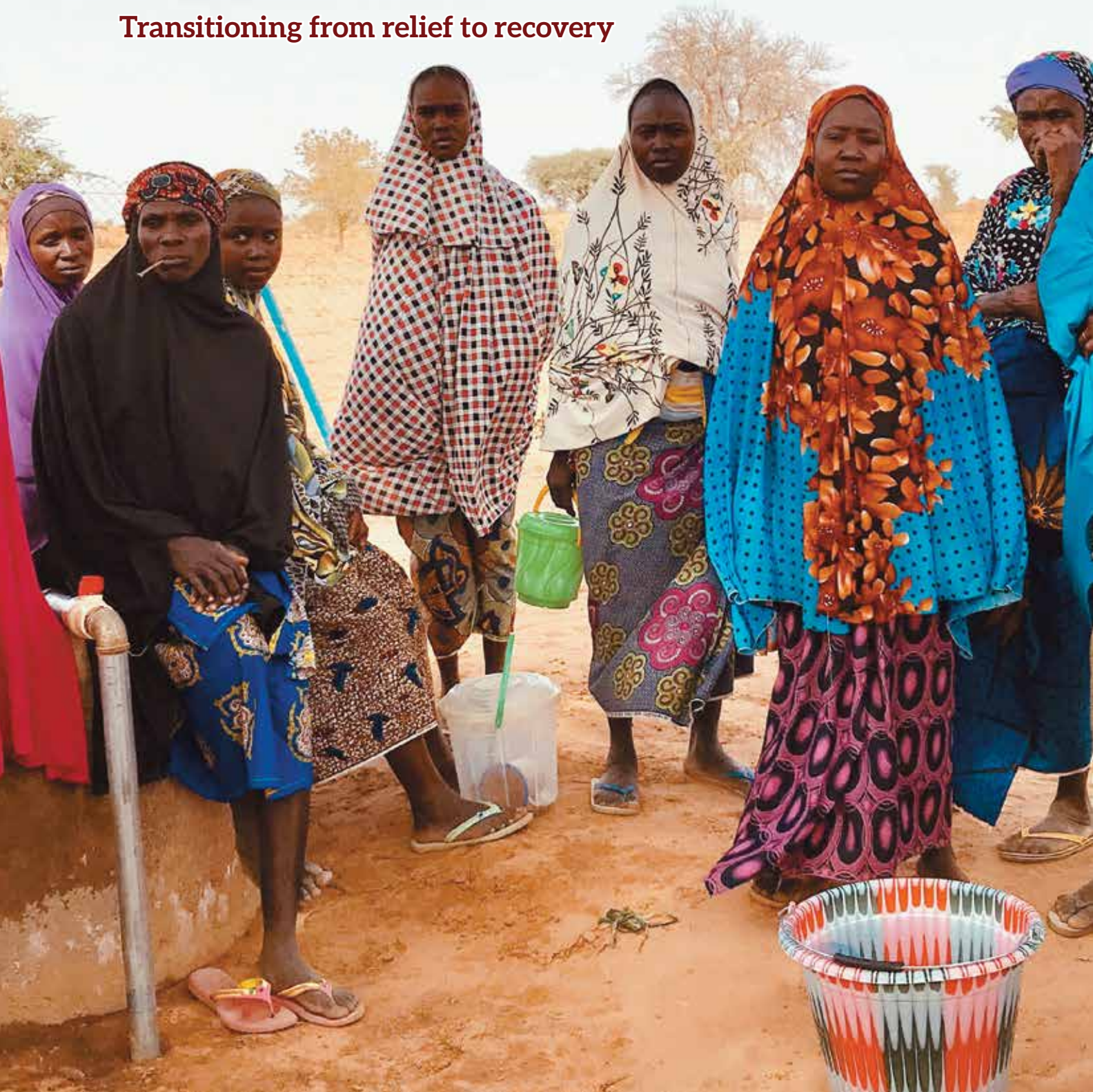
Empowered lives.
Resilient nations.

Baseline study on disaster recovery in Africa

Transitioning from relief to recovery



Acknowledgements

This study was commissioned by the Disaster Risk Reduction and Recovery for Building Resilience Team (DRT) of the UNDP Crisis Bureau (CB) with funding from the Government of Japan. It was prepared by the independent experts Asha Kambon and Luis Rolando Duran Vargas. The CDT provided supervision and technical guidance towards this process, with contributions from Krishna Vatsa, Lucile Gingembre, Jeannette Fernandez Castro, Chiara Mellucci, Stefanie Afonso and Rita Missal.

UNDP partners with people at all levels of society to help build nations that can withstand crisis, and drive and sustain the kind of growth that improves the quality of life for everyone. On the ground in nearly 170 countries and territories, we offer global perspective and local insight to help empower lives and build resilient nations

Baseline study on disaster recovery in Africa

Transitioning from relief to recovery

Table of Contents

List of Figures

List of Tables

Executive Summary

Baseline Study on Recovery in Africa: Transitioning from Relief to Recovery[1] seeks to present a comprehensive review of post-disaster recovery in Africa. The study is meant to contribute to an enhanced understanding and knowledge of recovery processes in the continent. Ultimately, it aims to provide insights on recovery management, policies and programmes to inform and improve future recovery processes in Africa.

Conceptual approach to Recovery

Recovery is defined as "the restoring or improving of livelihoods and health, as well as economic, physical, social, cultural and environmental assets, systems and activities, of a disaster-affected community or society, aligning with the principles of sustainable development and "build back better", to avoid or reduce future disaster risk" (UNDRR, 2017). Inherent in this notion of recovery is the notion of resilience, defined as the ability of a system, community or society exposed to hazards to resist, absorb, accommodate, adapt to, transform and recover from the effects of a hazard in a timely and efficient manner, including through the preservation and restoration of its essential basic structures and functions through risk management.

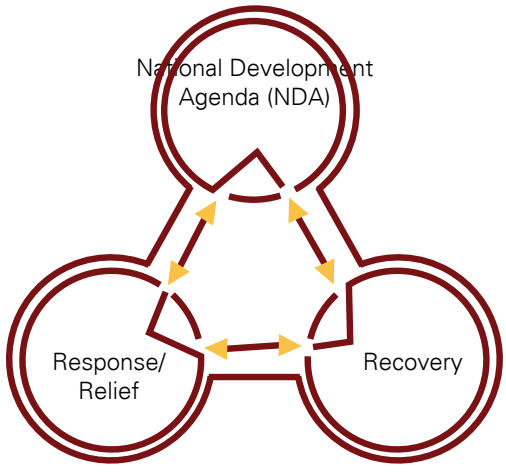
The two notions together formed the framework used by this study to evaluate the processes and in some cases the measures with which governments were engaged following a disaster.

Findings

Much has occurred to shape and transform the Disaster Risk Management (DRM) landscape in Africa over the last decade or so (2005 - 2017). The Regional Economic Communities (RECs), the Africa Union, the UN system and other international development partners have played their part in assisting national platforms and systems for DRM to develop. However, post-disaster recovery in Africa, as a systematic process within DRM systems and policies, is not yet consolidated, and the approach in the region is still focused on humanitarian response rather than sustainable recovery and risk reduction. In essence, the transition from disaster response to risk-centered recovery approaches is still in the process of consolidation, with clear governmental commitments.

National experiences show that several aspects of the risk continuum, where a transition from the response to recovery is supposed to happen, are not easily integrated into existing national and financial structures established for the purpose of fulfilling the National Development Agenda (NDA). It is the global experience that when risk is properly planned for as part of the NDA,

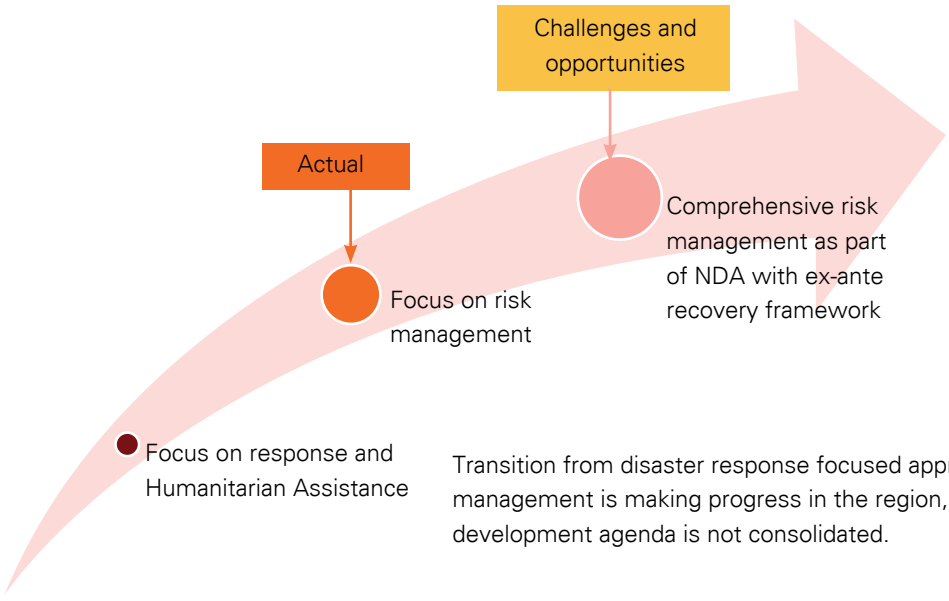
Figure 1. How Recovery Fits into a Positive DRM Framework



Positive Disaster Risk Management exists when Recovery is strongly driven by the NDA and risk is understood and planned for.

[1] The baseline study was meant to capture data and knowledge covering the last decade, on the state of the management of recovery processes in Africa. The Study did not seek to evaluate the success, or lack thereof, of recovery initiatives in the region.

Figure 2: Illustration of where the Africa region is positioned on the transition curve from relief to recovery



Transition from disaster response focused approaches to risk management is making progress in the region, but integration to the development agenda is not consolidated.

recovery too is adequately included within the DRM system. When the national systems do not reflect such an appreciation of risk, inclusion of recovery presents a great challenge for the DRM agenda and the NDA.

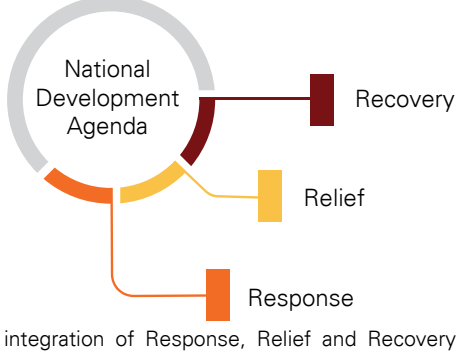
Institutional mandates and regulatory frameworks for DRR do not include recovery as a process, or only partially define it.

The organizational, functional and financial structures for recovery differ from those of response—with more operational and humanitarian characteristics—whereas the transition from a state of emergency to a recovery process implies a substantial shift in responsible agencies, procedures and needs, for which there are generally no ex-ante mechanisms in place. Some exceptions are Ethiopia, Malawi and Mozambique, where institutional structures exist for recovery within national systems—while they are not a guarantee of an effective transition between relief and recovery. In fact, not all African governments have been able to turn the corner from relief to recovery. Approximately 45%, or five out of the eleven countries surveyed, had no recovery institution in place. For those who have established such institutions they were still in the early stages.

Finally, the notion of recovery as including both structural and non-structural aspects is not yet commonly adopted by the region. In fact, most of the countries studied continue to focus mainly on infrastructure repairs or reconstruction, although in many cases, the process is called recovery.

Partially the explanation lies in the pressure to rebuild infrastructure bringing visible, tangible and immediate results highly covered by the media and/or in national or local politics, and this continues to shape the recovery agenda in many countries.

Figure 3: State of Recovery in the African Region



Weak integration of Response, Relief and Recovery in the NDA; The NDA weakly drives the post disaster recovery.

