
INTERNATIONAL DIALOGUE ON STRENGTHENING PARTNERSHIP IN DISASTER RESPONSE: BRIDGING NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL SUPPORT

BACKGROUND PAPER 3: BEST PRACTICE EXPERIENCE AT THE NATIONAL LEVEL

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INTRODUCTION

Despite wide recognition within the humanitarian world that disaster management is most effective and sustainable when owned, led, and administered by the nation affected by calamity, a growing number of voices complain that the humanitarian system is still far from achieving this goal. Within the sector there are imposing questions. How can affected states balance being over-run by the international community with meeting the humanitarian needs of their citizens? What steps can be taken before and during crisis response to help equip nations to better manage disasters? What mechanisms can be put in place to enable host nations to fairly and appropriately facilitate actors engaged in supporting humanitarian efforts?

This paper lays down a foundation for answering these questions by studying the current relationship between international and national disaster management systems through the mechanism of three country case studies. The study recognizes that crisis affected states are becoming, and must become, more prominent in disaster management at the local, national and global levels.

The countries selected for study; Mozambique, Indonesia and Colombia, were chosen by the commissioning agencies as examples of states where domestic authorities have taken steps to improve their relations between the international relief system and local disaster response systems had a reputation of working well. The essential research question was therefore: what is particular about these situations that led to effective response and what can be learned from them to pass on to other states?

Country visits were carried out over the summer of 2011, one researcher to each country, staying in country on average one week.

CASE STUDY METHODOLOGY

ETHICS REVIEW

All research methods were reviewed by an internal Tufts University ethics committee to ensure the research design protected the individuals who were research subjects, both in terms of their privacy and in terms of any possible harm that might come to them from participating in this research.

LITERATURE SEARCH

For each country case study we conducted an extensive literature search, reviewing the available literature focusing on national/international relationships, agreements and experiences, in times of disaster. We covered academic publications and the grey literature from the humanitarian aid sector.

INTERVIEW WITH KEY INFORMANTS

In each country we conducted a set of semi-structured interviews with key informants starting with the list of informants provided to us by the co-conveners of the International Dialogue. Three topics were explored with each informant.

- What legislation, agreements, systems and mechanisms already exist to help assist the national/international relationship in times of crisis?
- What has been the actual experience of this relationship in recent crises?
- How might the effectiveness and efficiency of this relationship be improved in the future?

BUILDING IN-COUNTRY SYSTEM DIAGRAM

Using the above data we constructed or acquired a systems diagram showing the relationships between the key actors in the national/international disaster response system. This systems analysis can be used to identify possible entry points for adaptation and change.

CASE STUDY OF LAST MAJOR DISASTER

We encouraged interviewees to reflect on the last major disaster by way of a case study in how present practice worked, focusing on the national/international relationship. This also allowed us to reflect on the achievements and opportunities for improvement in the present system.

MOZAMBIQUE CASE STUDY

1: NATURAL DISASTER PROFILE OF THE COUNTRY

The Mozambique UN Humanitarian Coordination Team’s Inter-Agency Contingency Plan for 2010/2011 provides an excellent overview of the hazards risk analysis for Mozambique. To quote from the introduction to their plan:

“Mozambique is prone to a wide range of natural disasters, which regularly cause major damage and set back economic growth in the disaster affected areas. The country has a land surface of about 799,380 km² and a total population of 20.52 million inhabitants of which 51.9 per cent are female. The population is dispersed over 10 provinces, 128 districts, 394 administrative posts, 1,072 localities and 10,025 villages. Natural disasters have long-lasting consequences due to the high level of vulnerability in the population further exacerbated by the debilitating HIV pandemic with a national prevalence rate of 11.5%.”¹

Disaster	Date	No Total Affected
Drought	Jan-1979	6,000,000
Drought	Aug-1981	4,750,000
Flood	Jan 2000	4,500,000
Drought	Mar-1991	3,300,000
Storm	Mar-1994	2,502,000
Drought	May-1911	1,400,000
Drought	Mar-1911	600,000
Flood	Jan -2011	549,326
Drought	Aug-2011	520,000
Flood	Jan-1971	500,000

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

Fig 1: Top ten natural disasters in Mozambique, sorted by numbers affected

It is critical to understand that disasters are normal business in Mozambique (see figure 1). The main rivers flood every year. Most years the coast is hit by cyclones. Droughts are common. The mechanisms for disaster response are treated as a normal, not exceptional, part of the national infrastructure, and this coupled with the emphasis on self reliance means that a great deal of political attention is focused on achieving successful disaster response.

Donor	Funding, US\$
European Commission	3,347,864
Germany	2,865,236
Central Emergency Response Fund (CERF)	2,624,107
Spain	1,326,260
Norway	631,239
Italy	208,124
Sweden	149,834
Austria	140,056
Grand Total US\$:	11,292,720
Compiled by OCHA on the basis of information provided by donors and appealing organizations.	

Figure 2: Humanitarian donations to Mozambique in 2010, the last year for which complete figures exist.

2: THE NATIONAL DISASTER RESPONSE SYSTEM

As the 1990s drew to a close the old massive internationally funded relief structures in Mozambique were reduced and transformed. The government's main relief institution, the DPCCN, with a staff of 900, was abolished in 1999 and replaced by the National Institute for Disaster Management (INGC), with a total staff of only 200. At the same time, the Mozambique Red Cross (CVM) cut back from a staff of 500 to 150. The new INGC also differed from its predecessor in that it quickly changed from being an operational aid-delivering institution to a coordinating and directive agency.

The floods that struck in 2000 and again in 2001 solicited international relief flows of a level that had not been seen in Mozambique for nearly a decade. Most observers agree that the chaos of relief delivery in 2000 was replaced in 2001 by a more orderly approach with much credit given to the staff of the INGC for taking onboard the lessons of 2000.²

The mid 2000's saw a change in attitude within government structures ushered in by the new head of state in 2005 with his emphasis on fighting corruption, national self reliance and a shaking up of the *laissez faire* attitudes of the past. This in turn led to changes within the INGC, exemplified by its second director (now minister for transport) who is widely credited with changing the relationship between the national and international aid community from one of suspicion to one of trust and cooperation.³

At the same time the INGC was moved out of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (and the implicit focus on international aid), to the Ministry of State Administration (and an implicit focus on national resources and response), with a direct reporting line to the Council of Ministers (CCGC).

Today the INGC has a staff of over 380 and an annual budget of 5-6 US\$ million.

The INGC is the main coordinating and advice body in Mozambique for disaster response, disaster preparedness and disaster risk reduction. In times of crisis it makes recommendations to the Council of Ministers (chaired by the Prime Minister) as to whether a state of national emergency should be declared. If it believes the level of crisis is beyond the scope of nationally available resources, it can also recommend that an international appeal for aid be made. The decision to issue such an appeal is taken by the Prime Minister on the advice of the Council of Ministers.

Mozambique suffers regular flooding on its two main rivers, the Zambezi and the Limpopo. A flood warning system is in place, similar to that in most major river basins with orange and red alerts being issued. Orange alerts are advisory, urging the affected population to evacuate the flood prone areas. Red alerts are mandatory, requiring the population to evacuate. Again the INGC makes a recommendation to the Council of Ministers who in turn, through the PM, make the final decision.

The decisions to declare a red alert, a national emergency or ask for international aid are based on a mix of technical and political considerations.

The INGC pulls together representatives from all the line ministries in Mozambique, including the Mozambique military, who play an explicit role in crisis response (outlined below). The INGC is serviced by a technical advisory group, the Technical Council on Disaster Management (CTGNC). This advisory committee has representatives from line ministries, the local Red Cross (CVM), the UN and INGOs.

The INGC's main operational instrument is a collective of three operational Command Centers (CENOE) activated in times of crisis and described below.

In the major floods of 2007 the CENOE national command center and the UN's Humanitarian Coordination Team, with its relatively new cluster structure, acted somewhat separately which led to criticism, at the time, of the structure. Since then all observers report that great effort has been made, by both the government and the UN, to bring the two structures closer together and ensure one coordinating system for future crises. The shelter cluster for instance is now led by the National Society, CVM, with the assistance of a technical advisor seconded by UN Habitat, trained and provided with distance support, by the IFRC as the global shelter

cluster convener. As CVM is viewed as part of the government's INGC, this ensures the shelter cluster is supportive of and informed by government.

3: LEGAL AND REGULATORY – LAWS AND AGREEMENTS

In 2006 the government put in place a ten year Disaster Risk and Vulnerability Reduction National Plan (Decreets 52/2007 & 29/2008). The plan, with approved funding of US\$ 80 million, widened the INGC's mandate to include not just disaster response but also development in drought prone areas and the coordination of reconstruction after disasters.⁴

Under the present law INGOs coming into Mozambique have to first register with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and then have their work plan approved by the relevant line ministry. Thereafter there is no formal re-registration procedure, but a tight watch is kept on the issuing of work permits for incoming expatriates, and the importation of supplies.

Work permits are needed for all relief workers coming into the country and are normally only granted for a month at a time. The government's emphasis is on hiring locally qualified staff; acquiring international work permits is difficult.

When the government declares a national emergency, relief goods can be imported duty free. Agencies need to submit the list of goods they want to import, in an emergency, to the INGC. If the INGC approves the list, they can be imported duty free. INGOs report that they find the process for approval of importation unclear.

In normal times, tax has to be paid on all imports. This can be up to 100% on a vehicle or 30% on electronics. As the government is often reluctant to declare a national emergency yet is pressuring the agencies to respond to a crisis, the issue of who pays duty, and when, has become a sore point with some agencies.

A new set of legal instruments and regulations is presently being drafted for Mozambique. The CVM is providing technical support to the government in this process. It is hoped the new regulations will be in place by September 2011 and will address some of the concerns mentioned above.

4: COORDINATION

Coordination in times of crisis takes place through the CENOE command centers. There are three in the country. If the crisis is in the south of the country - flooding on the Limpopo - then the Southern CENOE in Maputo is made operational. This is also the national center and would be operation in all disasters. If the crisis is in the mid region of the country, flooding on the

Zambezi, the center in Caia is made operational along with the Maputo center, and if in the north, the center in Nacala is operational.

The CTGC meets in Maputo and also at which ever center is activated so the team making operational decisions is as physically near the crisis as possible.

