muslim countries that can be mobilized for deployment in other Muslim countries in times of disasters, such as capacities in the area of search and rescue, fire fighting, emergency shelter, disease prevention, emergency needs assessment etc.;

- Enhance intra-OIC cooperation to **improve strategic planning for preparedness and response** for better coordination of emergency health services, to control and prevent disease outbreaks during emergencies, to ensure effective delivery of emergency health services, and improve information management and analysis for emergency health services.
- Enhance intra-OIC cooperation to **reduce the crisis-induced migration** through developing local and national capacities with effective risk reduction and emergency preparedness strategies and to improve the living conditions of already displaced population.
- Design effective **contingency logistics and communication strategies** to be implemented during emergencies.
- Establish an **OIC Emergency Coordination Mechanism:** An OIC Emergency Coordination Mechanism (OIC-ECM) can be established to coordinate the relief efforts among the OIC member countries. This mechanism will create at the outset, based on the declarations of member countries, a voluntary pool of assets (equipment, personnel, etc.) for immediate deployment as part of a joint OIC intervention. It will facilitate the coordination of the relief by matching the needs on the ground with the capacities available from the voluntary pool of assets. In case of an emergency, member countries will be asked to voluntarily place those resources on call by the OIC-ECM. This mechanism could also work together with UN-OCHA to support its cluster coordination system to facilitate the coordination of activities of various relief institutions/agencies and the delivery of services. It may also promote the international quality and accountability standards within the OIC community.
- Improve the **effectiveness of the existing solidarity funds,** particularly the Islamic Solidarity Fund for Development (ISFD) operating under IDB Group, to help poor and vulnerable communities to recover and to make them more operational, particularly for people affected by natural disasters and conflicts.
- Explore the possibility of developing **alternative financial mechanisms** that could be implemented by the Islamic Development Bank (IDB) and the member countries as part of their short and long-term financing strategies for disaster management. These may include traditional financing mechanisms as well as innovative mechanisms such as sovereign risk financing, regional catastrophe insurance pools and index-based insurance, and special Disaster/ Risk Management Facility by the IDB.
- Establish **regional disaster response systems** with potential areas of cooperation including rapid emergency assessments, regional deployment of equipment and teams, coordination mechanisms with international organizations, and joint emergency information management.
- Facilitate **interregional partnerships for country-based capacity-building** in the field of disaster response and early recovery.
- Conduct **joint contingency planning** for possible future events/set-backs in the areas of emergency responses following a natural hazard or any man-made crises.
- Cooperate on **gender based violence prevention and response** and mental health and psychosocial support activities.

Sustainable Recovery

Disaster recovery offers a window of opportunity to change and transform the society. Post-disaster period provides a supportive political context to take decisions and actions for transformative changes for rebuilding a more resilient society by reducing vulnerabilities and risks and removing underlying causes. From early recovery planning to

implementation, key steps in disaster recovery should be carefully observed by the OIC member countries during the post-disaster period. Early recovery measures are crucial to avoid secondary impacts of a disaster. In this context, in order to manage transitory and sustainable recovery processes effectively and utilize the opportunity to be more resilient after a disaster, the following actions are recommended:

- Strengthen **intra-OIC cooperation** to assist countries who lack the capacity to conduct post-disaster damage and needs assessment and who lacks institutional mechanisms for managing recovery processes;
- Support development of **institutional and technical capacities** of countries recovering from a disaster through various capacity development activities;
- Cooperate in addressing the **financing needs** of the disaster-hit countries for early recovery. While methodological gaps can be addressed by promoting technical cooperation and exchange of knowledge between OIC member countries, innovative financial instruments can be developed to address resource gaps;
- Carefully design the **shift from relief to recovery** so that causes of vulnerability are adequately addressed;
- **Establish partnership** with United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), which is the UN lead agency for recovery / early recovery, to develop capacities of OIC secretariat and its member countries in the area of disaster/conflict recovery.

8.2 CONFLICTS

Conflicts are also main obstacles to development in OIC countries. Most of the OIC countries have been, in a way or another, affected by conflict. Armed conflicts have increased among the OIC countries, and as mentioned earlier in the report, according to the Conflict Barometer 2012, more than 40 OIC member countries are conflict affected. . In this context, the report proposes the following actions to be taken at both national and OIC/international cooperation levels to effectively manage the conflicts situations.