Source: Authors' illustration

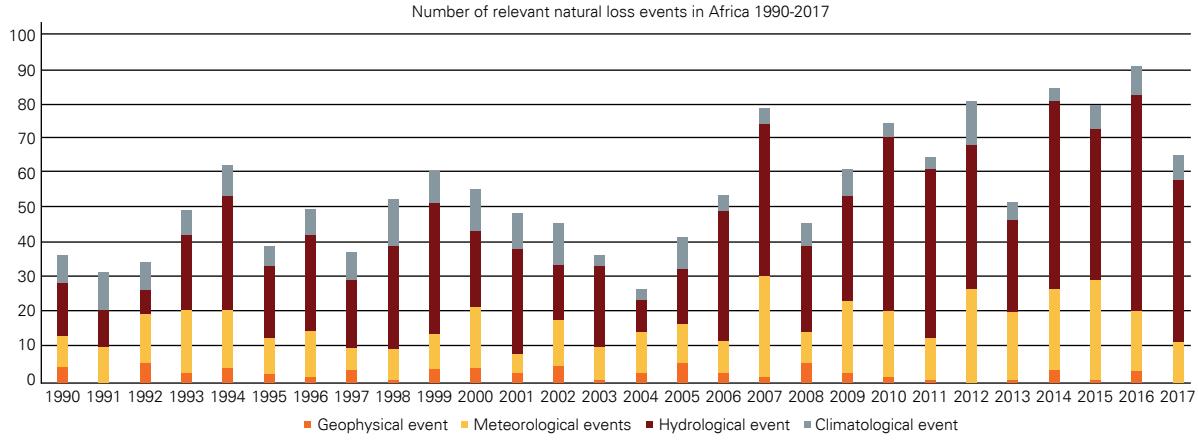
Chapter 1. Introduction

Rationale for the Study

The importance of recovery is increasing as the number of people affected by disasters around the world continues to rise. Between 2000 and 2012, 2.9 billion people have been affected by disasters, 1.2 million have been killed and these events resulted in damages of1.7 trillion US dollars.[2] Africa is not exempt from the trends.

the recovery function remains relevant and necessary. Such importance is well recognized by international frameworks such as the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction (2015-30), which includes recovery as its priority 4: "Enhancing disaster preparedness for effective.

Response and to "Build Back Better" in recovery, rehabilitation, and reconstruction".



Source: Munich Re, NatCatSERVICE copyright 2018 Munich Re

Since 1970, the region has experienced more than 2,000 natural disasters, with just under half taking place in the last decade, as the major crises in the Sahel (2004, 2009, 2012), the Horn of Africa (2008) and South and Eastern Africa (2016) have demonstrated. Other factors, such as the increasing intensity and frequency of disasters due to climate change, rapidly growing urbanization, and environmental degradation pose additional challenges and exacerbate the impact of natural hazards.

Despite ongoing and expanding efforts to minimize hazard impacts through risk reduction,

The Framework recommends facilitating the link between relief, rehabilitation, and development, and using opportunities during the recovery phase to develop capacities that reduce disaster risk in the short, medium and long term through various measures.

Governments play a key role in effectively planning recovery processes, providing technical and financial resources and coordinating the recovery, while ensuring that the "build back better" concept is applied in post disaster recovery processes. As countries are increasingly becoming vulnerable to the consequences of

[2] UNIDDR info-graphics.

natural hazards and climate change, there is also a growing awareness among governments of the need to enhance their capacities in recovery management.

Preparedness for recovery has therefore become an important priority for many national governments. UNDP, together with other partners as the World Bank and the European Union, has been promoting work in this area over the past five years to ensure that countries have the necessary capacities to manage recovery.

Strengthening national capacities in recovery management and setting up the enabling institutional, policy and financial frameworks for inclusive, effective and transparent recovery processes require qualitative information about the actual situation in the countries, best practices, challenges and opportunities, to provide guidance and support to national efforts. However, such knowledge in the region is not systematically collected, analysed and translated into best practices and lessons learnt to support the practice. For this reason and to support future efforts in preparedness for recovery, UNDP considered it necessary to conduct regional research on recovery in Africa, aimed to provide evidence-based guidance on different aspects of disaster recovery and to raise awareness of the benefits of pre-disaster recovery planning.

Purpose of the Study

The Baseline Study seeks to present a comprehensive review of the situation of post-disaster recovery in Africa over the last decade and enhance the understanding and knowledge of recovery processes in the continent. The Study does not intend to evaluate recovery initiatives in Africa but, rather, provide insights on recovery management, policies and programs to inform and improve future recovery processes in the region.

The Study is comprised of two main components. The first one provides an overview of the post-disaster recovery processes in the region by looking at four primary areas specifically:

a. Recovery policies, including vision and principles at country and regional level;
b. General practices/experiences in recovery planning and management at the national and regional levels;
c. Participation of various stakeholders, such as international agencies, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and private sector in recovery;
d. Overall allocation of financial resources for recovery from government, bilateral and multilateral agencies.

The information collected in the above areas also provides an overall perspective of the recovery management capacity at national and regional levels by focusing on: i. the institutional arrangements for recovery at both national and regional levels; ii. the space and place of recovery within the DRR system in the country; and iii. the role played by regional and inter-governmental organizations in recovery.[3]

The second component of the study uses country case studies that explore in greater depth how recovery was implemented after a specific disaster event, how the recovery programmes were developed, financed and implemented. This aspect of the research will seek to answer the following questions:

- How does the institutional set-up for recovery fit into the framework of the DRM context of the country?
- Are there any national capacities available for recovery (assessment, planning, implementation)?
- How is recovery supported through regular government programs—which are the linkages between recovery and the country's regular development activities?
- How has the transition between the humanitarian response and the recovery phase been undertaken at the country level?

[3] The intention of the researchers was to establish a framework for data collection that could be replicated in the future, thus allowing for the observation of change.

Methodological Approach

The information contained in the Study has been extrapolated from a thorough literature review covering the following countries: Angola, Burkina Faso, Cabo Verde, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda and Uganda. A more in-depth analysis of those countries that have experienced relatively large recovery processes in the region was also undertaken (namely: Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, Nigeria and Uganda).

The literature review has been used to prepare the *first component* of the Study. In order to systematise the information collected, a set of data extraction tools were developed. The data extraction tools were constructed using both simple yes/no answers and more complex gradings. In addition, the tools allowed for comment, explanatory information and schematic representation of the findings .

The *second component* focuses on the information collected through in-depth case studies, including field visits to Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, Nigeria and Uganda. This allowed for the collection of primary and secondary data, including interviews with relevant stakeholders. A qualitative research methodology was used, and the researchers produced a guided interview questionnaire (see Annex 4) covering several specific areas: Understanding of Recovery; Post-Disaster Needs Assessment (PDNA); Institutional Arrangements for Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR)/Recovery; Recovery Policy and Guidelines; Financial Mechanisms for Recovery; Monitoring, Evaluation and Reporting; Information and Communications.

To ensure validity of the data collected, data source-triangulation was used, during which the researchers made sure the data remained the same in different contexts. Participants for the study were chosen using purposeful sampling in contrast to the probabilistic sampling technique. Reputational and snowball sampling were the selected techniques used to identify key informants. In-depth interviews were held following the questionnaire which was adjusted accordingly during the interview process.

Countries were selected based on the experience and scale of the recovery processes that were implemented. The field visits were undertaken in coordination with the UNDP CDT at Headquarters (HQ) and the Regional Service Centre for Africa in Addis Ababa. UNDP Country Offices (COs) of the selected countries also took part in the visits. Interviews were scheduled and conducted by UNDP country office staff with the guidance of researchers.

A list of key informants from regional national and local authorities, international partners, Non-Governmental Organisations/Civil Society Organisations (NGOs/CSOs), communities, and selected private sector entities is included as Annex 3.

The overall time frame of the study covers the last decade (2005-2015) and the method of data analysis is descriptive.

Chapter 2. Conceptual Approach to Recovery

Recovery is defined as "the restoring or improving of livelihoods and health, as well as economic, physical, social, cultural and environmental assets, systems and activities, of a disaster-affected community or society, aligning with the principles of sustainable development and "build back better", to avoid or reduce future disaster risk" (UNRISD, 2017). Inherent to this notion of recovery is the notion of resilience, defined as the ability of a system, community or society exposed to hazards to resist, absorb, accommodate, adapt to, transform and recover from the effects of a hazard in a timely and efficient manner, including through the preservation and restoration of its essential basic structures and functions through risk management.

This study used these two notions, recovery and resilience, as the conceptual framework to measure to which extent the governments were engaged in the processes following a disaster.

The study acknowledges that recovery does not solely pursue a physical outcome but also covers social processes and policies that address social and economic recovery. The post-disaster period is an opportunity to "build back better": mitigate and reduce future physical damages and effects on socio-economical assets. Disasters should thus be viewed as a unique opportunity for change—building capacity for recovery while pursuing long-term sustainable development (Mileti, 1999, pp. 229, 236, 238).

UNDP's approach to recovery

UNDP defines recovery as a "transformative process through which households and communities rebuild their assets, restore their livelihoods and strengthen their capacities to manage the impacts of future crisis". Recovery is an inclusive set of interventions which improves the well-being of women and men, boys and girls, and people with disabilities who are affected by a crisis. Recovery seeks to build the resilience of communities in the aftermath of crisis.

Recovery aims to restore basic services and facilities, economic stability, physical assets, infrastructure and important socio-cultural and environmental features of communities and living conditions. Fundamental to UNDP's conceptual framework for recovery is the application of principles that reduce the risk of future events, decrease the vulnerability of impacted populations, promote 'building back better' and ensure the sustainability of recovery efforts.

Recovery encompasses a huge range of activities, and successful recovery efforts require efficient coordination across an array of sectors and partners in the process. Recovery processes should be led by national and local governments and their sector ministries and agencies with support from international humanitarian and development organizations, United Nations agencies, civil society organizations and non-governmental organizations. Amid this wide variety of actors and interests supporting recovery, it is particularly important that affected communities are provided the space to participate in local rebuilding processes and are able to defend their priorities and vision for their lives, future safety and wellbeing. Inclusive processes, which give affected populations a voice in the planning, design and implementation of recovery efforts, have proved to generate greater success, higher satisfaction and sustainable outcomes.

[4] ISDR. 2009. Terminology on Disaster Risk Reduction; EU, UN, WB. 2013. Post-Disaster Needs Assessment Guide: Volume A.

UNDP's Mandate in Recovery

UNDP's mandate to conduct operational activities in disaster mitigation, prevention and preparedness was laid out by the United Nations General Assembly in 1997 (A/RES/52/12B, paragraph 16, December 1997) and an additional mandate to ensure inter-agency recovery preparedness was added by the United Nations Emergency Relief Coordinator in 2006. Within the scope of these mandates, UNDP has provided sound leadership in the field of disaster recovery for many years, which includes leadership in assessment, planning, programming, coordination and capacity building. UNDP champions the need to credibly address Early Recovery in humanitarian contexts and chairs the Cluster Working Group on Early Recovery (UNDP, 2015).

Recovery efforts should begin in the immediate aftermath of a crisis—during the relief phase itself—and continue until full recovery is achieved. UNDP's approach involves planning for recovery in stages – which are referred to as early, medium and long-term recovery.

Early Recovery addresses recovery needs during the humanitarian phase. It is an integrated, inclusive and coordinated approach to gradually turn the dividends of humanitarian action into sustainable crisis recovery, resilience building and development opportunities. Using an early recovery approach is crucial for the community to recover and build its resilience as quick as possible. Such an approach could include restoring local government capacities, reviving livelihoods, strengthening basic social services and addressing social cohesion and community security concerns.[5]

Early recovery takes place during a transition period that represents a vital bridge between emergency relief and longer-term development. It focuses on quick interventions, such as Cash for Work or Food for Work. In the medium-term, interventions aim at rebuilding shelter, infrastructure and livelihoods; and in the long-term, work toward reinforcing government capacities and reducing the risk of future disasters becomes the focus. However, interventions that support national government efforts to coordinate and plan recovery more efficiently, could already take place in the early days after the disaster—or even during the humanitarian phase—and continue until the end of the recovery period.

[5] See discussion in the internal document *Implementing Early Recovery: Background Note for IASC Principals, Recommendations on Strengthening Early Recovery.* Global Cluster on early response to these demands requires a clear road map, an efficient, well-organized process, knowledge gained from past failures and successes, rapid decision-making and implementation capabilities and skilled coordination.

Chapter 3. Africa's Climate and Disaster Risk

According to the United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction (UNDRR), Africa comprises half of the world's most risk-prone countries and is experiencing a rising number of disasters. The continent's progression towards sustainable development requires that government and development actors recognize and react to the importance of disaster risk management (DRM). Historically, a pattern of progress and setbacks has occurred, where droughts and floods—two of the most common natural hazards on the continent—have caused significant displacement of populations, losses in agriculture and infrastructure, and present challenges to planning in the face of increasing urbanization. All of these have negative impacts on the continent's development achievements (UNDRR, 2015). In Sub-Saharan Africa, "internal climate migrants" could number over 85 million, representing up to four per cent of the region's total population[6].