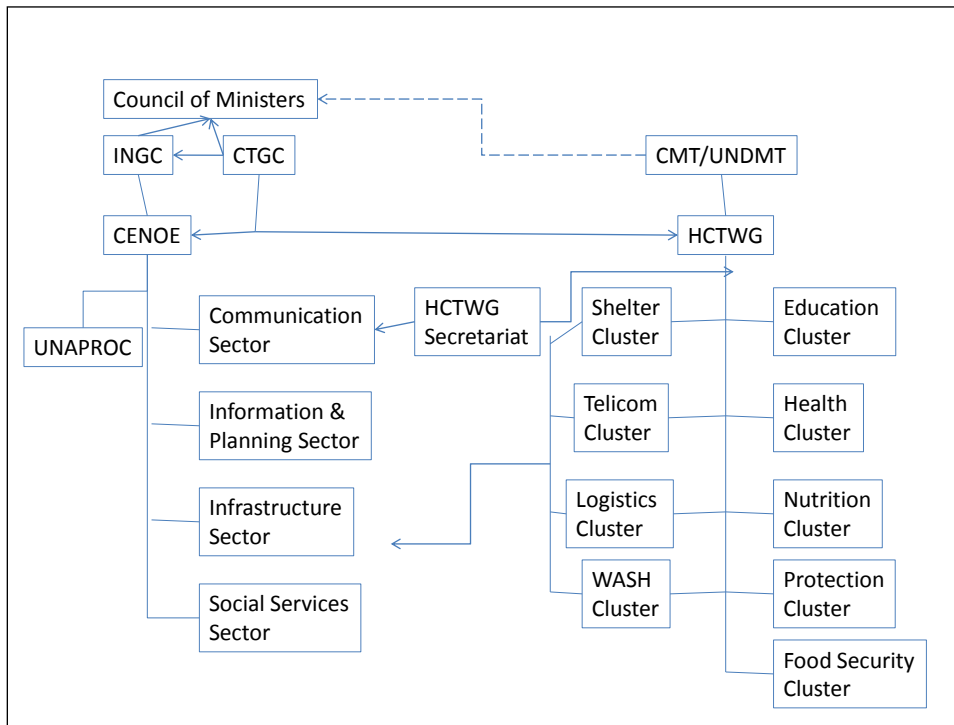


Figure 3: The crisis coordination system in Mozambique

There are five separate sub groups under the CENOE that actually do the day to day running and coordination of relief (see figure 3). UNAPROC (Unidade Nacional de Protecção Civil) is in charge of civil affairs. This group is led by the Mozambique military and includes the CVM. It is in charge of preparing evacuation sites and logistics for evacuating people when a red alert is declared. There are four sector technical groups which coordinate more general aid; a communications group, an information and planning group, an infrastructure group and a social services group. Line ministries, UN and INGOs all sit on all of these committees.

The Humanitarian Country Team brings together UN, INGOs, CVM and local NGOs but not the government line ministries. The HCT aims, in collaboration with the Government of Mozambique to help design, implement and monitor a programme of preparedness prevention assistance for emergency affected populations in the country, in conformity with key humanitarian principles and good practice standards.

The Cluster approach is adopted in Mozambique and participants of cluster meetings also attend the CENOE sector meetings.

Simulation exercises

Outside of disaster response, the CTGC organize disaster simulation exercises each year, both desk based and field based. Three such exercises were run in 2010. All line ministries and operational agencies (local, UN and INGOs) are strongly encouraged to participate and most do so, at their own expense. The INGC Deputy Director General, believes that these simulation exercises played a major role in fostering trust and cooperation between the national and international aid community. In his opinion, and in the opinion of many other interviewees, these exercises are one of the major positive innovations that have rendered Mozambique's disaster response more effective.

The simulations choose one or two areas of the country each year and run the simulation from the community emergency management committees (CEO) level, in the few selected districts, up to the INGC level.

UN and INGO workers interviewed all agreed that the simulation exercises were an important innovation and made a big difference in the levels of trust and understanding between the international and national disaster response communities.

Contingency plans

Each year the CTGC draws up and publishes contingency plans for crisis response. Mozambique is susceptible to three major types of disaster, river flooding, drought and cyclones. Each year three scenarios are mapped out under the contingency plan, a minimal crisis, a medium crisis, and a maximum crisis where a national emergency, and a call for international assistance, would be expected. The contingency plan is drawn up by the collective of national and international agencies. It acts both as a plan and as something of a desk-top simulation. It is seen as a major tool in bringing the relief community together. It is cited by many as another key reason why disaster response works well in Mozambique.

The scenarios used under the contingency plan have come in for some criticism from aid agencies. It is unclear what methodology is used to construct them, where the figures come from and how the costs have been calculated. Agencies welcome the notion of scenario planning but would like to expand on the present methodology.

5: FLOW OF KNOWLEDGE AND INFORMATION

All interviewees described a clear system for information to flow up the administrative system in times of crisis, from community COE's at the village level, to the district level, (the lowest

central administrative level) to the provincial level, and up to the national level. This would include information on number affected, relief needs and local resources available. Interviews with INGOs suggested that this “official” information was the source most used by the CTGC and that the idea of triangulating data gathered by other agencies was still treated with caution.

Concern was expressed that the methodology of calculating national numbers of persons “at risk” was unclear. As with decisions over when to declare a national emergency, the assumption was that both technical and political considerations came into play at this point. A further point, seems to be a consequence of the national policy of self reliance, which seems to be creating a dilemma in that it is pushing the government to define success in crisis response in terms of deaths averted, not livelihoods restored, i.e. it is setting the bar low so that it can be achieved without international assistance. The issue of whether the country has the resources to meet any one disaster rather depends on how one chooses to define the scope of the disaster.

Flood warning

The flood early warning system is based on the Brazilian model. Information comes from the National Water Authority (DMA) who have automatic and manually reporting flood warning stations; from the Metrological Office who monitor the weather locally and use satellite imagery and, importantly, also reports the community emergency management committees (COEs) at the village level who also monitor the flood waters in their community. The use of the three sources means that figures are more accurate and complete than they would be if only one source was used.

6: ACCOUNTABILITY

When questioned about downward accountability, government, Red Cross and INGO officials all agreed that little information flowed down the system. According to the Red Cross, the CTGC compiles lists of what has been donated and where relief is being carried out. These are shared with the administrators at the provincial and district level. They may in turn share it with their local COE leaders, but this last stage of sharing was speculative. No one had heard of an affected community being provided with information on relief flows.

7: MONITORING AND EVALUATION

Relief operations are well monitored through the CENOE and in preparing its contingency plan each year, an informal, desk based review of previous relief operations is carried out. No interviewee was aware of any systematic commissioning of internal or external evaluations of national relief operations, although in 2007 UN-OCHA did commission a real-time evaluation of its work in Mozambique.

Individual agencies have commissioned external evaluations of their own work, but as far as we can find out, there has been no overall external evaluation of the national response system.

8: DRR INITIATIVES

Disaster preparedness and disaster risk reduction are now very much part of the INGC's mandate.

In 2001 CVM started setting up local disaster risk management committees at the district level. These were seen as successful and were adopted by the government in 2003. According to aid workers interviewed, although these local committees do exist, work supporting disaster risk reduction is patchy.

9: ROLE OF THE MILITARY

The Mozambique military has a formal and key role to play in flood evacuation; they chair the UNAPROC (Civil Affairs Committee of the CENOE) and are charged with search and rescue, and with the logistics of evacuation. Their value is acknowledged to be more through the organized manpower they command than the infrastructure and equipment at their disposal. Most flood seasons see a shortage of boats to use for evacuation and in major flooding where helicopters may be needed the army has in the past had to call upon the assistance of the South African Defense Force, which has been able to provide significant extra lifting capacity.

Some local aid workers expressed concern that the military undertakes these relief efforts in full military uniform and armed.

Overall most interviewees praised the role of the Mozambique military in disaster response.

10: CONCLUSIONS

A week's visit to a capital city only scratches the surface of what there is to know about a country's disaster response system, but what is so striking about Mozambique is how, regardless of the ifs and buts and caveats, those interviewed agreed that while certain improvements are still needed in the regulatory area (e.g. in terms of the entry of international relief personnel, structural disincentives around making formal requests for international assistance and tax issues), the existing cooperation between the international agencies and the national system is quite good.

All agree that there is now no sense that the international aid machine is interventionist and imposed on or around the national authorities. This was not the case a decade ago and much credit has to go to both the national authorities, the UN in country and the INGOs for making this change happen.

Aid workers interviewed felt that, on balance, the systems in place dealt well with the influx of goods, funds and foreign workers during a crisis. People did point out that most of the welcome reforms had happened in the last decade and had not yet been tested by a truly catastrophic crisis. There is much hope that the new disaster response legislation being currently drafted will help deal with some of the outstanding issues and be able to clarify, for instance, levels of taxation on incoming relief goods and capital equipment along with visa restrictions pertaining to the number and documented qualifications of aid workers.

When asked what they thought were the main lessons that could be drawn from Mozambique and applied to other disaster prone countries, interviewees most commonly cited the following, all of which are supported by the published evaluations and research.

First, basic geography: Mozambique is hit more frequently by disasters than any other African nation. This means that crisis warning and response is carried out every year on some scale and so systems get tested and practiced.

Second: there is strong political will from the government to make the disaster response system work. Mozambique is one of the poorest of African nations and so surviving disaster is an absolutely central part of the national development strategy. Effective crisis response has come to be seen as a central part of the practice of sovereignty. The national policy of self reliance has also led to a decentralized administrative system which encourages prompt local response at the district and provincial level for smaller disasters, though may make it harder, in larger disasters, for timely international assistance to flow.

Third: the main government body, the INGC, is now a coordinating body, not an implementing one so the potential for corruption has greatly decreased. In the past the old DPCCN handled all in-country logistics and had a reputation as being very corrupt. This changed, and the effectiveness with which the INGC works and provides leadership has engendered confidence in it from the resident aid community.

Fourth: there is no parallel coordinating system. The INGC is the coordinating system. The UN's cluster system feeds into the INGC but it is the INGC and its technical committee, the CTGC, that make all the critical decisions.

Fifth: collaborative preparation of the annual contingency plan. The act of having national authorities, the UN and INGOs sit down together and work through, each year, the contingency plans was viewed by many as a key tool in engendering trust.

Sixth: practice matters. The simulation exercises, carried out every year, are widely held to act as a key factor in helping disparate agencies understand and trust each other better.

Seventh: and this may be a sub set of the point above, everyone speaks the national administrative language (Portuguese). This makes for a much more level playing field in coordination meetings. Whilst there was a major relief operation in 2007, it involved comparatively few foreign workers thus the system has not really been tested since 2001 by a truly major “international” emergency with the concomitant influx of international aid workers speaking predominantly English, but the point should not be lost. Language matters.

Aid workers interviewed, who had worked in other disaster prone countries saw no reason why the lessons above should not be transferable. They do require trust between the national authorities and the international community, but the operation of the system as it exists in Mozambique also engenders trust.

INDONESIA CASE STUDY

1: NATURAL DISASTER PROFILE OF THE COUNTRY

Indonesia is a country with a geography that lends itself to being affected constantly by natural disasters. There are over 17,500 islands within the archipelago located on the “Ring of Fire”, which refers to an area that includes over 100 volcanoes and where three tectonic plates collide to make earthquakes a daily occurrence.⁵ Indonesia boasts the fourth largest population in the world, with a high concentration living on the island of Java. Within the next decade it is estimated that approximately 65 percent of Indonesians will reside in urban centers.⁶ The size and urban concentration of the population further exacerbates the nation’s vulnerability to disasters, as illustrated in Figure 4.