Conflict Analysis and Early Warning Mechanisms

Conflict analysis and early warning response systems support informed based decisions on how to tackle violent conflict in an efficient manner. Therefore it is important to:

- **Conduct conflict analysis at regional/national level** to provide a deeper understanding of the conflict drivers, peace engines, stakeholders, key issues and dynamics of the conflict and help identifying entry-points and opportunities to support identifying potential scenarios, frame programming, and inform strategic priorities;
- **Strengthen cooperation with international institutions**, such as UNDP, through OIC to benefit from their experiences in identifying best practices, develop necessary capacities and resources, build a framework for assessing potential risks to and opportunities for advancing peace and development, and set some specific and realistic benchmarks and targets in this regard;
- **Develop early warning systems** based on new technologies such as mobile technology and social media to gather real-time information to inform preventive action in a potential conflict, as well as making use of existing early warning systems for natural hazards that could be also used in case of conflict, both at regional, national and local level;
- **Develop early response and reaction capacity** at national, regional and OIC/international levels to address potentially violent conflict through risk knowledge, data collection and assessment;

- Work with key development partners to **develop a balanced approach to alleviate the risk factors and resolve the root causes** that could trigger violent conflict through multi-stakeholder dialogues and peace infrastructures.

Institutional Capacity Building for Conflict Prevention

Five sets of capacities are required to achieve both lasting peace as well as sustainable development in a rapidly changing development environment: i) Have in place systems that guarantee inclusive governance, where citizens and groups perceive themselves as enjoying equal access to the state, especially rule of law, and to the economy; ii) Ensure that governance offers the recognition of basic rights of all citizens without discrimination; iii) Develop and use standing mechanisms and skills for the peaceful settlement of recurring conflicts and crises; iv) Manage transitions inclusively, effectively, and on the basis of consensus, including both governance transitions as well as in post-conflict settings; v) Develop social cohesion among polarized or divided groups and communities, primarily through local education and dialogue, or through economic activity that binds them closer together through shared value.

However, a baseline is needed to know exactly what kind of capacities is needed and what capacities already exist (for example in conflict transformation/mediation/analysis; social cohesion; infrastructures for peace; early warning systems, dialogue, etc). Therefore, it is recommended to:

- **Conduct a regional and national conflict capacity and needs assessments** to identify gaps and priorities, as well as existing capacities to address conflict at three levels: enabling environment, (i.e. policies, legislation, institutional arrangements, etc); organizational level (i.e. strategies, procedures, frameworks put in place to allow the organisation to perform); and the individual level (related to skills and knowledge through formal education, training, coaching, among others);
- Based on the outcomes of the regional/national conflict capacity assessment, **revise or formulate regional and national conflict capacity development strategy and action plan** through a participatory approach;
- **Systematize the results of the implementation of the conflict frameworks** in order to improve future actions, and draw upon lessons learned for future actions.
- Develop systems at national, regional and OIC/international levels to **guarantee inclusive governance and allow equal access to the state** - especially rule of law and to the economy - and recognize basic human rights of all citizens through good governance mechanisms;
- Develop at the national and OIC/international level **standing mechanisms and a solid base of skills** to draw upon in order to respond to and resolve conflict as well as build social cohesion amongst polarized groups.

Coordination and Resource Mobilization for Conflict Affected People

Conflict-affected people require support to overcome the existing challenges they face and recover their livelihoods. Inadequate assistance can cost lives and uncoordinated activities may be harmful to early recovery, peace-building and state-building. In this context, following actions are recommended:

- Establish **national infrastructures for peace** that serve as multi stakeholder mechanisms to ensure coordination through dialogue, collaboration and consultation (i.e. local peace committees, peace secretariats, national peacebuilding platforms/Forums, among others);
- Set up a **network of Insider Mediators**, essential to establishing trust and

strengthening communities' capacities for mediation and negotiation;

- Encourage **partnerships with key international interlocutors** who can work in partnership to support peace and overcome conflicts collectively such as: the UN Peacebuilding Architecture; European Union and their Instrument for Stability; the African Peace and Security Architecture; ASEAN Political and Security Community as well as the Global Partnership for the Prevention of Armed Conflict.

Peace Building and Post-conflict Recovery

The OIC Ten-Year Program of Action calls for strengthening conflict prevention, confidence building, peacekeeping, conflict resolution and post-conflict rehabilitation in OIC member states as well as in conflict situations involving Muslim communities. However, neither the OIC nor the international community is able to replace the critical ownership and leadership role that each member country must assume in order to reduce and prevent violent conflict. Political commitments at the national level must be made as well as commitments to providing sufficient financial resources. This can be accomplished by building cooperation with international and regional institutions in order to enable to the membership of the OIC to avail of and apply documented experiences in a systematic manner.

In this context, the following actions can be recommended for conflict resolution and peace building in OIC countries:

- Establish **national platforms to manage social, political and economic transitions** by fostering multi-actor dialogue engaging critical actors and encourage sustained conversations among them in order to build confidence or consensus around development priorities;
- Establish **organized platforms of local community leaders** as part of systematic resolution efforts as well as regional and district peace committees or commensurate mechanisms with a view to addressing cyclical conflicts over land and natural resources;
- Establish **conflict resolution mechanisms** to address some of the drivers of recurring violence and scarcity at the local level and develop societal consensus around governance priorities that can accommodate a range of ideas and hence increase resilience to extremism, particularly the sectarian threats;
- Enhance **the role of women and civil society** in sustaining post-conflict peace and develop methods for participatory peace-building.
- Strengthen **the role of the OIC in conflict prevention, confidence-building, peace-keeping, conflict transformation and post-conflict rehabilitation** in OIC Member States as well as in conflict situations involving Muslim communities.
- Enhance **cooperation among the OIC Member States and between the OIC and international and regional organizations** in order to protect the rights and interests of the Member States in conflict prevention, conflict resolution, and post-conflict peace-building.