The Action Programme for the Implementation of the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030 in Africa has detected common hazards that trigger disasters like droughts, floods, cyclones, earthquakes, epidemics, as well as environmental degradation and technological hazards. Climate change and variability have exacerbated the frequency and intensity of hydro-meteorological hazards. Exposure to such hazards and vulnerability to disasters is increasing due in part to unplanned urbanization and human settlements, unsustainable land use and infrastructure stress. Environmental degradation, poverty and conflict further aggravate the risks and reduce the coping capacity and resilience of communities.

The World Bank (2016), in its Strategic Framework 2016-2020, recognized that the development gains of the continent in the last years have been seriously threatened by climate and disaster risks, impacting 10 million people on average every year since 1970. In 2016, El Niño impacted east and south Africa and placed 11 million children at risk of hunger, water stress and disease (UNICEF). Future trends predict that these risks could drive 43 million Africans below the poverty line by 2030 (World Bank, 2014).

Fysh (2016) wrote that nearly two disasters of significant proportions have been recorded every week in sub-Saharan Africa since 2000. Water, weather and climate hazards, notably floods and drought, dominate the region's disaster profile, affecting around 12.5 million people per year.

The current temperatures in Eastern Africa are increasing and may contribute to the current drought conditions. However, the region also has large year-to-year natural variability (Otto and van Aalst, 2017). The situation in Kenya became so dire during the last dry season that the national government declared drought as a national disaster, with 2.7 million people nationwide considered risking starvation (CWS, 2017).

Overall, estimates indicate that modelled flood mortality risk has grown consistently since 1980 (UNDRR, 2011) in sub-Saharan Africa, because population growth has not been accompanied by appropriate vulnerability-reduction mechanisms.

According to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) (GAR 2015), "climate change is very likely to have an overall negative effect on yields of major cereal crops across Africa, with strong regional variability in the degree of yield reduction" (IPCC, 2014).

[6] World Bank Group, 2018. Groundswell: Preparing for internal climate migration
https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/bitstream/handle/10986/29461/GroundswellPN1.pdf?sequence=6&isAllowed=y

Figure 4: Flood hot spot markings in emerging markets

Source: GAR 2015. Swiss Re, 2012.

Trends in urbanization

Based on EM-DAT database, the World Bank (2016) has found that African cities have been impacted by drought, epidemics, earthquakes, cyclones and storms, floods and extreme temperature events. Floods were the most damaging urban disaster, responsible for more than 90 per cent of monetary disaster damages and accounting for one-third of the disaster-affected population (Wisner & Pelling, 2009).

Africa is the fastest urbanizing continent in the world, and thus, the hazard exposure of urban populations is significantly increasing. According to UN-HABITAT (2010), the pace of 3.4 per cent of urban growth will lead to an urban population of 1.2 billion people on the continent by 2050, which means that 60 per cent of all Africans will be living in cities. "Africa's largest ten cities are projected to grow 50 per cent over the current decade. An extreme example is Ouagadougou in Burkina Faso, where the population is expected to increase by 81 per cent in the next ten years, going from 1.9 million in 2010 to 3.4 million in 2020. By 2025, the largest African cities are expected to be located mainly in the region, and the largest agglomerations will be in coastal areas (Ruocco et al, 2015).

These urban trends, characterized by rapid growth and lack of urban planning, are amplifying exposure and vulnerability. The increase of informal settlements and irregular land-use are inspiring informal settlers to occupy the most disaster-prone areas, such as low-lying coastal areas, river channels, underbridges, steep hillsides, and dump sites, among others. According to UN-HABITAT (2013), Africa is the region with the highest proportion (62 %) of inhabitants living in slum conditions.

Africa's climate profile

Rainfall patterns in Africa are linked to the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ), which moves in a southerly direction during the northern hemisphere winter, and in a northerly direction during the northern hemisphere summer.

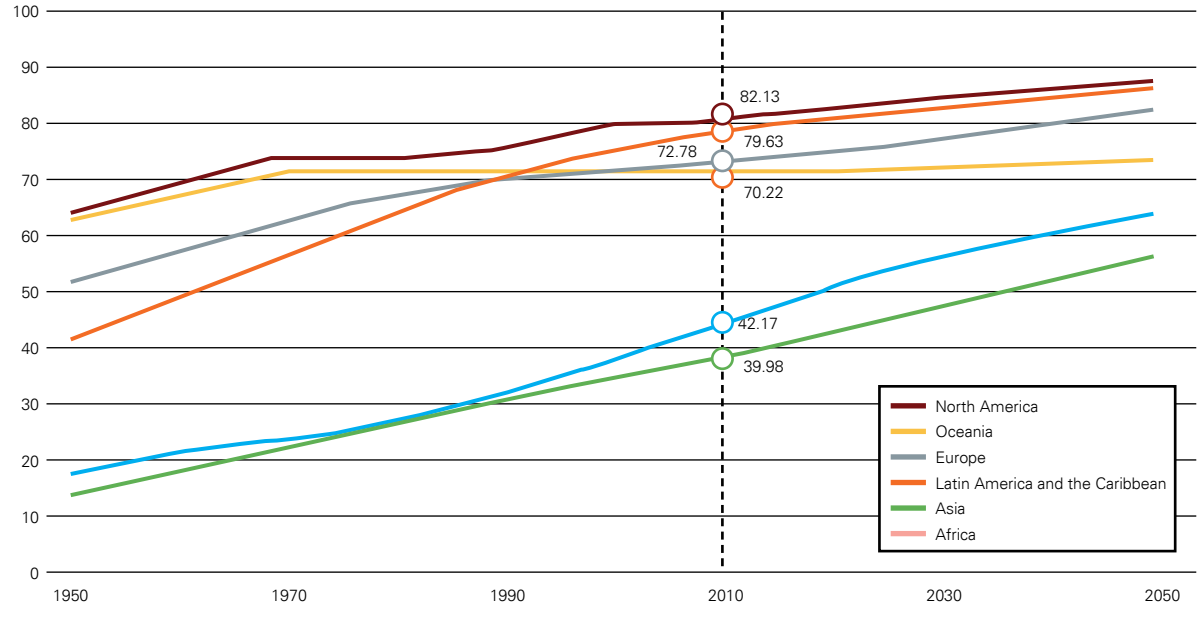
Many extreme hydro-meteorological events on the continent may be linked to the El Niño

[5] See discussion in the internal document *Implementing Early Recovery: Background Note for IASC Principals, Recommendations on Strengthening Early Recovery.* Global Cluster on early response to these demands requires a clear road map, an efficient, well-organized process, knowledge gained from past failures and successes, rapid decision-making and implementation capabilities and skilled coordination.

Figure 5: Annual loss in relation to capital investment

Source: GAR, 2015. UNDRR with data from the Global Risk Assessment and the World Bank

Figure 6: Urban growth in geographical regions



Source: GAR, 2015. UNDESA, 2014.

Southern Oscillation phenomena. El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) is a quasi-periodic climate pattern that occurs across the tropical Pacific Ocean on average every five years. It is characterized by warming or cooling of the Pacific Ocean's surface temperature, known as El Niño and La Niña, respectively. The ENSO weather phenomena are said to cause severe impact on the global climate.

The zones affected by these phenomena are:

1. **West Africa:** the northern migration of the ITCZ brings heavy rains along the West African coast from July to September. On the dry grounds of the Sahel, intense rainfall can quickly lead to flooding, but the rains are not as damaging in the coastal regions, which receive regular rainfall over an extended period.

2. **East Africa:** due to its equatorial position, the high grounds in East Africa see flooding during two rainy seasons when the ITCZ moves north between February and May and southwards from October to December. Since the distance covered by the ITCZ is large in East Africa, the amount of rain is distributed over a larger area, leading to less intense rainy seasons than in West Africa.

3. **Southern Africa:** Southern Africa has a single rainy season with frequent flooding linked to the southerly movement of the ITCZ from November to February. Also, the region is subject to occasional but torrential rains and flash floods punctuating the normally arid and semi-arid conditions.

4. **Central Africa:** Central Africa's climate is both influenced by its proximity to the equator and the movement of the ITCZ. The interface of the warm air with dry, stable air forms clouds and rains, which occur as a major seasonal feature and intense localized thunderstorms.

Floods

Seventeen of the 52 largest trans-boundary river systems in the world are in Africa, in addition to 160 major freshwater lakes. The most prominent river systems are the Niger, Senegal, and Volta rivers in West Africa; the Congo River and Lake Chad Basin in central Africa; the Nile in East Africa; as well as the Zambezi, Limpopo, and Orange River in southern Africa. In addition, there are several smaller rivers, many of which are seasonal. Most parts of these rivers are unregulated, and seasonal floods occur frequently. Notably, the densely populated delta regions of the major river systems, such as the Niger and Zambezi deltas, suffer from major floods. The impact is exacerbated by weak flood protection, insufficient urban drainage systems and increased runoff due to land degradation.

Flash floods—especially in urban areas— can impact any region after extreme rainfall. Urban floods, however, are a constant threat throughout the continent. Rapidly growing urban areas are often situated in low-lying river deltas or coastal

areas directly exposed to sea-level rise, coastal surge, and inundation.

Droughts

Droughts occur predominately in semi-arid and sub-humid areas of the Sahel countries, the Horn of Africa and southern Africa. In these regions, impacts are particularly large due to a reliance on rain-fed agriculture and pastoralism. Drought, triggered by insufficient precipitation over an extended period, has a cyclical pattern. This is occurring at increasingly higher frequencies due to deforestation, land cover changes, and unsustainable land management. Droughts have the most pronounced impact on food security, affecting millions of vulnerable people every year. The three most affected zones are:

1. **West Africa:** The Sahel region is a semi-arid transition zone between the Sahara Desert in the north and the more humid Savannah region in the south stretching from Mauritania in the west to Djibouti in the east. The Sahel has a very short growing season during three rainy months and is highly vulnerable to climate shocks due to its limited crop production.

2. **East Africa:** The Horn of Africa is frequently affected by widespread and devastating droughts. The 2017 drought is considered the most devastating in the last 60 years.

3. **Southern Africa:** This region includes the arid and semi-arid regions of Mozambique, Malawi, South Africa, Namibia and Botswana. Prolonged periods of drought impact major agricultural areas.

Cyclones and storms

Cyclones and tropical storms affect countries on the southeastern coast of the continent along the Indian Ocean. Approximately 12 tropical cyclones form in the Southwest Indian Ocean basin each year, of which approximately 25 per cent make landfall. Mostly affecting Madagascar, Mozambique and some Indian Ocean islands (such as Mauritius and the Comoros archipelago), storms account for approximately 35 per cent of damages and losses in Africa. Most of these damages take place during the peak cyclone season, which runs from November to May.

Epidemics

From 1970–2014, Africa has been exposed to 766 epidemic disasters, accounting for 18 per cent of total African disaster-related deaths (second behind droughts) and three per cent of the disaster-affected population. The most frequently reported epidemics include cholera, meningitis, measles, viral hemorrhagic fevers, plague and dengue. Underlying factors include weak public infrastructure, inadequate access to clean water and sanitation, limited access to primary health services, insufficient public awareness of prevailing health risks and weak health systems with limited capacity identification and response.

Earthquakes, volcanoes, and landslides

Less common than floods and drought, seismic risk is nonetheless a threat to Africa. Countries along the Rift Valley, stretching from Eritrea to Mozambique, are particularly vulnerable to earthquakes. Also, along the Rift Valley and on Indian Ocean islands, several volcanoes are known to be active, including Mount Nyiragongo in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Fogo in Cape Verde, and Mount Karthala on the Comoros. As was demonstrated by the 2004 Indian Ocean tsunami, low-lying countries along the coast of the Indian Ocean are exposed to tsunami hazards. In countries with hilly terrain and high levels of rainfall, landslide risk is high due to widely prevalent soil erosion, deforestation, and unsustainable land management.

With Africa's heavy reliance on agriculture, subsistence farming and pastoralism remain the most affected by land degradation, which results from soil erosion (sometimes leading to landslides), deforestation and unsustainable land management. Land degradation is a leading driver of increasing landslide hazards across Africa. Degradations such as deforestation, overgrazing, and urbanization in mountainous or hilly areas, all enhance the risk of landslides. These factors contribute to the instability of an earthen slope and just one trigger, such as a heavy downpour, can initiate the failure of an entire hillside.