While a recent UN report states that the 130 disaster events affecting the country over the past hundred years establishes Indonesia as “fifth among nations most affected by natural disasters”,⁷ the 2010 Natural Disaster Risk Index places Indonesia as the nation second most affected by natural disasters.⁸ Another recent report puts the number of natural disasters in 2009 alone at 662.⁹ Figure 4 gives an idea of the diversity of natural disasters that plague the archipelago, an important point to keep in mind as the wide range of hazards creates additional challenges for those working to respond to or reduce disaster risk.

Disaster	Date	No Total Affected
Drought	1972	3,500,000
Earthquake (seismic activity)	May-2006	3,177,923
Wildfire	Oct-1994	3,000,000
Earthquake (seismic activity)	Sept-2009	2,501,798
Drought	Sep-1997	1,065,000
Flood	Dec-2006	618,486
Flood	Feb-1996	556,000
Earthquake (seismic activity)	Dec-2004	532,898
Flood	March-1966	524,100
Flood	Jan-2002	500,750

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

Fig 4: Top ten natural disasters in Indonesia, sorted by numbers affected

The major disasters in recent years were the May 2006 Yogyakarta earthquake and the September 2009 West Sumatra earthquake.¹⁰

Donor	Funding US\$
European Commission	4,746,912
Norway	3,790,551
United States	3,041,580
Australia	2,374,475
Carry-over (donors not specified)	2,193,378
Private (individuals & organizations)	800,000
Germany	781,142
Japan	500,000
Sweden	474,140
Luxembourg	246,403
France	197,459
Canada	97,371
Denmark	55,896
Grand Total US\$:	19,299,307
Compiled by OCHA on the basis of information provided by donors and appealing organizations.	

Figure 5: Humanitarian donations to Indonesia in 2010, the last year for which complete figures exist.

2: THE NATIONAL DISASTER RESPONSE SYSTEM

Since the 2004 tsunami crisis, the Government of Indonesia (GoI) has engaged more actively in disaster management nationally and internationally. Measures have been taken to revamp the humanitarian system in order to elevate Indonesia's national response capacity and role as a global humanitarian actor. The tsunami marks a radical shift in the Indonesian humanitarian scene and an important point of reference from which much of the current system was shaped.

Indonesia first put in place a coordination body for responding to natural disasters in 1966 called the Advisor Board of Natural Disaster Management. In 1979 the Advisor Board established the National Disaster Management Coordination Board (BAKORNAS). This was an inter-ministerial coordination body that would come together in an ad hoc manner at times of crisis.¹¹ When the 2004 tsunami struck the region and wreaked havoc on an unprecedented scale, BAKORNAS was overwhelmed. Within a few months of the tsunami the Rehabilitation and Reconstruction Agency (BRR) was established and assumed control and management of the response and recovery, greatly improving coordination.

The 2004 tsunami made it clear that there needed to be a change in the way disasters were managed in terms of national mitigation and response efforts, as well as managing

international assistance. An initiative by Indonesian civil society, spearheaded by the Indonesian Society for Disaster Management, to put into place new disaster management legislation, catalyzed the passing of Law 24 in 2007, perhaps the single most significant action towards instituting the new order of disaster management in Indonesia. There are three trends reflected in this legislation:¹²

1. “Disaster management is no longer exclusively about response, but about all aspects of disaster management
2. Protection from disasters [is] not a government obligation, but for the basic rights of the people
3. Disaster management is the collective responsibility of all society, not just the government.”

Out of this process of establishing a legal framework, the Badan Nasional Penanggulangan Bencana (National Disaster Management Agency, or BNPB) was created in 2008. BNPB is a larger and more powerful organization than BAKORNAS, with independent resources, more clearly defined duties and responsibilities, the authority to direct line ministries in times of crisis, and a direct line of reporting to the President.

The government has been engaged in the process of decentralization to the 33 provinces since the 1960s, formally completing the process in the 1980s with the enactment of the Local Autonomy Law. In reality, decentralization is an ongoing project. The process and required resources are colossal given the size of the population and geography of the archipelago, as well as the correspondingly extensive bureaucracy in place. The rolling out of the newly defined disaster management system under Law 24 faces the same hurdles that the government as a whole struggles to overcome given these inherent challenges.

While at the national level BNPB is at the helm, at the local level Badan Penanggulangan Bencana (Provincial Disaster Management Authorities, or BPBDs) have been established to function as the disaster management mechanism in the 33 provinces. Units at the district level, also referred to as BPBDs, will be established to handle disaster management at the most localized level of governance. Currently only a few have been established in the most disaster prone of the 432 districts. When a disaster strikes, in practice the local Governor is usually appointed the “Incident Coordinator” by the President and takes on the lead role of managing and coordinating the response.

Another institution to be set-up with a direct reporting line to the executive office of the President is the Badan Search and Rescue Nasional (National SAR Agency, or BASARNAS), which forms a critical part of the disaster response apparatus in Indonesia. In the event of a crisis the

government deploys the BASARNAS/Provincial SAR Office under the coordinating command of BNPB/BPBD.

The GoI is committed to taking on the responsibility of disaster management within its borders and is highly motivated to handle responses on its own. It has shown a mounting interest in being recognized as a regional leader and global player in disaster response. Based on its sense of responsibility, a desire to be recognized as a nation capable of handling internal disaster response, as well as a sense of national pride, Indonesia has become increasingly reluctant to appeal for international assistance, preferring instead to rely on its own capacities. The GoI has continued to “welcome” international assistance, but direct requests for assistance becomes an option only in the case of mega disasters. The last major disaster operation involving an international response was in response to the 2009 Padang earthquake in West Sumatra. Some non-government observers in country view the new dynamic regarding international assistance as a drawback at the expense of the affected communities.

In the aftermath of the 2004 tsunami in Aceh, the GoI showed openness towards the international system. The international community was provided full access to an otherwise highly sensitive area where international aid groups had previously been prohibited. The government and aid workers also cited the instances of the Nias earthquake in 2005 and the Padang, West Sumatra earthquake in 2009 as examples of the acceptance of external support to complement local efforts and of excellent collaboration. Those interviewed were confident that in the event of another mega disaster there would be an appeal for, and facilitation of, international assistance but with firmer and improved coordination by the GoI.

Further, the GoI engaged with the international humanitarian system along with national NGOs and Indonesian civil society in creating Law 24, which provides the legal framework for disaster management. This is described in more detail below, but in essence it outlines a system that is clearly administered and controlled by GoI with details about what, when, who, where and how assistance arrives and is delivered in the country.

The trend in Indonesia is for disaster management to evolve into an exclusively indigenous endeavor as a result of the GoI and civil society initiatives enhancing their own capacity. The government closely regulates expatriates, comparing their resumes and terms of reference with annual reports submitted to, and reviewed by, the appropriate technical ministries to ensure that each individual is providing value added beyond locally available capacities (see Figure 7). While the GoI has become increasingly diligent in this regard, and is arguably contributing to a more accountable system, it does limit the ability of the international system to respond in a timely manner. The global trend of international donors to voice support for national systems as well as international organizations is seen as supportive of GoI efforts to reduce the expatriate footprint in the country. The number of expatriates has been drastically reduced in recent years

and while it was not long ago that international jobs could be found in abundance here, this is no longer the case. Most INGOs now have only one or two expat representatives, while some, such as Catholic Relief Services (CRS) have none at all. The Red Cross National Society partners are down to one or two representatives each and will likely soon be reduced to no expat presence.

The Indonesian National Red Cross Society

The Indonesian Red Cross Society, or Palang Merah Indonesia (PMI), while remaining separate from and auxiliary to the government structure as per its mandate, forms an important part of the system. The government structure and PMI's structure mirror each other from the national down to the district level. PMI is estimated to have over 2 million volunteers, who often are the first responders to crises given their integration with local communities throughout the country. The government and PMI have an overall positive working relationship defined by a memorandum of understanding between them that establishes a relationship of mutual respect. They work closely together on issues of disaster management and in July 2009 began the process of drafting government regulations based in part on the recommendations of the IDRL Guidelines.

The GoI recognizes the value added of PMI in its auxiliary role to the government and involves them in meetings, while also collaborating at the field level. PMI supports the government through implementation support, channeling information up the system, and trainings. They also lobby and support the government, pushing for the disaster management systems to be more inclusive of affected populations and civil society.

3: LEGAL AND REGULATORY – LAWS AND AGREEMENTS

The most significant legislation to be put into place in Indonesia regarding disaster management is Law 24, which for the first time provides a comprehensive legal framework for disaster management. The law, and particularly its implementing regulation on international assistance, is guided by the IDRL Guidelines, and extensive discussions with international and national humanitarian actors. The law is unusual in that it came about through the extensive lobbying and inputs of a civil society organization, the Indonesian Disaster Management Society (MPBI).

Law 24 emphasizes a shift in focus from response to Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR), and reflects the values of the Hyogo Framework for Action (HFA). It provides a systematic approach across all the stages of disaster management – DRR, response and recovery. The BNPB is mandated in the law “to coordinate all contingency, preparedness, mitigation, prevention, DM training, DRR activities” and during response “BNBP has command and control of the coordinated responses of all actors.”¹³

In the event of a disaster, Law 24 regulates the role of international organizations and national NGOs, stipulating that their activities must be coordinated by BNPB. In addition to the law, and founded in its legal framework, is the “Guideline on the Role of the International Organizations and Foreign Non-Government Organizations During Emergency Response,” which was finalized in March 2011. The guidelines were “developed to facilitate the support from the international organizations and foreign non-government organizations, facilitate arrangement and appropriate monitoring as well as clarify the role and responsibilities of relevant institutions in disaster management during emergency response in Indonesia.”¹⁴

4: COORDINATION

BNBP is responsible for coordination at the national level.

At the provincial level routine disaster management is the responsibility of the BPBD, while in times of crisis the Governor is usually appointed the lead role for coordinating the national government’s response. Elected officials at the district and city levels assume the ultimate responsibility of disaster management in their areas of responsibility.