8.3 DISASTER-CONFLICT INTERFACE

Strategies, policies and actions on disaster risk management and conflict prevention/peace-building are often considered in isolated manner in both literature and practice. They lack the basic persuasion on complex emergencies supported by evidence-based research for effective interventions. For integrated action to complex emergencies, it is needed to foster research, learning, exchanges of knowledge and experience, and accountability. Otherwise, the complexity of situations may even negatively affect the outcome of an intervention aiming at reducing risks or preventing conflicts that concentrates only one aspect of the interconnected relation. Therefore, interventions should ideally

target reducing the risks of both natural disasters and conflict.

In this context, the following actions are proposed to be taken at both national and OIC/international cooperation levels to effectively manage the situations where disasters and conflicts coincide.

Risk Management and Vulnerability Reduction

Risk management and vulnerability reduction aims to understand hazards and build capacities needed to efficiently manage all types of potential emergencies and plan orderly transitions from response to sustained recovery. The following actions are recommended for OIC countries to improve risk management and vulnerability reduction when disaster and conflict collide:

- Ensure **special measures** are taken in identified areas that are prone to both disasters and conflict, for example by providing easy access to livelihoods, employment and low cost insurances to the most vulnerable populations.
- Ensure that **contingency plans are conflict sensitive**, for example, by contemplating conflict free shelters in case of a disaster caused by natural hazards strikes.
- Encourage members to focus on the **equitable provision of basic services** including education, health and infrastructure for all its citizens in order to reduce vulnerability and manage potential violent conflict;
- Encourage **inclusive, transparent, and accountable political systems** to prevent violent conflicts and also reduce the risks of natural disasters.
- Enhance the governments' ability to **integrate ethnic, linguistic and religious minorities and remote rural communities** into governance systems by providing them voice and representation.
- Ensure that disaster risk assessments are informed by a conflict analysis.

Disaster Relief and Rehabilitation

Conflicts and disasters both result in similar kind of consequences for affected populations and may lead to mortality, casualties, displacement and destitution. Both can also create similar needs in terms of relief and rehabilitation. In order to strengthen disaster relief and rehabilitation in case of complex emergencies, the following actions are recommended:

- **Train DRM staff in conflict mediation/ negotiation** to be able to support the population to minimize the risk of new conflicts (at national/sub national/community level) in case a disaster strikes.
- Develop mechanisms to **involve all key relevant ministries and departments to respond to relief needs** emerging from conflicts and disasters that may include provision of shelter, food, water, and sanitation services to affected communities.

Reconstruction and Sustainable Recovery

Disaster recovery provides an opportunity to potentially change and improve societal interaction. Effective recovery methods entail appropriate policy guidance and financial, technical and institutional support after crises. In this context, the following actions are proposed:

- Ensure that **urban planning needs are conflict sensitive** during the recovery period. In communities that are prone to conflict and disaster, a good urban planning ensures that conflicts are minimized among different groups, and that shared common public areas are planned to avoid exclusion. In addition, urban planning needs to take into account the most vulnerable populations that often are located in high risk areas.
- Share **best practices on the role of women and civil society** in sustaining post-conflict peace and development methods for participatory peacebuilding and sustainable recovery;

- Develop **crisis response plans**, including assessment capacity, and recovery frameworks that outline the responsibilities and mechanisms available for governments to help with restoration of livelihoods, construction of houses, construction of infrastructure etc.
- Establish **central recovery and reconstruction agencies** to deal with assessments, recovery planning and recovery management for both conflicts and disasters.

Regional and International Partnership

In order to address the common aspects of conflicts and disasters, the OIC can develop partnerships with a range of international and regional stakeholders. In this context, the following actions are recommended:

- Promote **south south/regional cooperation** to ensure exchange of conflict disaster interface experiences and good practices among OIC countries and between OIC and non OIC countries to inform future actions/decisions;
- Build **synergies with existing strategies and programs** with key agencies that work with governments to develop effective systems for prevention, response and recovery from conflicts and disasters. The most important amongst them are: the European Union, the World Bank, the UNDP and UNOCHA.
- Work closely with Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN), South Asian Association of Regional Cooperation (SAARC), League of Arab States (LAS), Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) and Intergovernmental Authority for Development (IGAD) and African Union (AU). These inter-governmental bodies have their own strategies and programs to assist the member countries in areas of disaster risk management and conflict resolution. OIC can build synergies with the existing strategies and programmes of these organizations.

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