Chapter 4. Post-Disaster Recovery Processes in Africa

In order to gain a deeper insight into the African region's involvement with post disaster recovery measures, the Baseline study examined four primary areas:

a. Recovery policies, including vision and principles at country and regional levels;
b. General practices/experiences in recovery planning and management at the national and regional levels;
c. Participation of various stakeholders, such as international agencies, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and private sector in recovery;
d. Overall allocation of financial resources for recovery from government, bilateral and multilateral agencies.

As noted in section 2, the study conducted a desk review of 11 countries to gather information. Regarding regional policies, results of which are presented schematically in table 3.1, the data collected suggest that the Africa region has been well supported by regional institutions, for instance the AUC, the Regional Economic Communities (RECs) and their development partners, in articulating a clear vision and principles for recovery. The policies articulate a paradigmatic shift from the narrow confines of DRR to a broader vision of DRM which includes recovery. Priorities for action identified building resilience, strengthening financing mechanisms for recovery and supporting the strengthening of legislation at the national level.

When experience in recovery planning and management at the national and regional level was examined, a positive picture emerged, as presented in table 3.2. Countries were graded from 1 to 3, with one being no experience, two suggesting at least one experience at managing and planning recovery and three the strongest, suggesting that countries had demonstrated evidence of integration of recovery planning into national development plans. The smallest proportion of countries studied (18%) had no experience in recovery planning, eighty-one per cent (81%) have had at least one experience managing and planning recovery; and a fairly large proportion of the countries,72%, demonstrated some evidence of integration of recovery planning into national and regional development plans.

Another measure of the research was to rank countries according to whether or not they had a permanent recovery entity which allowed inclusive participation, graded as follows: 1 - if they had semi-permanent structure for collaboration in place; 2- if irregular meetings were held; 3 and 4 if no collaboration was ongoing. The details can be found in table 3.3.

Three different types of entities were identified with which the government could engage collaboration: International Agencies / Development Partners, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and the Private Sector. Regarding the private sector, 55% of countries indicated no collaboration with the private sector and another 27% indicated that irregular meetings were held. In the case of international partners, 63% had permanent structures for collaboration with NGOs and 54% had semi-permanent structures. On a positive note, no state indicated that it did not have any collaboration with NGOs.

Involvement in financing for recovery, detailed in table 2.4, suggested that there could be four sources of financing: 1. government budget allocation, 2. bilateral agencies/development partners, 3. multilateral agencies and 4. regional funds for disasters. The evidence suggested that almost all countries used financing for recovery from all sources available except regional disaster

funds. Only 27% had access to regional disaster funds for recovery, and of the countries examined, these were Niger, Nigeria and Rwanda.

The analysis of the data led the researchers to conclude that:

1. **Over the last decade, much has occurred to shape and transform the Disaster Risk Management landscape in Africa**

Disaster risk management, defined as "the systematic process of using administrative directives, organizations, and operational skills and capacities to implement strategies, policies and improved coping capacities in order to lessen the adverse impacts of hazards and the possibility of disaster", has been led in the Africa region between 2005 and 2017 by the African Union Commission and its Working Group (AWG) on DRR. The AUC has been supported by the UN system and other international development partners.

The commitment of the countries that endorsed the Hyogo Framework for Action, and later the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030, is visible in general terms, considering that many efforts have been made to adopt a more comprehensive approach to disaster and risk. The support of multi and bilateral organizations at both regional and national levels has also played a key role in the development of modern DRM policies. The cases of Mozambique, with the DRM law adopted in 2014, Angola's DRM Strategic Plan in 2015, or the Ethiopia National Policy and Strategy on Disaster Risk Management adopted in 2014, are concrete examples of these changes.

2. **The RECs have been playing their part in assisting national platforms and systems for DRR in shifting their operational processes from reactive to proactive**

RECs have been developing long term strategies and policies to assist national institutional structures or platforms for DRR, to broaden their approaches to encompass preparedness, response and recovery measures. In most instances, regional funds to meet disaster needs have been established.

3. **Not all governments have been able to turn the corner from relief to recovery**

Of the eleven countries surveyed, many had a long history in managing disasters caused by drought and flooding or by manmade disasters,

but the experience in recovery management was weak. Approximately 45%, or five out of the eleven countries surveyed, had no recovery institution established or specific ex-ante coordination arrangements. For those who had established such institutions, they were in the fledgling stages.

In most of the countries studied, situations like the political pressure for reaction, public exposure and political profit, are still biasing the implementation of reconstruction institutions or instances and have impacted the political will to establish pre-disaster structures or financial instruments for recovery.

4. **Surveyed countries that are on the journey of a more systematic management of recovery, as a component of DRM, have done so with the support of development partners**

Development Partners have played an instrumental role in supporting governments at the national level, in developing and sustaining the necessary mechanisms for operationalization of the paradigmatic shift from relief to recovery. In this sense, the incorporation of development institutions and sectors, as well as local governments, into recovery coordination and leading structures, played a key role in creating the right conditions for change. The strong role of the planning and finance Ministries in countries like Ethiopia, Angola, Mozambique and Malawi are examples of this trend.

4.1. Analysis and Key Findings

a. Recovery policies, including vision and principles at country and regional level

The overarching policy document, which addresses post-disaster needs and recovery in the Africa region, is the African Regional Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction (ARSDRR), which was adopted by the African Union (AU) Heads of State and Governments in 2004. The implementation of the Strategy has been undertaken through the Programme of Action for the Implementation of the ARSDRR developed in 2005, subsequently extended in line with the Hyogo Framework for Action (HFA) 2005-2015. Its follow-up document, the Programme of Action for the Implementation of the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030 in Africa, was adopted in November 2016.

The primary aim of the Africa regional strategy, as detailed in Table 1, is to "contribute to the attainment of sustainable development and poverty eradication by facilitating the integration of disaster risk reduction into development". The key principal of the ARSDRR is to build on existing DRR institutions and programmes available in African countries and in the REC's with an "aim to mainstreaming them into development so that they can better contribute to DRR." (AUC,2004)

The Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030 has as its vision the notion of reducing risk through the implementation of integrated and inclusive measures that, at one and the same time, reduce hazard exposure and vulnerability to disasters while increasing "preparedness for response and recovery" and which ultimately "strengthen resilience" (AUC,2016). Its priorities for action suggest a step forward into the area of "building back better in recovery, rehabilitation and reconstruction".

The Sendai Framework will monitor progress through indicators for seven global targets. These targets aim to reduce: (a) mortality, (b) the number of affected people, (c) economic losses, (d) critical infrastructure damage, increase (e) the number of national and local disaster risk reduction (DRR) strategies, (f) the level of international cooperation, and (g) availability of and access to multi-hazard early warning systems and disaster risk information and assessments.

At the level of States, the Programme of Action (PoA) which is the strategic plan for the implementation of the Sendai Framework in Africa, provides elements of and guidance for national DRR programmes. The PoA is not meant to be a replacement of regional and national plans, but rather seeks to support them.

In terms of threats and stresses, the PoA covers the risk of small- and large-scale, frequent and infrequent, quick or slow-onset disasters caused by natural and/or human-induced hazards. The

PoA is one of the main outcome documents of the 5th High-Level Meeting on Disaster Risk Reduction, devised through the deliberations of the 6th Session of the Africa Regional Platform in November 2016 in Mauritius and reviewed under the consultative processes of the 7th, 8th and 9thSessions of the Africa Working Group.

Of the five objectives of the PoA, one specifically addresses recovery. The fourth objective calls on actors to "embed a holistic approach to systematically incorporate risk reduction measures into design and implementation of disaster preparedness, response and recovery programmes" (AUC,2006). The PoA acknowledges that for success to be achieved, an integrated approach which recognizes the roles of the various stakeholder groups at continental, regional, national and sub-national/local levels is imperative. At the continental level, the African Union and its organs is the primary actor. The African Union Commission (AUC) will coordinate the overall implementation of the PoA by all DRR actors and stakeholders and will continue to focus on strategic guidance, facilitating and promoting the implementation of the PoA by Member States, through existing mechanisms, particularly the RECs and Africa Working Group (AWG).

The AWG on Disaster Risk Reduction acts as a continental advisory group chaired by the AUC and reports to the Africa Regional Platform. It facilitates the mainstreaming and integration of DRR in all phases of sustainable development in Africa. The Group also provides guidance for the implementation of the PoA. It should be noted that one of the early initiatives of the AUC was the Special Emergency Assistance Fund (SEAF), managed by a Policy Committee of Ambassadors and administered by the African Development Bank (AfDB). SEAF has supported a wide range of interventions aimed at the promotion of local livelihoods and protection from disasters and other emergencies, including early warning, small -scale irrigation, food storage, reforestation, post- emergency reintegration, dam construction and maintenance, emergency preparedness and post- disaster reconstruction to more than 30 AU states (Brookings Institute,2013). In July 2011, the fund approved $300,000 for drought victims in Somalia to be managed by UNHCR.

The fund, which has supported 82 projects with more than $40 million since 1984, was down to$2.8 million in May 2010. In January of 2015, in the Report of PRC Sub-Committee on The Special Emergency Assistance Fund for Drought and Famine in Africa (SEAF), it was noted that the mandate of the AU SEAF in Africa was adjusted to include public health emergencies and other calamities, in light of the Ebola epidemic (AUC,2015).There was also a call to ensure the replenishment of the exhausted AU Special Emergency Assistance Fund for Drought and Famine in Africa, to continue to provide support to Member States and elaborate specific criteria for its operational management. The Committee called on Member States to make voluntary contributions to the SEAF for Drought and Famine in Africa. The Report noted that the Committee has disbursed a total of 1 billion dollars from the SEAF Fund to the affected countries (AUC,2015).

The primary actors at the Regional level are the RECs, their organs and other specialized agencies and institutions, such as Regional Implementation Centres (RICs), acting in collaboration with and through Member States. One of the RECs, the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), through its Policy for Disaster Risk Reduction, aims to have a sub-region of "resilient countries and communities in which natural hazards do not negatively impact development and where development processes do not lead to accumulation of disaster risks from natural hazards". The ECOWAS policy was developed and adopted by the Authority of Heads of State and Government at the 31st Ordinary Summit in Ouagadougou on January 19, 2007.

The policy is guided by 10 principles, one of which has a focus on recovery (see Table 3.1). Principle number 5 states that "recognizing that the effects of emergencies last after the physical manifestation of hazards ends and recognizing that risk reduction is a key objective of rehabilitation and recovery in policy and in practice, ECOWAS has adopted a continuum, long-term approach involving the simultaneous delivery of relief, rehabilitation and development services" (ECOWAS, 2006).

The policy is implemented through the Plan of Action of the ECOWAS Humanitarian Policy (2012-2017). In reporting on the implementation of the ECOWAS PoA and the HFA in 2013, a number of major challenges and gaps were identified. In addition to the need for the mobilization of additional resources, there was concern expressed that "many countries are yet to develop national policies, legislation, or plans for integrating DRR or strengthening local coping strategies" (ECOWAS,2013).

Noteworthy in the Plan is the Mechanism for Emergency fund, which has been put in place to support ECOWAS Member States affected by natural disasters such as floods. It is noted that many countries in the sub-region had already benefited from the Emergency fund following the devastating floods that affected the region in 2009, 2010 and 2012. In the final analysis, the activities in the Plan of Action of The ECOWAS Humanitarian Policy (2012-2017), although very strong on management of disasters and humanitarian crisis, did not appear to move towards the management of recovery(ECOWAS,2012-17).

The East African Community (EAC), through its Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Strategy (DRRM 2012-2016), aimed to "be a region of resilient communities in which Natural and human induced hazards do not negatively impact on socio-economic development." To fulfil that vision, the EAC DRRM (2012-2016), worked to integrate DRRM into development plans and strategies of EAC partner States. The guiding principles of the DRRM included the need to address both natural hazards and human-induced disasters. It noted that DRRM required integration with other development sectors in the economy and society and highlighted that the DRRM was not a "stand alone sector"; it required the mobilization of financial resources, management of cross border issues and collaboration with inter-governmental organizations, communities, the private sector, non-governmental organizations and development partners.