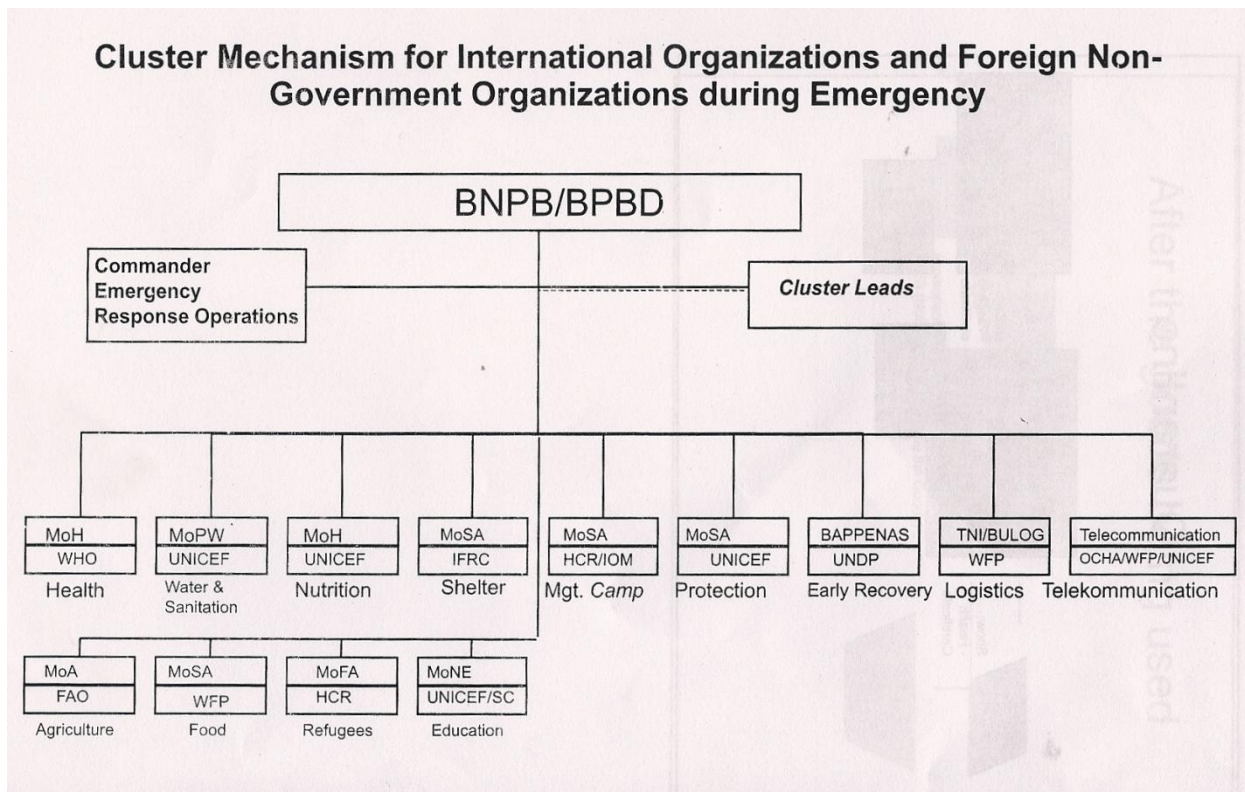


Figure 6: the crisis coordination system for international and foreign non-government organizations¹⁵

Although the structures that have been put into place are a huge improvement, they have not arrived without growing pains and there are still hurdles to overcome. For example, although

BNBP usually sends support to the affected areas with the purpose of bolstering coordination capacity this is not implemented uniformly. The actual coordination at the time and place of a disaster is very much determined by the posture of the local BPBD, the relative importance of the disaster-affected areas in the national context, and very often simply the geographical accessibility. In some cases BNBP representatives are sent to the crisis zone, as was the case with the recent volcanic eruption in North Sulawesi, while in the more remote, perhaps less politically visible case of Papua, no one was sent. In instances where BNBP does send representatives, coordination mechanisms in the field can be overwhelmed. In the North Sulawesi case some 20 representatives were sent. Arriving a few days after the crisis occurred they added little to the coordination already being administered by the line ministries on the ground.

The experience of one international NGO operating at the community level in West Java is that although the NGO makes an effort to coordinate at the provincial level, it is difficult given the size of the province and the reality that most of their coordination takes place at the district and community level. This emphasizes the importance of building up structures and capacities at the micro-level.

Coordination of international assistance is tightly controlled. According to the guidelines on emergency response, BNBP/BPBD coordinates the initial assessment of the disaster, which will inform the entry of international agencies and the creation of a framework for their presence in the country.¹⁶ Even Indonesian actors are required to seek permission from BNBP if they wish to receive international support. In this manner the government controls all foreign humanitarian aid to Indonesia.

The relationship between UN-OCHA and the government appears to be positive and strong. OCHA routinely meets with the government, 2-3 times per week, engaging them on three levels; policy, capacity building and operations. In times of crisis OCHA has been able to support the government in leading the coordination of the response without over-running them in the process.

During the multiple disasters that occurred in 2010, several required a national response that was backed by “welcomed” international aid, but no appeal was made and therefore no cluster system established.

OCHA’s role is to support the Resident and Humanitarian Coordinator (RC/HC) in collaboration with local authorities and the humanitarian partners to manage the international response in times of disaster through the IASC system, which includes a Humanitarian Coordinator, Humanitarian Country Team and the cluster approach. OCHA is working to prove to the GoI the utility of these mechanisms, as well as to adapt and shape the system to the context of

Indonesia. A significant challenge presents itself in grafting the two systems together. While certain clusters, such as education and health, match well with the existing ministries, others do not. The protection cluster, for example, requires dealing with several different ministries and government institutions all dealing with different aspects of protection. There is an ongoing discussion between OCHA and BNPB over how to overcome this problem. OCHA has posited one solution of having a permanent focal point based in BNPB who can act as the liaison between the cluster and the various parties that need to be coordinated. This solution, however, is OCHA centric suggesting that BNPB should model itself on the international system and would not necessarily bring about a solution since it would be highly dependent on the capacities of the focal person, or persons. Further, this would require a significant bureaucratic reshuffling down to the provincial level.

OCHA has also recommended instituting a standing cluster system, which has been done in other contexts, though usually in contexts void of local structures and capacity.

Interviewees reported that the UN and INGOs struggle with timely response hampered, they believe, by the Indonesian government refraining from issuing direct appeals and instead simply “welcoming” assistance. Without an official appeal, international actors are less able to access donor funding. Despite not officially requesting assistance, the government is still prone to request aid agencies to assist them in the response. In the case of the response to the Merapi volcanic eruption and Mentawai Tsunami operation in 2010 OCHA assisted in coordination but with very limited resources. This has also been a challenge for INGOs.

The role of ASEAN as a regional disaster management coordination body has particular importance for Indonesia, who has been a firm supporter of regional disaster mitigation and response. With the signing of the ASEAN Agreement on Disaster Management and Emergency Response (AADMER) in 2005, the ASEAN nations agreed to be legally bound to reducing the risk of disasters and improving joint responses to disaster. It is gaining in strength and importance within the region for coordinating and resourcing disaster response and mitigation measures. As the current chair of ASEAN, Indonesia has proven to be a strong advocate for ASEAN’s involvement in crisis response. In the response to Cyclone Nargis in 2008 Indonesia pushed for ASEAN’s involvement and leadership role.

AADMER provides for the establishment of the ASEAN Coordination Center for Humanitarian Assistance, commonly known as the AHA center. The center will advise national disaster management agencies in the region and will coordinate the harnessing of regional assets during disasters. By “providing a bird’s eye view” on disaster management, the center will be important in responding to large scale, or simultaneous disasters, across multiple nations. Indonesia has offered to host the center and it seems very likely that it will end up being based in Jakarta.

5: FLOW OF KNOWLEDGE AND INFORMATION

Indonesia has drawn from the international system in order to overhaul their national system since 2004. The IDRL Guidelines, the Hyogo Framework and AADMER are among the most evident international and regional frameworks referenced. The international system, likewise, has integrated many lessons learned from the response experiences in Indonesia, particularly the 2004 tsunami.

Both government officials and OCHA described how they regularly share information with each other in an effort to improve the overall system. According to OCHA there is a concerted effort made to facilitate the flow of information from the Indonesian experience into the international system. The government pointed out their extensive use of international consultants within BNPB, from Japan, Australia and elsewhere, who were helping to integrate best practices from the global arena into their relatively new institution.

6: ACCOUNTABILITY

Members of the International Humanitarian Forum (IHF) expressed concern, in interviews, over the distribution of assistance in recent operations, which they maintain is donor driven and does not take into account the voices of the beneficiaries. Local NGOs report that they are distracted from fulfilling their role as humanitarian actors by onerous reporting to their donors. IHF is making an effort to bring to the table local affected communities in forums where the donors and implementers will be brought into closer contact with each other.

Following the tsunami in 2004 there was a mushrooming of NGOs in-country, which created issues around accountability and accreditation. For example, in Aceh there was an issue of NGOs placing orphaned Muslim children in orphanages and with families who were non-Muslim, an offensive and unacceptable practice to the Muslim population. The Indonesian government has learned from experiences like these that NGOs, even if they are faith based, must approach humanitarian assistance completely neutrally, without any religious agenda. The situation is far better in this regard today.

Figure 7 illustrates the basic process put into place to control foreign personnel arriving in the country.

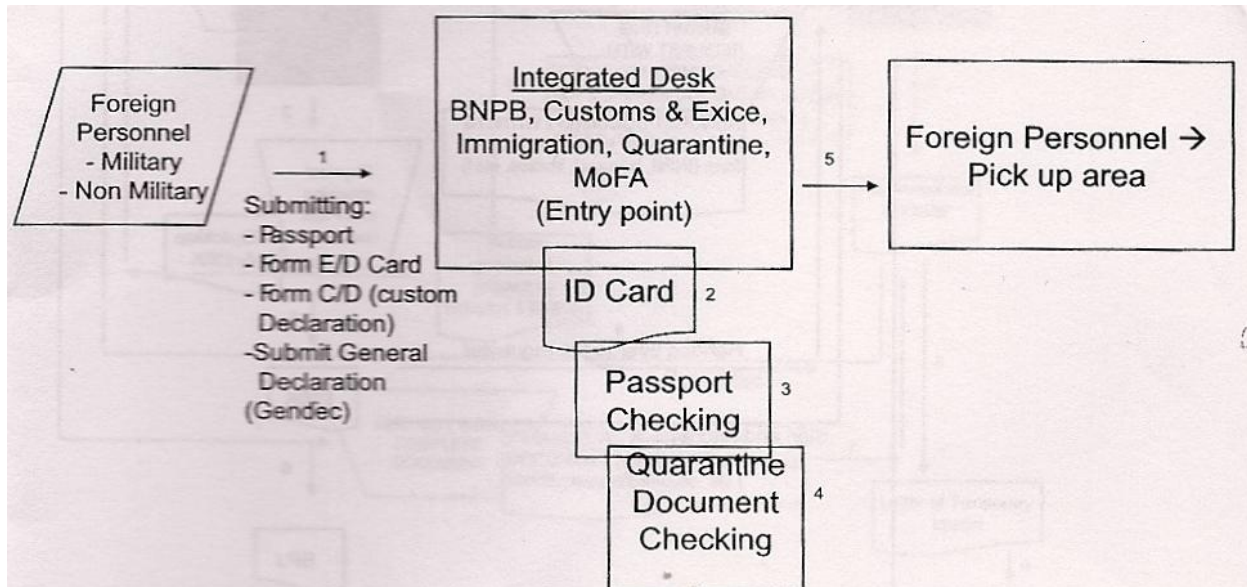


Figure 7: Process for entry of foreign aid workers (non-military) into Indonesia¹⁷

7: MONITORING AND EVALUATION

The institutional and legal frameworks put into place in recent years have increased the national capacity for oversight. With the creation of Law 24 and the guidelines for managing international assistance there is much more diligent monitoring of international assistance arriving in country. This includes such measures as requiring international aid workers to be granted visas as per their qualifications by the appropriate technical ministry.

It is not clear what, if any, systematic approach Gol is taking to the monitoring and evaluation of aid efforts. Whether the assistance, once in country, is being closely scrutinized and whether internal assistance is also being closely monitored and evaluated is not clear.

8: DRR INITIATIVES

In May 2011 President Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono was recognized by UNISDR as the “Global Champion for Disaster Risk Reduction” as a result of his contribution to the DRR agenda in Indonesia and the region. Among other things, President Yudhoyono has been the catalyst for establishing early warning systems, “joint regional exercises” and putting in place a law that requires DRR measures to be adopted when constructing new buildings.¹⁸

Since the passing of Law 24, disaster management has taken on a more holistic approach. With the support of international actors and initiatives, such as the Global Facility for Disaster Reduction and Recovery (GFDRR), the Gol has made significant progress in the realm of DRR. Indonesia is in the process of creating a National Action Plan for DRR (or NAP-DRR-2010), which

aims to “build capacity at the national and sub-national levels.” This initiative will work towards putting in place or enhancing “Post-Disaster Needs Assessments (PDNAs), recovery planning, urban risk management, and land use and environmental rehabilitation”, as well as “a comprehensive risk financing strategy.”¹⁹

One of the five UN Partnership for Development Framework (UNPDF) outcomes includes “Resilience” and the UN has established a Joint Strategic Programme for spearheading its promotion within DRR programming. The mapping that has been done so far has shown that as a result of the present project-approach to aid there is a lack of DRR coordination resulting in a multitude of actors coming to the government with offers to enhance capacity without any overall coordination. Efforts are now being made to ensure that this is better coordinated.

DRR forums have been established in some of the provinces with voluntary membership. In Yogyakarta the forum was established in 2006. Inspired by the Hyogo Framework for Action this forum brings together 74 Indonesian members from the public and private sectors, as well as the NGO community and civil society. The forum provides the provincial government support in the formation of DRR planning, and is valuable in bringing together the various stakeholders for a cross fertilization of ideas.

In the spirit of the UNISDR’s mantra that DRR is the responsibility of all actors in society, Indonesian civil society has shown true zeal in promoting the DRR agenda. The Indonesian Society for Disaster Management (MPBI), for example, was born out of civil society’s concerns over the affects of disasters on their country and a desire to promote resilience. It has lobbied for DRR to be further integrated into the long-term government development plans in recognition that DRR is a way of life in Indonesia and engages the government on increasing the inclusion of communities in DRR planning and activities. MPBI also lobbied for and assisted in the drafting of the laws on disaster management.

9: ROLE OF THE MILITARY

The Armed Forces of Indonesia (TNI) are popular and well respected within the country. Their role as first responders to disasters is critical given their nation-wide presence. Much of their value added comes in the form of “man-power and organization rather than significant logistics and specialist capacity.” In the response to the Aceh tsunami the military has been “praised for its role” because it was able to “access difficult areas and to undertake difficult tasks such as removal of dead bodies and rubble clearance.”²⁰

Despite being actively involved in disaster response, “TNI has no standard operating procedures on disaster management.”²¹ Efforts have been made at the Joint Command level to formulate standard operating procedures in consultation with other partners. According to one source, the BNPB has the natural inclination to rely more on the armed forces in terms of training of personnel, logistical arrangements, and actual ground operations.

The debate is ongoing over how involved the military should be in disaster management. However, in Indonesia, and ASEAN as a whole, the military assets are seen as part and parcel of the government's assets and clearly they will continue to play an important role. The Gol is less focused on separating civilian and military efforts and is more focused on ensuring coordination to optimize the overall effort.

10: CONCLUSIONS

Since the 2004 tsunami in Aceh, Indonesia has made great strides towards taking ownership and control of disaster response and DRR within its extensive borders. The Aceh experience was a turning point for Indonesians who were abruptly faced with the tsunami's catastrophic aftermath and the simultaneous influx of unprecedented international aid. Plagued by natural disasters the Gol has since been compelled to respond to natural disasters on a continual basis, while frequently managing international assistance to these crises. This accounts for much of the impetus behind the legal and bureaucratic structures that the Gol has built for disaster management.

But it is more than the legal obligation of the State or an altruistic sense of duty that has made disaster management a national priority championed by senior government officials. There is also an element of national pride. The Gol is highly image conscious. Japan's response to the natural and technological disasters earlier this year, and the manner in which they dealt with the international community, was described as a "salient event for Indonesians". This is the way in which they would like to handle, and be viewed as handling, crises that affect Indonesia.

To this end the Indonesians have taken great strides towards putting into place a system for disaster management, as described briefly here, that has evolved rapidly within the context of the challenges faces. Control of incoming aid flows has greatly improved with clearly established laws and corresponding institutions. In recent cases where international aid has been requested and delivered in Indonesia, the government's role has been far more active and effective than it was at the time of the 2004 tsunami. Government ownership of disaster management has grown significantly over the past half decade.

Tension and obstacles need to be overcome in order to develop a more positive and effective interaction between the international and national systems. However, the Indonesian government and civil society are clearly motivated to not only be more effective at domestic disaster management, but to also actively participate in and contribute to this agenda at the regional and global levels. In this sense there is an ideal partnership to be developed between the local and international levels.

Common points raised in the interviews that provide important insights and lessons learned from the Indonesia experience include:

First, due to the frequency and scope of natural disasters in Indonesia, there is a compulsion on the part of the government and civil society to address disaster management. Indonesians have taken on board the UNISDR's perspective that disaster management is everyone's responsibility. However, implementation presents a particular challenge in Indonesia given the geography, population and diversity of the country. Those interviewed pointed out that while great strides have been made to put into place a national disaster management system, there remains a long ways to go operationally before it adequately meets the tremendous needs.

Second, without the political will and support of senior leadership within the government, not least of all the President, national disaster management would likely not have been prioritized and transformed into tangible action. Although some expressed concern that this high-level involvement might translate into the system being abolished at a moment's notice by the executive in the case of a mega disaster, the positive have so far out-weighed the hypothetical negative. The strong support from the highest level of governments keeps disaster management a top priority.

Third, there exists a capacity gap between the upper tier of leadership and those actually implementing on the ground. What is proclaimed at the more senior levels of government is often exaggerated and not a reality at the implementation level. Between BNPB at the national level, and BPBD at the provincial level, the gap in capacity and information flows is substantial. At the most localized level, i.e. the village level, the head of the village will commonly be unaware of the government initiatives in regards to disaster management.

Fourth, it takes time for any system to grow into its own. The creation of Law 24, subsequent legislation and the establishment of BNPB with comprehensive responsibility for disaster management represent the greatest improvements to disaster management in Indonesia. However, BNPB is still a very new organization and given its task it will take a significant amount of time before it possesses the necessary competence to achieve its ambitious mandate. A period of transition exists that the international humanitarian system would be well advised to remain diligently supportive throughout.

Fifth, the international system supports the Gol agenda to become self-sufficient in disaster management. OCHA is committed to departing Indonesia as soon as the local capacity exists to manage disasters. However, the actual transition to complete ownership of disaster management does not have a clear road map. This creates an awkward and disjointed situation that leaves gaps at the expense of the primary clients of assistance.

Sixth, this is a country where the only option is to work with and through the government. It is not a country where the government can be bypassed and although the international community has grown increasingly sensitive to respecting national sovereignty and to supporting national disaster management rather than importing it there exists a wariness of the international system and actors. Within the Asian context in particular, trust must be nurtured over time. This will be necessary for the GoI and the international community so that they can support each other to achieve better humanitarian outcomes, a common goal to both parties.

COLOMBIA CASE STUDY

1: NATURAL DISASTER PROFILE OF THE COUNTRY

The World Bank's Global Facility for Disaster Risk Reduction, provides a concise description of the natural disaster hazard profile for Colombia.

“Colombia has the 10th highest economic risk to three or more hazards in the world, according to the Natural Disaster Hotspot study by the World Bank. 84.7% of Colombia's population and 86.6% of its assets are located in areas exposed to two or more natural hazards. The exposure is to both low-frequency/high-impact events such as earthquakes, volcanic eruption, and an occasional Atlantic hurricane, and to high-frequency but lower impact events, such as floods and landslides. Climate change is already thought to exacerbate flooding and landslides in large parts of the country.

Most of Colombia, including all major urban areas, is located in zones of high or very high seismic activity. Colombia is situated on the confluence of three tectonic plates—the Nazca Plate, the Caribbean Plate, and the South American plate and is traversed by various geological fault lines: the Romeral fault line, Cauca and Magdalena, and Palestina and Frontal de la Cordillera Oriental. There are six very active volcanoes in Colombia distributed along the central mountain range of the country. The six active volcanoes are: Nevado de Ruiz, Galeras, Doña Juana, Purace, Tolima, and Huila. Galeras and Huila have had eruptions in the last five years causing severe damages and forcing significant evacuations.

Large parts of Colombia's territory are susceptible to flooding, especially in the lower basins and valleys of the principal rivers: the Magdalena, Cauca, Sinu, Atrato, and Putumayo. These regions are susceptible to flooding, as demonstrated by the area's topography and previous events that have occurred. Landslides are the most frequently occurring disasters in the country. There are most frequently attributed to hydrological phenomena. The main causes stem from the softening of the ground from heavy rains and the flooding of bodies of water. The Natural Disaster Hotspot study by the World Bank indicates that Colombia has the highest landslide risk in the South American region, in terms of the number of fatalities per year per square kilometer.”²²

Disaster	Date	No Total Affected
Flood	Nov-1970	5,105,000
Flood	April-2011	3,120,268
Earthquake (seismic activity)	Jan-1999	1,205,933
Flood	Sept-2008	1,200,091
Flood	Oct-2007	1,162,135
Flood	Sept-2005	474,607
Flood	March-2007	443,173
Flood	Oct-2004	345,386
Flood	Oct-1986	250,000
Flood	Jan-2006	221,465
Source: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.		

Fig 8: Top ten natural disasters in Colombia, sorted by numbers affected.

Donor	Funding US\$
Colombia	18,751,000
European Commission	14,707,024
Norway	7,967,069
Central Emergency Response Fund (CERF)	6,116,970
Germany	4,884,837
Spain	4,016,182
Sweden	3,709,038
Canada	3,181,989
Switzerland	2,592,110
Netherlands	2,182,540
Carry-over (donors not specified)	1,425,274
Luxembourg	1,407,306
United States	1,222,370
India	974,359
Finland	680,272
Russian Federation	512,821
Denmark	351,178
Italy	254,130
Japan	240,000
Mexico	76,923
Grand Total US\$:	75,253,392

Compiled by OCHA on the basis of information provided by donors and appealing organizations.

Figure 9: Humanitarian donations to Colombia in 2010, the last year for which complete figures exist.

2: THE COLOMBIAN NATIONAL DISASTER RESPONSE SYSTEM, STRUCTURE AND FORMATION.

In 1988, the National Disaster Attention and Prevention System (*Sistema Nacional de Prevención y Atención a Desastres – SNPAD*) was established in response to the 1983 earthquake in Popayán and the 1985 avalanche in Armero. The disaster in Armero caused 25,000 deaths and marked a new stage in disaster management in Colombia. The SNPAD was the first attempt to regulate and organize a disaster response system. In 1989, Decree 919, the Disaster Management Direction (*Dirección de Gestión de Riesgo – DGR*) further expanded the mandate of the SNPAD.