It was not until the DRRM Bill was adopted in March 2013 that the notions of post-disaster response and recovery became prominent. Part 2, Section 4 of the Bill notes that "the Partner States shall implement comprehensive disaster risk reduction, preparedness, response and recovery measures for the protection of persons and the natural environment from, during and after a disaster in accordance with the Hyogo Framework for Action and other regional and international instruments".

With support from the World Bank and the UN Office for Disaster Risk Reduction (UNIDDR), the East African Disaster Risk Reduction Parliamentarian Platform was launched in June 2015. Over 40 parliamentarians from the five EAC Member States have joined the Platform. In addition, UNIDDR continues to support the Kenyan Women's Parliamentary Association whose objective it is to enforce the Disaster Risk Management Bill. The latter, which was passed in March 2016, defines recovery as the "restoration, and improvement where appropriate of facilities, livelihoods and living conditions of disaster -affected communities, including efforts to reduce disaster risk factors".

Following heavy flooding in 2007, the Southern African Development Community (SADC) began to meet annually to prepare for future hazards, culminating in the creation of the SADC Regional Platform for Disaster Risk Reduction in 2011. The aim of the strategy is to facilitate disaster risk and vulnerability reduction to impacts of disasters by providing a regional framework for coordinating DDR related activities between Member States.

The SADC DRR Regional Plan, although listing five guiding principles as outlined in Table 1, spoke of the integration of preparedness and emergency response into DRR interventions, and the need to ensure that DRR became a national and local priority—but did not highlight recovery measure as a key component of the Plan. The SADC emphasizes that through its Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan (RISDP), co-operation in food security policies has led to an effective disaster preparedness and management mechanism by implementing programmes and projects aimed at early detection, early warning and mitigation of disaster effects. The ultimate objective of the RISDP is to deepen integration in the region with a view to accelerate poverty

eradication and the attainment of other economic and non-economic development goals.

b. General practices/experiences in recovery planning and management at the national and regional level

ANGOLA

In Angola, the Civil Protection is the structure in charge of disaster risk management. Angola's National Civil Protection system was established in 2003, with the purpose of facilitating synergies on prevention, mitigation, preparedness and emergency response across sectors, and between different government levels. The Civil Protection in Angola has a vertical structure: from the central state to the municipalities and communes.

The Civil Protection System consists of the following:

- National Council of Civil Protection—an inter-ministerial body for consultation chaired by the President of the Republic and which is comprised of the sector Ministers and the Director of the National Civil Protection Service (SNPC). The President coordinates the disaster response.

- National Civil Protection Commission (CNPC)—a specialized body responsible for technical assistance and operational coordination. It is led by the Ministry of Interior and is composed of representatives of ministries and representatives of other relevant institutions. The Executive Secretariat of the National Civil Protection, a permanent multi-sectorial body coordinated by the National Commander of Civil Protection and SNPC, technically supports the National Civil Protection Commission.

Table 1: Recovery Policies by Regional Institutions[7]

Institution	Framework/ Agreement/ Policy	Est. Date	Vision	Key Principles
AU	African Regional Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction	July 2004	The aim of the Africa Regional Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction is to contribute to the attainment of sustainable development and poverty eradication by facilitating the integration of disaster risk reduction into development.	The Africa Regional Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction will build on existing disaster risk reduction institutions and programmes available in African countries and in the RECs. It aims to mainstream them into development so that they can better contribute to disaster risk reduction.
	Programme of Action for the Implementation of the Africa Regional Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction (2006 - 2015)	April 2010	The overall goal of the extended Programme of Action from 2006 to 2015 is a substantial reduction of social, economic and environmental impacts of disasters on African people and economies.	Priority Programme Components: • Improved governance of DRR institutions, and integration of DRR and climate change adaptation into sustainable development planning and programmes; • Improved disaster risk identification, including hazards and sector wide vulnerability analysis, monitoring and early warning systems; • Identification of priority sectors and develop integrated programs for greater results; • Development of DRR and preparedness planning, implementation of related measures, and integration of DRR concepts in disaster management, rehabilitation and recovery.
	Programme of Action for the Implementation of the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030 in Africa.	Nov 2016	"Prevent new and reduce existing disaster risk through the implementation of integrated and inclusive economic, structural, legal, social, health, cultural, educational, environmental, technological, political and institutional measures that prevent and reduce hazard exposure and vulnerability to disaster, increase preparedness for response and recovery, and thus strengthen resilience."	Priorities • Understanding disaster risk • Strengthening disaster risk governance to manage disaster risk • Investing in DRR for resilience • Enhancing disaster preparedness for effective response and to "Build Back Better" in recovery, rehabilitation and reconstruction.

[8] *Source:* Based on Government Official Reports, Reports by United Nations Agencies and Studies from academic institutions.

Institution	Framework/ Agreement/ Policy	Est. Date	Vision	Key Principles
ECOWAS	The ECOWAS Policy for Disaster Risk Reduction	August 2006	The vision of the Policy is a sub-region of resilient countries and communities in which natural hazards do not negatively impact development, and where development processes do not lead to accumulation of disaster risks from natural hazards.	The Policy will be guided by following principles: • Effective DRR involves empowering people and local communities to act to protect their lives, property and the environment, while adopting a multi-hazard approach and being gender/culture sensitive • ECOWAS will adopt multi-stakeholder participatory approaches, provide material, financial and other emergency management assistance and address disaster issues by supporting and supplementing local, national and international capacities • Risk reduction Is a key objective of rehabilitation and recovery • The development and implementation of programmes under the Policy will emphasize cost sharing by all partners and promote/support partnerships • The Technical Committee and member states will agree on what conditions will trigger the ECOWAS assistance
EAC	Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Strategy (2012 – 2016)	October 2012	To be a region of resilient communities in which natural and human-induced hazards do not negatively impact socio-economic development.	• The Strategy focuses on addressing both natural hazards and human induced disasters and seeks to mainstream DRRM in the development issues • It will promote research activities for indigenous knowledge within the community and low-cost measures to adopt and cope with disasters • The Strategy will provide formulation of the cross-border cooperation/collaboration mechanism among the Partner States and will pursue a collaborative approach with all relevant stakeholders

Institution	Framework/ Agreement/ Policy	Est. Date	Vision	Key Principles
	Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Bill[8]	March 2013	The object of the Bill is to provide a legal framework for intervention and assistance for people affected by climate change and natural hazard-related disasters, and to protect the natural environment	The Partner States shall implement comprehensive DRR, preparedness, response and recovery measures for the protection of persons and the natural environment from, during and after disaster in accordance with the Hyogo Framework for Action and other regional and international instruments.
SADC	Regional Platform for Disaster Risk Reduction / The SADC DRR Regional Plan	October 2011	Facilitate disaster risk and vulnerability reduction to impacts of disasters by providing a regional framework for coordinating DRR-related activities between Member States	• Strengthen governance, legal and institutional framework at all levels of DRR • Facilitate identification, assessment and monitoring of disaster risks and support enhancement of EWS at all levels • Promote knowledge management, innovation & education to build a culture of safety and resilience • Ensure that DRR becomes a national and local priority with a strong institutional basis for implementation • Integration of preparedness and emergency response into DRR interventions

[8] www.unisdr.org/archive/48230

- SNPC has an operational role and is responsible for supporting the sectors to implement the activities established by the Working Group, and to assist the Provincial Commanders of Civil Protection in the disaster response.

This national structure is replicated at the provincial and municipal levels through the Provincial and Municipal Commissions of Civil Protection (CPPC and CMPC) and is coordinated by the Provincial Governors and Municipal Administrators respectively.

Since 2015, the GoA with the support of UNDP has engaged in setting up the policy framework, developing the institutional arrangements and enhancing technical and financial capacities to better support long term recovery processes and improve people's resilience to future shocks and risks.

Aligned with the 2015-2030 Sendai Framework and the National Development Plan, the Government of Angola has established a strategy which includes all the DRM components with the creation of a Strategic Plan for Prevention and Disaster Risk Reduction. This plan includes risk knowledge, risk governance, and public investment. Each area is led and co-led by different sectorial institutions.

To further improve preparedness both for response to and recovery from disasters, the Angolan government renewed the National Plan for Preparedness, Contingency, Response and Recovery for the 2015-2017 period. The National Commission for Civil Protection (CNPC) leads and coordinates multi-sector needs assessments and medium to long term recovery/resilience-building planning. In partnership with UNDP, the CNPC has been implementing critical components of the National Plan through a project entitled "Strengthening Capacities for Disaster Risk Reduction and Resilience Building". One of its critical components is the establishment of a pre-disaster resilient recovery common framework in 2017, which aims to reduce social and economic consequences of disasters, avoid recreation of risks during recovery period and ensure "building back better" with a special focus on the most vulnerable populations.

Following the drought induced by El Niño in 2015-2016, the Government of Angola carried out a PDNA to address recovery planning and management, with international support from the World Bank, the United Nations, and the European Union. Because of the PDNA assessment, and the previous process of resilience building planning, the Government of Angola has adopted a Drought Recovery Framework, led by CNPC and the Ministries of Planning, Finances and Territorial Administration. The process for implementing a "resilience fund" has also been launched.

BURKINA FASO

Based on the Lessons Learned Report elaborated in the frame of the 2009 flooding recovery process, it is considered that, politically and strategically, Burkina Faso has achieved a qualitative leap in terms of disaster preparedness over the past decade. In 2009, a National Multi-Risk Contingency Plan has been elaborated, under the leadership of the Permanent Secretariat of the National Council for Emergency Relief and Rehabilitation (SP/CONASUR) and the UN System. A National Disaster Risk Management Strategy (2013-2017) has also been established, aimed to provide institutional capacities for risk management, response and recovery.

To date, seven of the thirteen regions in Burkina Faso have established regional contingency plans. Those in the northern and Sahel regions were revised in 2016 with the support of the National Resilience Capacity Building project in Burkina Faso. Since 2010, the Government, with the support of its development partners, has adopted a National Civil Protection Policy and set up Relief Organization Plans (ORSECs). These ORSEC plans have been simulated (in partnership with third countries).

In addition, in July 2007, the Government of Burkina Faso prepared and adopted the National Policy on Social Action, which considers the problem of disaster risk reduction. This policy is now the benchmark for any intervention in the field of disaster prevention and management in the country. In this regard, the Government of Burkina Faso adopted in June 2008 an emergency plan for achieving food and nutrition security in Burkina Faso.

At the institutional level, the National Council for Emergency Relief and Rehabilitation (CONASUR), under the technical supervision of the Ministry in charge of social action and national solidarity, is the national structure responsible for the execution of the policy "Governmental organizations on risk prevention and management, humanitarian crises and disasters". CONASUR, created in 2004 and represented at the decentralized level by CORESUR, COPROSUR and CODESUR, acts as a coordination platform for disaster management.

Other institutions involved in crisis management in Burkina Faso include the Directorate General of Civil Protection (DGPC), the National Food Security Stocks Management Corporation (SONAGESS), the Permanent Secretariat of the World Food Program (WFP) and the Red Cross (CR) of Burkina Faso, the National Solidarity Fund, and the Humanitarian Coordination Group (RC, UNCT, donors, bilateral, NGOs, Red Cross Movement).While these institutions oversee disaster management activities (once hazards have taken place), no institution is yet truly involved in issues related to risk reduction and the integration of DRR into Development, even if this is part of CONASUR's mission. The legislative, policy and strategic framework is more focused on preparedness and response to emergencies than on risk prevention or recovery in the medium and long term.

CABO VERDE

The Civil Protection Council of Cabo Verde was established with specific mandates for the different civil protection agents at the national and local levels. The Council was conceived as a multi-sectorial organ for deliberation and coordination on civil protection issues. Aiming to broaden the scope of participation, a DRR national platform was established in November 2007, though it has never been fully operational.

In the National Contingency Plan[9], references to the post-disaster recovery processes are limited to an indication within the scope of "Coordination and Direction of Civil Protection" in the post-emergency phase "to promote adequate measures for the development of general plans for structural and infrastructural rehabilitation in the human, social, economic, service and other areas, in order to restore the normal living conditions of the populations affected". Likewise, the Prime Minister has the responsibility to develop through the Cabinet and Working Groups specific rehabilitation plans within their respective areas of intervention.

Regarding the coordination of the contingency plan's implementation, it is stated that the Ministry of Labor and Solidarity is the responsible entity for early recovery actions. In terms of rehabilitation, the President of the Firefighting and Civil Protection National Service (SNPCB), as head of the National Center for Emergency Operations and Civil Protection, is responsible for the implementation of rehabilitation programs in areas affected by the emergency.