In 1991, Presidential guideline 33 developed guidelines and clear responsibilities for each public institution to apply during times of disaster. The changes introduced by the new Colombian Constitution, approved in 1991, enabled the introduction of new laws to govern the SNPAD. The National Plan for Action and Prevention of Disasters (*Plan Nacional para la Prevención y Atención de Desastres* – PNAD) was created under the Decree 93-1998 to set the framework for future coordinated disaster response and prevention, and Presidential guideline 5 of 2001, allowed for the development and adoption of protocols between the various entities in country to facilitate timely response.

Since 1984, the SNPAD has controlled its own response funds, assigned by the Government of Colombia (GOC) under the National Calamities' Fund (*Fondo Nacional de Calamidades* – FNC). Following the major 2010-2011 emergency, the GOC created an additional Action Fund (*Fondo de Adaptación*) under Decree 4810-2010. This fund focuses on recovery, construction and reconstruction of all infrastructure affected by the 2010-2011 emergency and *La Niña*. The GOC has allocated around US\$ 7.3 billion²³ to be spent over the next three years.

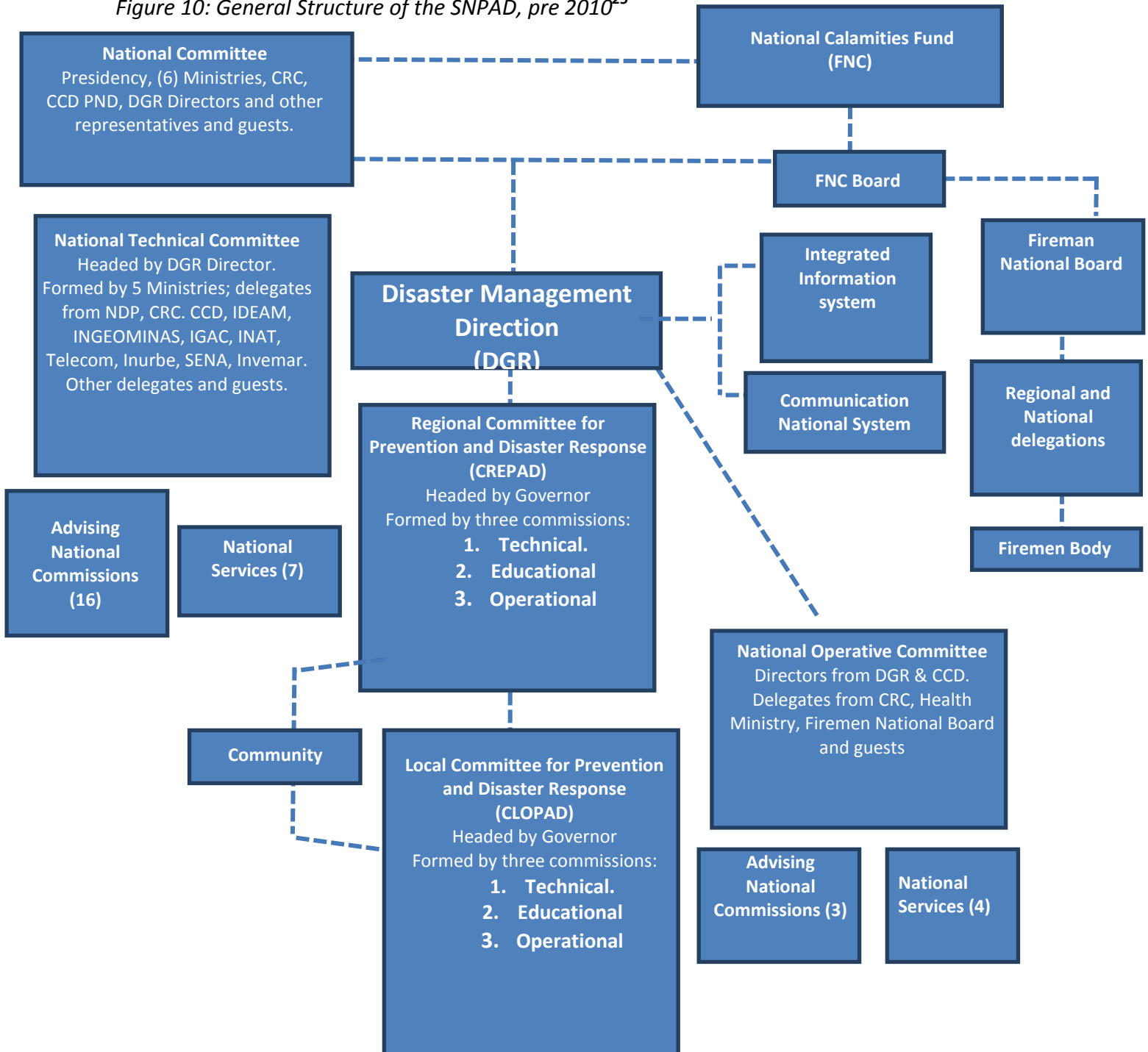
After the 1999 Eje Cafetero earthquake, the DGR developed a series of protocols that describe procedures and responsibilities governing response following sudden onset disasters²⁴. The protocols are applicable for all governmental institutions involved in the SNPAD. Currently, this system of protocols is under revision and a new law is close to being approved by Congress.

The DGR is the main authority responsible for disaster response and prevention in Colombia. It reports to a Deputy Minister in the Ministry of Justice and Interior. However, triggered by the devastating effects of the rainy season and floods during 2010 and 2011, the new law pending approval, places the DGR under the President's Office.

In theory the SNPAD brings together institutions from the private, public and social sector but in practice it is mostly governmental ministries who participate, along with technical institutions.

The following diagram shows the different components of the current SNPAD's structure:

Figure 10: General Structure of the SNPAD, pre 2010²⁵



The relationship between DGR and the Colombian Red Cross (CRC) is very close. CRC plays a critical role in the SNPAD. CRC has 32 regional offices (one for each of the departments in Colombia) through a network of 54,000 volunteers. In addition, the Colombian Civil Defense (CCD) plays a significant role in providing needed support to the SNPAD.

Private sector organizations are becoming more active in disaster response as a result of the 2010-2011 flooding, building on the SNPAD's existing work with the private sector, executing the Eje Cafetero Recovery Fund (*Fondo para la Recuperación del Eje Cafetero* – FOREC).

Additionally, civil society groups are playing a greater role in local response. Of particular note is the work developed by Pastoral Social Caritas Colombia (PASCO), Oxfam and CRC.

The United Nations' agencies and international non-governmental organizations (INGOs) are not included by law on the SNPAD but they are invited to join meetings and interventions. Based on our interviews, it was clear that all actors see international humanitarian aid in Colombia as complementary to national efforts. Open channels of communication and joint efforts are the rule not the exception between national authorities and international agencies.

2010-2011 Emergency

Colombia regularly suffers small and medium size droughts, floods, strong rains, fires and volcanic eruptions. The rains and floods that started in November 2010, driven by *La Niña*, were exceptional, affecting around 3.1 million people. The *La Niña* affected weather patterns for a good 15 months²⁶. This disaster fundamentally reshaped the SNPAD and the Government of Colombia's perception of disaster response, putting it center stage, both politically and economically.

As a result of this renewed attention the GOC has increased significantly funding levels for the DGR. In addition, new alliances have formed among private sector, national and international response organizations. As stated by one informed source "before, we talked about funds in millions of Colombian pesos; today we talk about funds in billions of American dollars." This new context was acknowledged by many interviewees.

The GOC has taken the lead in the current response operations. Financial resources from the government are significant. For example, the GOC disbursed around 4.6 billion Colombian pesos (US\$ 2.3 billion²⁷) from its own sources for the emergency. This included US\$ 5 million provided to UN Agencies as part of the recovery efforts.

Current thinking is that the DGR will soon become a National Department with a broader mandate and more resources. The present emergency has made clear the need to substantially increase DGR's capacity to holistically address Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR), response and potential reconstruction.

As the Armero avalanche triggered the creation of the SNPAD, this most recent emergency is triggering major changes in the SNPAD and rapidly changing the power relations among humanitarian actors. For instance, the GOC has assumed the leadership in providing protection and assistance to victims. International appeals made for aid, are done by the Government and not under a United Nations' flash appeal, with most of the financial resources coming directly to, and from, the GOC.

International appeals are made exclusively by the President. These appeals are triggered by a combination of technical and political elements. When an international appeal is made by the President, the Ministry of Foreign Relations is in charge of requesting any international aid.

3: LEGAL AND REGULATORY FRAMEWORK – LAWS AND AGREEMENTS

There are two main legal instruments that regulate the SNPAD: Law 46-88 and decree 919-89. These two instruments were established prior to the new Colombian Constitution (1991). As a result, many of the changes introduced by the new Constitution are absent from these laws. In addition to these laws, Decree 93-98 transfers increased responsibilities to departments and municipalities when responding to disasters. To accomplish this, the SNPAD created Regional Committees (CREPAD's) and Local Committees (CLOPAD's) to serve as liaisons between the central and local systems.

These committees are challenged in the developing of their mandate. This is principally explained by the lack of training and capacity building opportunities. However, the rainy seasons and the floods caused by the present *La Niña*, there has been a big push to strengthen the CREPAD's and CLOPAD's to allow DRR actions to be locally driven²⁸.

Currently, there is a new law waiting approval by the congress to modernize the SNPAD regulatory framework. This new law has been developed over the last eight months. The first stage of the process included strong participation from concerned national and international agencies. However, during the last stage of the process and the drafting of the new law, the process was less open. As a consequence, there have been some voices raising concerns about the new law. Many of these concerns are expected to be addressed in the regulation process that will follow the law's approval.

In 2009, the GOC signed an agreement with the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (IFRC) and CRC to provide technical assistance to modernize the legal framework related to disaster relief and recovery assistance.

4: COORDINATION

The SNPAD coordinates disaster response in Colombia. In order to do this, the SNPAD created Regional Committees (CREPAD) and Local Committees (CLOPAD). These committees are the main links with the SNPAD. Organizations present on the ground, such as PASCO and local CRC,

work alongside the CREPADs and the CLOPADs. According to one informed source, "today there are 32 CREPADs more or less working, and out of the 1,100 CLOPADS that should exist, there are around 600 operating with high levels of operational limitations such as a lack of funding, technical capacity and unable to perform according to their mandate".

International aid is funneled mainly through the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MFA) and Colombia Humanitaria (CH) - see below.

The MFA, through the International Cooperation Direction Office channels international aid from other states. For the 2010-2011 emergency, the UN flash appeal system was not used. Instead, the GOC appealed directly, providing a clear message to the international community about the governmental institutional capacity to respond. It also sent a clear message about how the GOC views its sovereignty. During this emergency, most of the aid received was provided by other southern states. Meanwhile, some European countries decided not to channel resources through the MFA but through INGOs. According to one official, "generosity did not come from the rich countries", but from the South.