After the eruption of the Fogo Volcano in 2015, the Council of Ministers established, in January 2017, a working group for the Elaboration of the National Strategy on Disaster Risk Reduction (ENSDRR). The strategy has been elaborated, following an abundant participatory approach. The objective of the strategy is to provide orientations to the Government and its partners, for implementing disaster recovery in case of future hazards. It is important to notice that this strategy is not focused on one particular type of disaster—such as the volcano eruption—but on the creation of recovery preparedness conditions for any future hazards.

In the ENRRD, priority is given to building capacities for the management of post-disaster recovery processes. Preparedness for recovery, therefore, constitutes a priority area of intervention within the framework of the action plan.

ETHIOPIA

Ethiopia has a long history of disaster management, evidenced by its Relief & Rehabilitation Commission (RRC), established in 1973, which has the mandate to provide relief assistance to

[9] Approved by Council of Ministers Resolution No. 11/2010, BO 15 March 2010.

drought affected people in Wollo and Tigray. Its early-warning system had been practical and relief-oriented and was therefore quite effective in saving lives, but its other contributions,in terms of reducing vulnerability to disaster risks as well as to poverty reduction efforts, were low.

In 2008, in order to implement DRM, the government developed a new structure which brought the "Early Warning and Response Directorate" as well as the "Food Security Coordination Directorate" under one same roof i.e. Disaster Risk Management Food Security Sector (DRMFSS) under the Ministry of Agriculture.

The existing Policy Framework was revised, and the National Policy and Strategy on Disaster Risk Management developed. The DRM policy focuses on the complete DRM cycle—prevention, mitigation, preparedness, response, recovery and rehabilitation. It has a proactive risk management focus and is aligned with the Hyogo Framework of Action.

The Disaster Risk Reduction/Livelihoods Recovery Programme (DRR/LR), a multi-donor and multi-year program implemented in partnership with the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia since 2010, has enabled the DRMFSS to gain experience in the management of a recovery programme following the 2011 drought. The DRR/LR provided support to communities to enhance resilience building by promoting the Build Back Better approach and addressing the underlying causes of disasters. This was done through the enhancement of livelihood recovery initiatives (such as cash-for-work schemes) designed in the drought or flood prone areas.

KENYA

Kenya has had a long history of dealing with drought, given that its arid and semi-arid lands (ASALs) constitute more than 80 per cent of the country's land area.

In 2008, the Government implemented the National Disaster Response Plan. The responsibility for its implementation lies within the Ministry of State for Special Programmes in conjunction with the National Disaster Operation Centre. Recent initiatives include the creation of a thematic working group on Emergency and Disaster Response to mainstream disaster risk reduction into the 2030 Agenda and the Medium-Term Plan II.

Much experience was gained in DRM, following the PDNA on droughts of 2008-2011. Because of that process, the government of Kenya established The National Drought Management Authority (NDMA) as a statutory body on November 24, 2011. It is expected to exercise general supervision and coordination over matters relating to drought management in Kenya. The NDMA has field staff in 23 counties.

The NDMA has as its goal the challenge of addressing the underlying causes of vulnerability to drought and climate change and ending drought emergency. The strategy involves a 10-year programme for ending recurrent drought emergencies in Kenya, investing in the foundation for the development of the ASAL region and ensuring mainstreaming of DRR and CCA to enhance adaptive capacity and build resilience.

One of NDMA's components is the institutionalization of the role of communities in drought management. This programme was piloted in 28 ASAL districts and maximized the use of the Community Manage Disaster Risk Reduction (CMDRR) approach. Indeed, the latter uses the planning structures at the community-level to mainstream DRR into local development plans and prepare drought contingency plans.

MALAWI

The institutional framework for DRR in Malawi is comprised of the Secretary to the Vice President and Commissioner for Disaster Management Affairs, the National Disaster Preparedness and Relief Committee (NDPRC), the Civil Protection Committees (CPCs) and the Department of Disaster

Management Affairs (DoDMA), which were all created through the DPR Act of 1991. The Disaster Risk Management Act is currently under formulation and will be submitted to parliament for consideration.

Following the severe floods that affected the country in 2015, the Government of Malawi adopted a risk-reduction and people-centered approach to recovery with the vision of strengthening the resilience of the population and promoting sustainable development. A year later, a severe drought led to the collapse of the 2016-17 cropping season, affecting 6.7 million people and prompting Malawi's largest humanitarian response in its history. The goal of the Drought Recovery Strategy, based on the 2016 PDNA, was also to encourage the adoption of risk-reducing measures that would mitigate the impact of future drought events. This is in line with the Government's National Resilience Strategy, launched in October 2018 under the leadership of DoDMA.

As follow-up to the PDNA, DoDMA led the development of a National Disaster Recovery Framework (NDRF) to guide the implementation of recovery interventions. Since its launch in October 2015, DoDMA has mainstreamed the NDRF into the implementation of the Malawi Floods Emergency and Recovery Project (MFERP) which covers 15 disaster-affected districts. It has also incorporated the NDRF as a central tool for prioritization of flood recovery interventions. Additionally, DoDMA's efforts to disseminate and mainstream the NDRF at the national and district levels are improving coordination and oversight mechanisms and financial management systems. Implementation for recovery activities are already embedded in key strategies, policies and frameworks in Malawi such as the Malawi Growth and Development Strategy 2011-2016 (MGDS II), the 2015 National Disaster Risk Management (NDRM) Policy, as well as the Food Insecurity Response Plan (FIRP) 2016/2017 that the Government developed in collaboration with the UN system.

The FIRP's objective is to address the humanitarian needs generated by crisis and sets the basis for recovery.

Building resilience to climate-related shocks remains a core priority for the MSGS III, 2017-2022.

MOZAMBIQUE

In 1999, the National Policy on Disaster Management was promulgated by the Government, and the National Disaster Management Institute (INGC) was created with an emphasis on coordination rather than delivery. The heavy floods of 2000 and 2001 took place in a post-war context (1992) where the country's wider reconstruction and development was underway. Prior to that, disaster management and mitigation had dropped out of strategies and planning amongst many cooperation agencies. The floods presented an opportunity to update strategies and renew the commitment to disaster preparedness, response, and mitigation.

A significant factor bearing on the response to and recovery from the floods of 2000 and 2001 was Mozambique's positive relationship with the donors. Both the government's and the donors' objectives and strategies for recovery after the 2000 and 2001 floods were aligned, meaning that they both aimed to move as quickly as possible from relief mode to a recovery agenda. Recovery was seen by the government as an opportunity to move parts of the country forward, acting as an engine for development.

After the 2005 droughts, a Master Plan for the Prevention and Mitigation of Natural Disasters (2006-2014), which stresses the post-disaster recovery phase, was adopted by the Council of Ministers. In the framework of this Plan, INGC's role in post-disaster recovery involves mobilizing resources and ensuring linkages between the emergency and the rehabilitation phases while keeping the Coordinating Council for Disaster Management (CCGC), on the ministerial level, informed of rehabilitation activities.

An overall assessment of recovery needs and experiences was made by the World Bank and the Government, to shift from emergency relief towards preparedness in the framework of a donor conference in 2014. More detailed assessments for program planning purposes were undertaken by a wide range of ministries and agencies at national and local levels. Recovery responses were generally managed and coordinated by the line ministries with the oversight of the CCGC.

Disaster risk management (GRC) is explicitly incorporated into the Five-Year Development Plan of the Government since 2005, in the Poverty Reduction Action Plan since 2006, and in the Climate Change Adaptation and Mitigation National Strategy since 2013. In June 2014, Mozambique's Parliament approved the 15/2014 Law on disaster management, including prevention, mitigation, response, reconstruction and recovery. A Regulation was also approved in 2016 (Regulamento da Lei da Gestão das Calamidades, 7/2016) in support of the implementation of the DRM Law. A new DRM Master Plan 2030has been approved by the Disaster Management Technical Council. Recovery has been explicitly included in this new policy instrument.

NIGER

Niger has, these past few years, developed a strong risk prevention and management framework of natural disasters. The framework for prevention and management of disasters and food crises - Le Dispositif National de Prévention et de Gestion des Crises Alimentaires or DNPGCCA), initially established in 1989, has been strengthened over time. As a result, the framework's coverage has expanded, including Early Warning Systems (EWS), prevention, social safety nets and humanitarian aid coordination.

Under the Prime Minister's Office, DNPGCCA coordinates government actions at central and regional levels in the areas of information collection and dissemination of information on disaster prevention and management regarding food vulnerability, monitoring and evaluation. The structure relies on the logistical support of technical ministries and public sector organizations, including Niger's Office of Food Products (Office des Produits Vivriers du Niger or OPVN), charged with managing food reserves.

The Support Plan to Vulnerable Populations is DNPGCCA's central operational framework. The Plan is the main tool for structuring, programming and implementing interventions targeting communities facing food and nutritional crises, as well as natural disasters.

A preliminary plan is established in the last quarter of each year, based on extensive, participatory and inclusive post-crop regional vulnerability assessments. The Support plan includes a number of prevention, emergency response and resilience actions, such as: cash for work and food for work; unconditional cash transfers; targeted free food and cash distribution; assistance in non-food products and other assets essential to survival; sale of cereals and livestock food at moderate prices; building of stock reserves of cereals and livestock food; distribution of improved seeds to farmers in vulnerable zones and prevention of locust invasions. So far, the government's policies have been mainly centered on emergency and relief actions with a particular focus on drought and food crisis.

NIGERIA

Nigeria's National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA) was established in 1999, following the amendment of to the Act which had previously established the NEMA in 1990. The amendment allowed for the transition of the Agency from a relief-focused scope to a coordinated management of disasters. The main objective of NEMA is to "coordinate and facilitate disaster management efforts aimed at reducing the loss of lives and property and protect lives from hazards by leading and supporting disaster management stakeholders in a comprehensive risk-based emergency management program of mitigation, preparedness, response and recovery."

All 36 states of the federation were encouraged to establish State Emergency Management Agencies (SEMAs), and32 out of the 36 states have established DRR Agencies. Even though the national response capacity has improved in recent years, risk reduction and mitigation capacity need to be strengthened.

The National Disaster Management Framework (NDMF) provides a mechanism that serves as a regulatory guideline for effective and efficient disaster management in Nigeria. It has been noted that while NEMA has engaged in establishing an early warning system for epidemics, including the institutionalization of the National Influenza

Sentinel Surveillance, there is no effective national early warning system in place for floods, at the federal or state and local/community levels.
The enforcement and implementation of major policies to reduce underlying risks of disasters are of major concern to DRR specialists in Nigeria. For instance: The National Environment Policy, Food Security, National Policy on Drought and Desertification, National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan, National Erosion and Flood Control Policy, Climate Change Adaptation.

Finally, it can be assumed that Nigeria has gained experience in recovery following the conduct of the PDNA for the flooding of 2012, with the support of its development partners.

RWANDA

The Ministry of Disaster Management and Refugee Affairs was established in April 12, 2010, through a Prime Ministerial Order with the overall mission of "developing a highly proficient mechanism for preventing, mitigating, preparing, responding to, recovering and monitoring in a timely manner to promote management of natural and man-made disasters". The National Disaster Management Policy in place since 2009has been revised and was approved by the Prime Minister's cabinet on October 2012.

Rwanda has established a decentralized institutional framework for Disaster Management. The National Disaster Management Executive Committee (NDMEC) is the highest Disaster Management decision-making body. It sits at the Cabinet level and is chaired by the Honorable Minister of Disaster Management and Refugees Affairs.

District Disaster Management Committees (DDMCs), chaired by the mayor of the District and Sector Disaster Management Committee (SDMCs), form the local structures of the framework at the district and sector levels respectively.

The National Platform for Disaster Risk Reduction (NPDRR) has also been established and it groups stakeholders from both public and non-public agencies. Some institutions at the national level have developed their own DRR strategies, for example the Rwanda Civil Aviation Authority (Security Contingency plan and Aerodrome Emergency Plan), the Ministry of Health (Integrated Health Emergency Contingency Plan, Terms of Reference and Composition of Health Sector Emergency Preparedness and Response Committee). Furthermore, the Ministry of Agriculture has set up measures to deal with Food Security issues by creating strategic stores to be utilized during emergencies.