In November 2010, the GOC declared a state of emergency to face the crisis created by *La Niña*. To respond to the disaster, the GOC launched a campaign to acquire international and national support, called Colombia Humanitaria (CH)²⁹. Under this campaign, national and international private donations are collected to provide assistance to victims throughout the country. However, some people also underscored that the CH weakened the SNPAD headed by DGR, creating a parallel system during the emergency.

CH's campaign created a new way of approaching disaster response by encouraging people's participation through donations. CH signed agreements with Ministries and operators, such as CRC and CCD to implement projects. Some of these projects were assigned to organizations with no previous experience in disaster response.³⁰

In addition, the Presidential Agency for Social Action and International Cooperation (*Acción Social*) funneled US\$ 11.5 million from the international community to assist the affected population. *Acción Social* has a broad presence throughout the country. Using its local workers or *cogestores* on the ground, it was able to coordinate aid delivery and performed assessments during the emergency.

Acción Social works closely with DGR to mobilize national donations. These donations are delivered by CRC and CCD. Also, CH has funneled funds through *Acción Social* to implement programs such as cash for work - *empleo de emergencia*. The magnitude of the emergency caused by *La Niña* forced the GOC to use all its institutional operational capacity to respond.

During our interviews, one national informed source commented that "the international community was pressuring the GOC to act in a certain way and Colombia is a sovereign state" while one international informed source commented that "the GOC needs to recognize that there is no shame in receiving international aid". These two views reflect the type of tensions

that were common during the emergency response period and set an interesting precedent for the future.

5: FLOW OF KNOWLEDGE AND INFORMATION

IDEAM is the official source of information for the SNPAD. IDEAM works closely with the Ministry of Environment and the Autonomous Regional Corporations (*Corporaciones Autónomas Regionales – CAR*). Also, it is responsible for developing risk analysis and vulnerability assessments based on the information collected by across 11 operational areas and 2600 monitoring stations throughout the country. Based on this information, IDEAM produces risk maps on a 500,000 scale. As a result of the present emergency, from now on risk maps will be developed on a 10,000 to 25,000 scale.

IDEAM provides information to the SNPAD through the DGR. Also, it provides information related to early alerts, alerts and forecasts directly to the CLOPAD's and CREPAD's when necessary. The most important challenge for the flow of information is to link the national level with the regional and local level in a sustained way.

IDEAM is highly respected nationally and internationally for the quality of the information provided. For example, public information is available on its website about early alerts, alerts and forecast related to the different risks faced by Colombia, such as fires, flood and mudslides. Daily technical reports are produced by a multitask committee and distributed to the SNPAD and other institutions. The committee meets daily and based on the information collected, the committee makes recommendations about declaring alerts. Also, based on the risk assessment reports produced, the SNPAD is able to define where and what type of actions are needed.

A national Strategic Room (*Sala Estratégica*) has been created as a mechanism to coordinate as well as to share information among key actors. One of the main sources of information comes from the Damage Evaluation and Needs Assessment (*Evaluación de Daños y Análisis de Necesidades – EDAN*). Based on the information provided by the EDAN, requests for assistance are made by the regional and local authorities. However, the information provided by the EDAN is basically a list of damages and needs identified but it does not provide analytical tools to prioritize actions.

At a grassroots level, PASCO, OXFAM and CRC perform local needs assessments independently. They typically share their information and seek to carry out joint responses. For example, OXFAM and CRC work in partnerships in Córdoba and Atlántico. Also, CRC and PASCO work jointly on sharing warehouse infrastructure. UN organizations also work at the regional and local level through different agencies present in Colombia. For instance, the United Nations Development Program in Colombia (UNDP) is working with candidates to public positions for the election in November 2011 to include DRR actions in their proposals.

DGR, *Acción Social* and the National Administrative Department of Statistics (DANE) worked together in an integrated registry of disaster victims (*Registro Único de Damnificados – Reunidos*). Information was collected by *Acción Social's* 8,400 local workers. This information

on the geography of disaster victims is crucial for the allocation resources. This is especially important as many people affected by the emergency are also displaced by the internal conflict.

6: ACCOUNTABILITY

In Colombia, accountability is principally performed upwards, providing donors with the needed information related to the use and destination of donations.

During the 2010-2011 emergency, national authorities prioritized being able to demonstrate the lack of corruption in their aid systems. The Controller General's office (*Contraloría General de la Nación*) and the Attorney General's Office (*Procuraduría General de la Nación*), the two most important institutions to control and to regulate public actions, were involved from the beginning of the process. This strategy has proven to be successful. In addition to this, CH makes publicly available and accessible all the information related to the distribution of donations, through their website³¹.

As a consequence of the emergency caused by the recent rains, many agencies have sought to develop their downward accountability mechanisms. This is especially relevant for Colombia, as this country has a rich and vast cultural diversity, protected by the Constitution and the law. Whenever a natural disaster occurs, it is always a challenge to adequately attend different groups. For instance, during the recent response, indigenous groups received clothes and housing that were not culturally appropriate and Afro Colombian communities were not consulted over the aid deliveries that then subsequently affect them. In spite of these challenges, it is important to underscore that this topic is getting more attention from the GOC as well as the INGOs.

7: MONITORING AND EVALUATION

Monitoring and evaluation efforts are concentrated on avoiding the misuse of funds and resources rather than the effectiveness and appropriateness of relief operations. Donor driven M&E systems prevail. We found no examples of systems designed to provide accountability to disaster affected communities.

Currently, there are internal mechanisms to monitor origin, destination and use of funds channeled through MFA, CH and *Acción Social*. However such mechanisms are designed solely to avoid any type of corruption. This is especially important to the current government as promoting transparency is one of its most important political goals. INGOs and NGOs also have their own internal systems. Some INGOs have commissioned internal real time evaluations, such as the evaluation performed by OXFAM after its operations during the 2010-2011 emergency.

8: DISASTER RISK REDUCTION (DRR) INITIATIVES

Disaster preparedness and disaster risk reduction are increasingly important to the SNPAD, the GOC and the INGOs in Colombia. As stated by one informed source *"la Niña brought us a new country"*. All the actors are now fully aware of the need to increase action in DRR programs, as well as the need to strengthen local and regional structures to integrate DRR programs in public planning policies.

One of the main challenges in promoting DDR programs is that they are undervalued by both local and regional authorities. It is easy to justify action when there is an acute emergency. It is more difficult to convince regional and local authorities to allocate financial and technical resources to foster DDR activities in advance. *"When DDR actions are successful, they are not as notorious as when a disaster happens"*.

There are successful local experiences that should be used to promote and to increase awareness. For example, in November 2008, Huila's Peak volcano (*Nevado del Huila*) had a massive eruption, bigger than the Ruiz Peak's eruption (*Nevado del Ruiz*) in 1985 that destroyed Armero. In spite of this, the combination of DRR actions and a successful evacuation strategy resulted in a remarkably low death rate (12 people versus more than 20,000 in Armero).

Colombia is committed to the Hyogo Framework for Action (HFA)³². The last report 2009-2011, updated in October 2010, presents a comprehensive assessment of the advance of the country in its implementation. The next HFA update would be an important tool for assessing how the HFA could be used as an M&E instrument to be used after the 2010-2011 emergency.

Today in Colombia, authorities, international organizations and INGOs are moving forward on risk reduction, climate change adaptation, reconstruction and strengthening decentralized response mechanisms. As a result of this new context, it is essential to develop a multi-sectorial approach for DRR including natural disaster reduction and also urban risk assessment and prevention. In addition to these efforts, there has to be a strong emphasis on the necessary cultural and behavioral change related to DRR activities. This is extremely important in a country with multiple vulnerabilities and multiple sources of risks, in addition to the internal armed conflict.

Simulation exercises

In addition to disaster response operations, DGR performs simulation exercises on a regular basis. For instance, in October 2010, a third edition of a tsunami simulation took place in the Pacific region, specifically in Tumaco. The exercise was developed by the SNPAD, Nariño CREPAD and Tumaco CLOPAD. In November 2010, a major international earthquake simulation took place in Bogota³³. This simulation was supported by the International Search and Rescue Advisory Group (INSARAG) and OCHA. In July 2011, a third evacuation simulation took place in San Andres and Providencia Islands. These islands in the Caribbean region are at the mercy of

hurricanes each year. DGR and the SNPAD headed the exercise. CRC, CCD and the Colombian Air Forces participated in the simulation.

9: ROLE OF THE MILITARY

The Colombian army has a formal role in providing logistical support for disaster operations. Wherever there are no local response aid teams, army forces provide needed support. Army and police forces have different roles assigned based on the level of the disaster. There is a special protocol for the army when a national disaster occurs. The Colombian army also has a special battalion trained exclusively for disaster response. Thus the army is included as part of the humanitarian system and not as a last resort. The UN system constantly coordinates with the army, especially in areas affected by the conflict.

There was general consensus amongst those interviewed in highlighting the army's knowledge of human rights (HR) and international humanitarian law (IHL). Although some actors interviewed were concerned with the army assuming humanitarian aid roles, and jeopardizing humanitarian space.

10. CONCLUSIONS

Even on a short visit to Colombia, it is clear that there are concrete actions being implemented to respond to the changing disaster context. The new legal framework is an important step in increasing SNPAD's resilience. Local and regional authorities are emerging as the cornerstone of the system in the future. DRR and response actions are relying heavily on CREPAD's and CLOPAD's work. It is fundamentally important to increase cooperation in technical assistance focused on training and improving governance capacities at the local levels, thus enhancing integrate DRR and response in planning instruments and public policies.

Coordination among SNPAD actors was proven to be fundamental to funnel incoming international aid through different organizations to the affected areas. Joint work among DGR, the MFA, Accion Social and Colombia Humanitaria enabled them to provide needed aid throughout the country. The emergency created by the recent rains and floods has become a remarkable opportunity to make adjustments in the way in which the aid influx is managed. The process of developing a better aid delivery system is being led by the GOC in alliance with the international community and the private sector.

There are seven key lessons which can be drawn from this short case study:

First, the most important challenge for the national and international system is to work together for strengthening regional and local structures. Combining an effective decentralized response and a centralized SNPAD structure will require great effort and much political will. As the current context is changing rapidly in Colombia, new alliances and relations are emerging. In spite of the different approaches from each of the participants in the humanitarian scene, there is a common understanding of the need to combine financial and technical resources from the GOC and technical and operational assistance from the international community.

Second, the Government of Colombia, has taken full responsibility for responding to natural disasters. 37 decrees³⁴ were passed to face the multi-sectorial disaster caused during the last emergency. This is a clear example of political will, very different from the governmental position during the rainy season in 2008. The role of the state in asserting the importance of effective disaster response is central to building a better system.

Also, there was a significant increase in the funds transferred to DGR, and private resources funneled through CH's campaign, championed by the President. In addition to this, the GOC made changes in the National Development Plan for 2011 to reflect the seriousness of the emergency. These three actions, triggered by the emergency have created a new opportunity to improve Colombia's capacity to face humanitarian crises in the near future.