The Ministry of Disaster Management and Refugee Affairs (MIDIMAR), in collaboration with other relevant stakeholders, has put in place contingency plans on the following hazards: Fire outbreaks, floods and landslides, earthquakes.

District Disaster Management Plans have been put in place in 24 out of the 30 Districts of Rwanda and aim at preventing the creation of new risk, reducing existing risk and strengthening economic, social, health and environmental resilience[10].

UGANDA

The National Policy for Disaster Preparedness & Management includes recovery as part of the approach to Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR and it has been integrated into respective national and local responsibility structures. The available legal and institutional framework for DRM is mostly oriented towards emergency response and less towards risk reduction.

The mandate for DRM lies within the Department of Relief, Disaster Preparedness and Management under the Office of the Prime Minister, which coordinates activities of the various line ministries, humanitarian agencies, and stakeholders to achieve a multi-sectoral and harmonized approach to disaster management. The National Platform for Disaster Preparedness and Management/ Inter-Agency Technical Committee coordinates

[10] www.unisdr.org/archive/58063

preparedness, prevention, mitigation, and response interventions in the country. The National Emergency Coordination and Operations Centre (NECOC) is responsible for the technical aspects of coordinating emergency and disaster responses in Uganda.

The 2010–2011 Integrated Rainfall Variability Impacts, Needs Assessment and Drought Risk Management Strategy, elaborated by the Department of Relief, Disaster Preparedness and Management, recognized that the existing DRM system should be more proactive, coherent, and effective to address vulnerabilities related to drought and similar disasters. The development of a more effective disaster risk reduction and management framework was considered as essential.

With the adoption of the National Policy for Disaster Preparedness and Management (2011), recovery has been included in the governmental approach: "The expected outcome of this policy is a maximum state of preparedness for the country, so that in every agency that has relevance to disaster preparedness, response mitigation and recovery, there is ability and readiness to operate together in consonance and harmony before, during, and after a disaster event".

Participation of various stakeholders, such as international agencies, NGOs and private sector, in recovery.

ANGOLA

Coordination between the national system, the United Nations and partners is managed through the Civil Protection National Commission (CNPC) and the UN Disaster Management Team (UNDMT), including technical groups comprising representatives from every sector and organization.

Table 2: Experience in Recovery Planning and Management

LEVEL OF EXPERIENCE	1	2	3
1= no practical experience in planning or managing recovery; 2= at least one practical experience at planning or managing recovery; 3 = evidence of integration of recovery into regional or national policies and/or development plans			
Regional level			
AU		x	x
ECOWAS		x	x
EAC		x	
SADC	x		x
National level			
Angola		x	x
Burkina Faso		x	x
Cabo Verde		x	
Ethiopia		x	x
Kenya		x	x
Malawi		x	x
Mozambique		x	x
Niger	X		
Nigeria		x	x
Rwanda		x	x
Uganda		x	

Source: Based on official government reports, reports by United Nations Agencies and studies from academic institutions.

Following the 2012 and 2016 droughts, the Angolan government and other stakeholders (such as UN agencies, NGOs, churches, CSOs) concentrated their efforts on response and emergency management in support of the most vulnerable populations. UN OCHA's Central Emergency Response Fund (CERF) supported drought response in 2011-12, in coordination with the Ministry of Agriculture (MINADERP), the Ministry of Health (MoH), and the Ministry of Social Welfare (MINARS). UNDP/OCHA, UNICEF and IOM have also supported a drought rapid assessment in 2014.

With the elaboration of the PDNA in 2016, several international, bilateral and multilateral agencies have integrated activities that were included in the PDNA's Recovery Strategy. For instance, the EU did so through the FRESAN project; the Global Environment Facility through a project in the Cuvelai basin; and finally, USAID and other donors are directly supporting recovery in the three provinces covered by the PDNA.

In this sense, a key aspect in the recovery process is the participation of national institutions that own the development agenda. The role of multi-sectoral institutions, namely the Ministries of Planning, Finance and Territorial Administration, is vital in the coordination and monitoring of the recovery process and enables the linkage between development and resilience. Ministries of Agriculture, Health, Energy and Water and Education lead the recovery actions within their mandate.

In the recent Angolan decentralisation process, it is also important to highlight the role of Provincial and Municipal authorities, which are integrating the prioritised recovery actions within their regular planning.

BURKINA FASO

Key international and national stakeholders participate in the Humanitarian Coordination Group (made up of UN Resident Coordinator, UNCT, donors, bilateral agencies, NGOs, Red Cross Movement), whose mission it is to provide a framework for consultation on humanitarian issues, elaborate preparedness and contingency plans in relevant sectors and provide support to the National Crisis Management Committee.

Collaboration between the Government and international cooperation has played a key role in the reinforcement of DRM capacities. Namely, UNDP has contributed to strengthening SP/CONASUR's capacities through two projects (2006-2010 and 2015-2017), at central and local levels, with training, materials and logistics. The FAO and the WFP have also developed a roadmap for DRR (2012-2015).

The country also benefited from the support of UNDP and UNISDR regional offices in the fields of disaster impact databases and public investment for climate change adaptation and risk management.

In terms of multi-sectorial participation, it is important to mention that after the 2009 floods, the recovery process was based on the participation of the ministries directly involved in the recovery actions, namely the Ouagadougou municipality, as well as CONASUR and CORESUR.

CABO VERDE

The United Nations system supports recovery through its specialized agencies (UNDP, FAO and UNICEF). Within the system, the United Nations Country Team (UNCT) supports the planning and implementation of recovery interventions. The IFRC works in support to the Red Cross of Cabo Verde.

International Financial Institutions (IFIs)—such as the World Bank, the African Development Bank, the Arab Bank for Economic Development in Africa and the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development—provide loans and technical assistance for recovery and reconstruction programs.

Some bilateral donors (Luxembourg, Portugal, France, the Netherlands, Australia, China, Angola, Spain, Brazil), the EU and regional partners such as ECOWAS or CPLP, are also supporting recovery processes. Many international NGOs present in Cape Verde (Caritas, COSPE, BorneFonden, Africa '70, AIFD, IPPF, IMVF, Africa Avanza, Tourism

Foundation, etc.) support recovery programs in their program areas.

At the national level, a great number of institutions are participating in terms of resources and provision of relevant expertise: the Ministry of Agriculture and Environment (MAE, Ministry of Health (MH), Ministry of Infrastructures, Housing and Spatial Planning (MIHSP); Ministry of Finance (MF); Ministry of Economy and Employment (MEE), National Civil Protection and Fire Service (NCPFS), Ministry of Defense (MD); the National Institute of Territorial Management (INGT); Institute of Roads (IE); the National Institute of Meteorology and Geophysics (INMG); National Institute of Social Providence (INPS); Institute of Employment and Professional Training; the Agency for Business Development and Innovation (ADEI); National Water and Sanitation Agency (ANAS); National Statistics Institute, the Maritime and Port Agency (NSIMPA), the National Institute of Cultural Heritage (IPC); The Operational Nucleus of the Information Society (NOSI); National Institute of Quality Management and Intellectual Property (INGQPI), the Society of Tourism Development of the Boavista and Maio islands (SDTIBM).

ETHIOPIA

Ethiopia has a good practice of stakeholder and community-based participation. The activities carried out in the El Niño Response Plan 2016 are a good example: the agriculture and livelihood sectors were co-led by the Disaster Risk Management and Food Security Sector (DRMFSS) of the Ministry of Agriculture and the Natural Resources DRM–ATF (Disaster Risk Management-Agriculture Task Force), which operates at national and regional levels.

The second example is the DRM LR Programme, which is implemented with partners at federal, regional, district, and local levels. At the federal level, the Ministry of Agriculture, through the DRMFSS and in partnership with UNDP, ensures overall direction and coherence of the Programme. The Steering Committee, with targeted partnerships with the African Centre for DRM and the Ethiopian Emergency Coordination Centre, ensures that regional and community level inputs are fed into the policy level.

KENYA

The PDNA following the 2008-2011 floods indicated that "Government and relevant stakeholders, including the Kenyan population in general and, in particular, disaster- affected populations had in the past managed disasters reasonably well, […] and the collaboration and partnerships have evolved among the different players in the country over the years."

However, the governance structure for DRM is still deemed to be fragmented and weak without sufficient collaboration among development partners, civil society, NGOs and Government entities.

MALAWI

The Humanitarian Country Team comprises the heads of UN Agencies, international and local NGOs, the Government, and the Malawi Red Cross Society. This team is chaired by the United Nations Resident Coordinator (UNRC). For coordination of the current response, donors and heads of Government Ministries and Departments have been co-opted into the HCT, the highest-level of coordination outside government coordination structures.

To ensure better coordination for the disaster assessment and the emergency response at the operational level, ten clusters were activated. The clusters are led by the government and co-led by UN agencies and the Malawi Red Cross Society, and most have developed response plans.

As part of the recovery process after the 2015 flooding, several stakeholders are already implementing recovery interventions in districts affected by recurrent disasters. These range from UN Agencies, the World Bank and civil society organizations to government ministries and departments. For instance, different organizations are implementing recovery interventions in the areas of agriculture and food security, DRM, employment and livelihoods, health, housing, transport, and Water, Sanitation and Hygiene (WASH in all affected districts. CSOs implementing recovery interventions include the All Hands Volunteers (AHV), the Catholic Development

Commission of Malawi, (CADECOM), Catholic Relief Services (CRS), CARE International, Christian Service Committee, Churches Action in Relief and Development, (COOPI), Concern Universal, Concern Worldwide, CORDAID, Danish Church Aid, DISCOVER Programme, Goal Malawi, The Malawi Red Cross Society, OXFAM, Plan Malawi, Project Concern International,Save the Children, TROCAIRE, World Vision, and Word Alive.

MOZAMBIQUE

The HCT is a forum comprised of United Nations agencies, the Red Cross and international non-governmental organizations led by the UN-designated Humanitarian Coordinator. HCT clusters are embedded in the Government and are active in four disaster response sectors regarding coordination of assessment and relief operations during emergencies.

UN agencies (UNICEF, WFP, FAO, UN-Habitat, UN-Women, UNDP, UNFPA, IOM, ILO), bilateral and multilateral agencies are also supporting the Government of Mozambique in the adoption and implementation of DRM actions.

Multi-sectorial institutions, such as the Ministries of Planning and Development, the Public Administration and the Ministry of Finance and Economy, play a key role in the coordination of DRM actions within the Master DRM Plan. In terms of recovery, all the sectorial institutions are participating in the planning and implementation of post-impact activities, namely the Ministries of Land, Environment and Rural Development; Agriculture and Food Security; Health; Sea, Inland Water and Fisheries; Mineral Resources and Energy; Public Works, Housing and Hydric Resources; Industry and Commerce; and Gender, Children and Social Actions.

NIGER

The DNPGCCA framework for prevention and management of disasters and food crises includes multilateral organizations (European Union, World Bank, UNDP, WFP, FAO and UNICEF) and bilateral donors (France, Switzerland, Italy, Germany, Belgium, Canada, Luxembourg and Spain).

The EU, the biggest contributor, is also the lead donor. Consultation with donors is conducted through the Mixed Concertation Committee (CMC), chaired by the Prime Minister, the Restricted Concertation Committee (CRC) which is chaired by the Prime Minister's chief of staff, and the Extended Concertation Committee (CEC) which is chaired by the DNPGCCA's Permanent Secretary.

The DNPGCCA framework engages with NGOs and Civil Society through its advocacy mandate. With the establishment of the Humanitarian Action and Disaster Management (HADM) division in May 2016, the humanitarian aid and support to displaced people by conflict and floods has been ongoing. The Government has also sought to act through the 3N Initiative (Nigeriens Nourish Nigeriens) in building resilience among the population to face food crisis, nutritional insecurity and disasters.

NIGERIA

Nigeria's national progress report on the implementation of the Hyogo Framework for Action (2009-2011) noted that there is a National Platform of Disaster Risk Reduction in Nigeria. It is constituted by government Ministries and Departments, Agencies, Civil Society Organizations, and Development Partners. The National Platform has developed a National Action Plan for DRR and is working to review and update the Plan. The National Emergency Management Agency is the Secretariat and coordinates the activities of the National Platform.

The Report notes that the Platform works with some 50 civil society members,27 sectorial organizations and five women's organizations.

RWANDA

The Ministry of Disaster Management and Refugee Affairs (MIDIMAR) works hand in hand with a broad range of actors and stakeholders from the government, the UN, civil society and the development and humanitarian community.