Third, the launching and creation of Colombia Humanitaria's campaign was a new mechanism utilized by the GOC to leverage private funds from national and international sources. The solidarity displayed by Colombians was unprecedented; around US\$ 30 million were channeled through this campaign by individuals³⁵. In July 2011, The GOC assigned US\$ 3.9 billion to face the emergency, with US\$ 2.39 billion being funneled through CH³⁶. During the interviews, many people highlighted the importance to foster solidarity among Colombians. In spite of this, there are some voices that raise concerns about promoting parallel systems that erode DGR's prominent role in DRR and response.

CH's campaign created a new way of approaching disaster response by encouraging people's participation through donations. CH signed agreements with Ministries and operators, such as CRC and CCD to implement projects. Some of these projects were assigned to organizations with no previous experience in disaster response, as the *Cajas de Compensación*. This involvement of Colombian civil society in disaster seems to be a key component in shaping a more responsive system.

Fourth, all the actors involved in the SPNAD; INGOs and UN system organizations have a unique opportunity to take a step back and reflect about the lessons learned from the last emergency. For most of the people interviewed this past emergency revealed many of the structural failures of the current system. It was a remarkable time to put into practice new initiatives and alliances. It is essential to take advantage of this window of opportunity to perform needed changes and to increase articulated actions amongst the gamut of humanitarian actors in Colombia. The first step on this direction could be to share lessons learned in an open forum. For instance, Oxfam already performed an evaluation to identify concrete lessons from the emergency for the future.

Fifth, the GOC was the main actor in leading the response to the 2010-2011 emergency. The international community's role was complementary to Colombian efforts. It is important to integrate international community technical capacity in key sectors that need attention, such as local and regional DDR strategies, using national available funds.

Sixth, private companies participated actively in mobilizing resources for emergency operations through mechanisms such as CH. Also, private campaigns were developed, such as Bancolombia³⁷ to fundraise for the response. The involvement of the private sector in the humanitarian arena in Colombia opens a new door for potential alliances in the future.

Seventh, as a result of the changes in the humanitarian field in Colombia, the international community have been called on, by the GOC, to work with the government in aligning the new funding strategy for humanitarian response and DDR with the operational and technical capacity of the international organizations, including the UN system and INGOs. The new context demands new actions to increase resilience in affected communities in the short and long term.

CONCLUSIONS FROM THE LITERATURE AND CASE STUDIES

The three case studies carried out and the literature reviewed point to a remarkable consistent set of conclusions when it comes to discerning what facilitates good cooperation between national and international disaster response systems. In summary, here are the most important conclusions.

TRUST

The key underlying factor enabling good cooperation between national and international structures is trust. Trust between the national government and the international agencies, and trust of the government and agencies by the disaster affected communities. Most of the conclusions below speak to mechanisms which either explicitly or implicitly enhance trust. Where there is no trust, cooperation is always poor and guarded.

SOVEREIGN DUTY, NOT CHARITY

Countries that have a positive disaster response regime, incorporating international assistance, also display a more open attitude to sovereignty. They see both responding to disasters and making best use of the international disaster response regime, as part of their sovereign duty and right. This attitude change is important as it can remove a lot of the stigma associated with accepting international aid, and puts it on more of a business footing than a charitable one.

CLEAR LAW

All the countries studied either have clear disaster response law or are in the act of forming such law. A common response from international agencies in all the three studies was to request clearer legislation around taxation, work permits, importation restrictions and legislation on the movement of funds. All this can be incorporated into disaster response legislation. From host governments there is also a clear expectation that if such legislation is put in place, which effectively creates privileged position for international aid agencies, those agencies must in turn be more systematic and rigorous in providing proof of their and their workers competency.

PREPARATION MATTERS

Creating and annually revising contingency plans, and jointly partaking in in-country simulation exercises to test the system are cited by many as important mechanisms both for engendering trust and for improving the effectiveness of response systems. They both allow for systems to be tested and refined and for trusting personal relationships to be developed.

SYSTEMATIC EVALUATION OF EFFICIENCY AND IMPACT

Most interviewees, across all three studies pointed to a systematic lack of rigorous evaluation of the response system. All agreed that the creation of such a system, particularly one focused both on aid efficiency and impact, was critical, especially in countries facing repeated annual disasters. It is needed to improve the effectiveness of aid and to adjust the aid system from year to year as the crisis and the aid environment evolves.

ACCOUNTABILITY

None of the countries surveyed had any systematic way of feeding information back to disaster affected communities and beneficiaries. All accountability systems were essentially from agencies to governments. As crisis response becomes more of a norm and an accepted part of sovereign duty, systems will have to be developed which allow for direct reporting to disaster affected communities.

LOCAL STRUCTURES

In all three case studies the existence of solid local government structures linking the capital city national committees with the site of relief action have proved important; not just the existence of such local structures but their effective functioning. Concerns over the lack of funding and staffing for local level coordination and response were also a constant theme.

VIBRANT CIVIL SOCIETY

All three studies exhibit a high degree of involvement of civil society in both developing and implementing disaster response, including the creation of new in-country fund raising mechanisms and the involvement of the private sector in crisis response. A vibrant civil society seems to positively complement a well resourced government response systems.

LEADERSHIP

The national disaster response system functions best where it has strong leadership and is seen as a key function of government, often through having a direct link to the office of the President or at least his/her cabinet. Particularly in times of severe disaster, the demonstration of active leadership in the disaster response system, from the country's top elected officials, makes a huge difference to the confidence citizens have in the system and the leverage the system has with line ministries and regional authorities.

WHO LEADS?

The system seems to work best where disaster response is led by the national authorities and the international institutions, UN and INGOs, play a supporting role. This of course is premised

on the issues of trust, legislation and leadership discussed earlier, but it has implications, particularly for how external agencies position themselves and their willingness to adapt and adjust their template intentional systems to suit and support the structures and methodologies of the country in question.

CLUSTERS

A specific case in point that came up frequently in our discussions was the IASC cluster approach. The reluctance of the IASC to tailor its cluster approach to mirror or complement the national coordination system was seen as, at best an irritant and more frequently as an inefficiency and a cause of discontent, effectively leading to two parallel coordinating systems where only one was needed.

INCREASING ROLE FOR DRR

Finally, in all three case studies, moves are underway to expand national systems from disaster response to include disaster risk reduction as well as the more traditional disaster preparedness. Future disaster response legal and coordination regimes should seek to incorporate these concerns in from the beginning.

REGIONAL LINKS

In both Indonesia and Colombia strong support from the regional political body (ASEAN and OAS) have enhanced local efforts in disaster response, and in turn national learning is transferred across the region through these institutions. In Mozambique this is less evident, but there strong ties do exist with South Africa. Regional political bodies can play a critical role in helping the transition for being internationally dependent to locally sufficient in disaster response.

ANNEX I PEOPLE INTERVIEWED

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- ¹⁶ National Agency for Disaster Management (BNBP). Guideline on the role of international organizations and foreign non-government organizations during emergency response. (informal translation 2 March 2011); P 9
- ¹⁷ National Agency for Disaster Management (BNBP). Guideline on the role of international organizations and foreign non-government organizations during emergency response. (informal translation 2 March 2011); P 57

¹⁸ United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction. “Indonesian President recognized as ‘UNISDR Global Champion for Disaster Risk Reduction’ at Global Platform opening ceremony.” Geneva, May 11, 2011. <http://www.unisdr.org/archive/19883>

¹⁹ Global Facility for Disaster Reduction and Recovery. “Institutional capacity and consensus building.” 2011. <http://www.gfdrr.org/gfdrr/node/64>

²⁰ Barnaby. The role of the affected state in humanitarian action: A case study on Indonesia. Ibid, 15.

²¹ Barnaby. The role of the affected state in humanitarian action: A case study on Indonesia. Ibid, 15.

²² World Bank, Global facility for Disaster Risk Reduction and Recovery. Disaster Risk Management in Latin America and the Caribbean Region: GFDRR Country Notes – Colombia. Washington DC. 2011.

²³ Gobierno de Colombia. Fondo de Adaptación invertirá \$14 billones en proyectos de infraestructura y rehabilitación de sectores afectados por temporada de lluvias. May 25, 2011. Accessed August 6th, 2011. Available from <http://reliefweb.int/node/403811>

²⁴ Eight protocols were developed. They are all available in Spanish. Sistema Nacional de Prevención de Desastres (SNPAD), Protocols. Accessed July 30th, 2011. Available from http://www.sigpad.gov.co/sigpad/paginas_detalle.aspx?idp=91

²⁵ This diagram is part of the “Documento País- Country document 2010” developed by the European Commission and the DGR. Estado Actual, perspectivas y prioridades para los preparativos ante desastres en Colombia. Accessed August 1st, 2011. Available from <http://www.sigpad.gov.co/sigpad/archivos/documentos/DPAD/Documento%20pa%C3%ADs%202010.pdf> . We understand the structure was revised by Decree 4702 of 2010, but were unable to obtain a copy of the revised structure

²⁶ This information is updated by the DGR and presented by Colombia Humanitaria. Accessed August 2nd, 2011. Available from <http://www.colombiahumanitaria.gov.co/Cifras/Paginas/ConoceCifrasCH.aspx>

²⁷ Weekly report, La Niña, July 22th, 2011. Available from <http://www.colombiahumanitaria.gov.co/Cifras/Paginas/Cifras.aspx>

²⁸ On this regard, Oxfam Colombia developed the report “¿Cómo evitar otro desastre? Lecciones de la ola invernal en Colombia” April 29th, 2011. Available from <http://www.oxfam.org/es/policy/colombia-inundaciones-como-evitar-otro-desastre>

²⁹ More information about Colombia Humanitaria is available from <http://www.colombiahumanitaria.gov.co/Paginas/ColombiaHumanitariaEnglish.aspx>

³⁰ Cajas de Compensación are institution created to collect resources from companies. They provide services to employers such as subsidies, access to sports facilities and a myriad of benefits. These services are funded basically by companies’ payments and small fees paid by employees.

³¹ For additional information about public reports access <http://www.colombiahumanitaria.gov.co/>

³² Documents related to the Hyogo's framework implementation. Accessed July 30th, 2011 Available from http://www.sigpad.gov.co/sigpad/paginas_detalle.aspx?idp=191

³³ More information about the earthquake simulation exercise in Bogotá available from <http://simexbogota.co/en/about-us>

³⁴ The 37 decrees are available in Spanish. Available from <http://www.colombiahumanitaria.gov.co/Apoyo/Paginas/Decretos.aspx>

³⁵ Weekly reports inform about the amount of money mobilized by Colombia Humanitaria. Accessed August 6th, 2011. Available from <http://www.colombiahumanitaria.gov.co/Cifras/Paginas/ConoceCifrasCH.aspx>

³⁶ Information about funds received by CH <http://www.colombiahumanitaria.gov.co/Cifras/Paginas/Cifras.aspx>

³⁷ Bancolombia, one of the biggest Banks in Colombia donates COP10 (USD\$0.005) for each COP10,000 (USD\$5) utilized by its clients using Debit and Credit Cards. To the date, COP177Millions (around USD\$93,000). Accessed August 11th, 2011. Available from http://www.facebook.com/bancolombia?sk=app_219334751418711