The NPDRR is chaired by the Minister of Disaster Management and Refugee Affairs (DMRA) and co-chaired by the UNRC. The composition of the NPDRR and its subsidiary working groups is further explained in the coordination sections

of the National Disaster Risk Management plan. The National Platform for Disaster Risk Reduction is composed of all institutions dealing with Disaster Management, including: focal points of all Ministries, members of the National Disaster Management Executive Committee, international donors and organizations, United Nations Agencies, International and National Red Cross Movement Organizations, Civil Society Organizations, the private sector, the media, sub-national disaster management institutions, and local authorities.

UGANDA

The National Policy for Disaster Preparedness & Management includes a chapter dedicated to international cooperation

National and International Humanitarian Organizations and Non-Governmental organizations provide a pivotal role in mobilizing and sensitizing masses about risk, hazards and disasters that affect communities and how to manage them.

c. Overall allocation of financial resources for recovery from government and bilateral/ multilateral agencies

ANGOLA

The government of Angola allocates resources in the national budget to the National Commission of Civil Protection (NCCP) for disaster response and reconstruction. Based on the reports provided by the GoA and the UN agencies, it is estimated that a total of Angolan kwanza (AKZ) 18.78 billion (USD 192.5 million) was provided by the government to assist the populations affected by droughts in the three most affected provinces, in the 2012-2016 period. The FAO and UNDP funded resilience programs on food production.

There is an ongoing process for the development and operationalization of a Strategic Investment Framework, along with a dedicated Fund for Resilience Building.

As a concrete instrument for financing drought recovery, the Ministry of Finance has created the AcordoEstiagem (meaning agreement on drought), a specific program where all the financial resources allocated to the sectors are available, and subject to control and monitoring.

BURKINA FASO

In Burkina Faso, the National Solidarity Fund collects the donations from various sources including the State and individuals. A National Fund for the prevention and management of disaster risks (Fonds National de prévention et de Gestion des risques de Catastrophes FONAGEC) exists, and there are recommendations for setting up a Climate Fund. Burkina Faso does not have a national strategy or a centralized mechanism for financing disaster risks and recovery. The government is now considering the operationalization of a National Fund for the Prevention and Management of Disaster Risks.

CABO VERDE

In this country, the Decree 68/2009 of December 23 created the National Emergency Fund (Chapter III, art.10). This fund has not been institutionalized as an autonomous organization, but is understood as a specific purpose budgetary appropriation, fed by an annual allocation of the state budget and whose management depends on the Directorate General of the State Treasure. In relation to the purpose of this fund, its scope is limited to financing local authorities for the recovery of public equipment under their responsibility. In this sense, this financial mechanism is exclusively for the physical rehabilitation of public facilities and infrastructures under the supervision of the Municipalities. The mechanism chosen for the execution of this fund is the signing of concession contracts, the execution and follow-up of which is done by departments at the central level that support local authorities[11].

Even though the fund has been legally established, it has not been fed by specific budget headings of

[11] The Decree 67/2009 of 23 December regulates the declaration of public calamity. In the process of declaring a public calamity, the legislator requires the Government to issue this declaration, formalized through a resolution of the Council of Ministers. The decree furthermore establishes how the coordination and the control of public calamities should be handled.

Table 3: Participation of Various Stakeholders in the Recovery Process

	Intl. Agencies	NGOs	Private Sector	Explanatory comments
Level of collaboration: 1=Permanent recovery entity 2 = Semi-permanent 3 = Irregular meetings 4 = No collaboration				
Regional Stakeholders				
AU	1	2	4	The AU Commission will reconstitute the Africa Working Group on Disaster Risk Reduction to provide coordination and technical support to Member States. Joint planning and programming of the activities to implement the approved Programme of Action will be undertaken by AU Member States, RECs, NEPAD Planning and Coordinating Agency (NCPA), UN Agencies, development partners, Civil Society Organizations and other relevant institutions.
ECOWAS	1	3	4	The ECOWAS Policy on DRR establishes a Disaster Risk Reduction Division within the Department of Humanitarian and Social Affairs which supports, facilitates and coordinates the implementation of the Policy within the Commission and the sub-region. The DRR Division works closely with its strategic partners, namely AU, UNISDR, UNDP, IFRC and the World Bank.
EAC	1	3	3	The EAC DRR and Management Bill of 2013 calls on every Partner State to promote the active involvement and participation of the private sector, academic institutions, non-governmental organizations and local communities, in the work of Disaster Management.
SADAC	1	4	4	The heads of the National Disaster Management Units, together with their technical experts, comprise the SADC Disaster Management Technical Unit
National governments				
Angola	1	2	4	Coordination between the national system and the UN and its partners is effected through the CNPC and the Disaster Management Team (UNDMT), including through technical groups comprising representatives from every sector and organization. The Civil Protection National Commission (CNPC) coordinates with the UNDMT on a regular basis. UN OCHA's Central Emergency Response Fund (CERF) has supported the Ministry of Agriculture (MINADERP), the Ministry of Health (MoH), and Ministry of Social Welfare (MINARS). UNDP/OCHA, UNICEF and IOM have also supported a drought rapid assessment in 2014. Donors are directly supporting recovery in the three provinces covered by the PDNA: the European Union through the FRESAN project; the GEF through a project in the Cuvelai basin and USAID on supporting targeted regions. The Ministries of Planning, Finance and Territorial Administration are engaged in the coordination and monitoring. Ministries of Agriculture, Health, Energy and Water and Education lead the recovery actions within their mandate. Provincial and Municipal authorities are integrating the prioritized recovery actions within their regular planning.

	Intl. Agencies	NGOs	Private Sector	Explanatory comments
Level of collaboration: 1=Permanent recovery entity		**2 = Semi-permanent**	**3 = Irregular meetings**	**4 = No collaboration**
Burkina Faso	1	2	4	Implementation partners: Government, UNDP, UNICEF, UN-HABITAT, WHO, FAO, WFP, UNOPS, World Bank, European Union. Humanitarian Coordination Group (RC, UNCT, donors, bilateral, NGO, Red Cross Movement). Humanitarian Coordination Group (UN Resident Coordinator, UNCT, donors, bilateral agencies, NGOs, Red Cross Movement). UNDP has contributed to strengthening SP/CONASUR's capacities through two projects, and FAO/WFP have developed a roadmap for Disaster Risk Reduction 2012-2015. UNDP and UNISDR regional offices have supported disaster impact databases and public investment for climate change adaptation and risk management in the field. Recovery process, after the 2009 flooding, was based on the participation of the ministries directly involved in the recovery actions, the Ouagadougou municipality, as well as CONASUR and CORESUR.
Cabo Verde	2	2	2	UN agencies such as FAO; national and international NGOs; and the private sector. The UN system supports recovery through its specialized agencies (UNDP, FAO and UNICEF). UNCT supports the planning and implementation of recovery interventions. IFRC supports the Red Cross. International Financial Institutions (IFIs) such as the World Bank and the African Development Bank (but also BADEA, the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development) provide loans and technical assistance for recovery and reconstruction programs. Donors such as Luxembourg, Portugal, France, the Netherlands, Australia, China, Angola, Spain, Brazil, the European Union and regional partners such as ECOWAS or CPLP, are also supporting recovery processes. At the national level, several institutions and sectors are participating in terms of resources and provision of relevant expertise.
Ethiopia	1	1	3	Ethiopia has a good practice of stakeholder participation and a decentralized and community-based system. The DRM-ATF Disaster Risk Management Agricultural Task Force (2016) brings together UN agencies such as the FAO, national and international NGOs and the private sector.
Kenya	3	3	4	DRM governance has not fully been devolved to the local communities in Kenya save for ad hoc efforts mostly undertaken by NGOs

	Intl. Agencies	NGOs	Private Sector	Explanatory comments
Level of collaboration: 1=Permanent recovery entity 2 = Semi-permanent 3 = Irregular meetings 4 = No collaboration				
Malawi	1	2	4	The HCT comprises the Heads of UN Agencies, international and local NGOs, Government, and the Malawi Red Cross Society. This team is chaired by the UNRC. For coordination of the current response, donors and heads of Government Ministries and Departments have been co-opted into the HCT. To ensure better coordination for the disaster assessment and emergency response at operational level, ten clusters were activated. The clusters are led by government and co-led by UN agencies and the Malawi Red Cross Society, and most have developed response plans.
Mozam-bique	1	2	4	HCT is a forum comprised of UN agencies, the Red Cross and international non-governmental organizations led by the UN-designated Humanitarian Coordinator. HCT clusters are embedded in the post-disaster coordination sectors in support to coordination of relief operations during emergencies. These clusters include: Shelter, Telecommunications, Logistics, Protection and Education; Food Security, Health, Nutrition, Water and Sanitation and Early Recovery. UN agencies (UNICEF, WFP, FAO, UN-Habitat), Bilateral and Multilateral agencies are supporting the Government of Mozambique in the adoption and implementation of DRM actions. The HCT is constituted by UN agencies, the Red Cross and international NGOs. HCT clusters are embedded in post-disaster coordination sectors and coordinate relief operations during emergencies. Multi-sectorial institutions, such as the Ministries of Planning and Development; Governmental Administration and Public Function; and Finance and Economy, all play a key role in the coordination of DRM actions. In terms of recovery, all the sectorial institutions are participating in the planning and implementation of post-impact activities.
Niger	3	3	3	DNPGCCA plays an advocacy role and manages humanitarian aid. Advocacy role is targeted to civil society, NGOs, and donors supporting the framework. Humanitarian aid support to people displaced by conflicts and floods has recently been deployed within the Ministry of Humanitarian Action and Disaster Management (HADM) established in May 2016. Consultation with donors is conducted through the Mixed Concertation Committee (CMC), chaired by the Prime Minister, the Restricted Concertation Committee (CRC), chaired by the Prime Minister's chief of staff, and the Extended Concertation Committee (CEC), chaired by the DNPGCCA's Permanent Secretary.

	Intl. Agencies	NGOs	Private Sector	Explanatory comments
Level of collaboration: 1=Permanent recovery entity 2 = Semi-permanent 3 = Irregular meetings 4 = No collaboration				
Nigeria	1	1	3	The National Platform of Disaster Risk Reduction in Nigeria is constituted by government Ministries, Departments, Agencies, Civil Society groups, and Development Partners. The National Platform, which is the Secretariat, developed a National Action Plan for DRR and is working to review and update the Plan. It coordinates the activities of the National Platform.
Rwanda	1	3	2	There are regular mechanisms such as the National Platform for Disaster Risk Reduction (NPDRR), sectorial working groups and project steering committees where partners, donors and stakeholders are regularly appraised and consulted on disaster management in the country. These are tools by which disaster information is generated, analyzed and shared. The same mechanisms and tools will be utilized in ensuring that disaster recovery issues, milestones, processes, plans, achievements and strategies are communicated well both internally and externally.
Uganda	2	2	4	The National Policy for Disaster Preparedness & Management includes a chapter dedicated to international cooperation. National and International Humanitarian Organizations and NGOs play a pivotal role in mobilizing and sensitizing masses about risk, hazards and disasters that affect communities and how to manage them. DEWS works in partnership with other EWS such as MAAIF, FEWS NET and UNMA. It is willing to collaborate with NEWS as a member of an EW sub-committee.

the State. Likewise, the decree does not specify a specific percentage of the state budget that should be allocated.

Another difficulty related to this national contingency fund is that the unused funds from the annual allocation cannot be carried over to the following year. This implies an inability to constitute contingent reserves that could be used in the event of a disaster.

The lack of capitalization of the fund, as well as the intrinsic limitations of the mechanisms presented above, allow us to better understand the reasons why, after the volcanic eruption of Fogo volcano or the floods of São Miguel, the government resorted to other ad hoc mechanisms.

In the case of the volcanic eruption of the Fogo volcano, the Fogo Reconstruction Fund was created ad hoc. This mechanism was formally established on 21 April 2015, in the form of a Reconstruction Fund (Decree No. 23/2015). The fund is defined as a special account in the public treasury and is set up to manage, in a transparent and controlled manner, all the financial resources allocated and mobilized for the recovery. The fund was overseen by the General Directorate of the Treasury, guaranteeing as such the accountability of the fund's management. Foreign aid received to support reconstruction and recovery was also channeled through this Reconstruction Fund, which operates as a special treasury account with specific budgetary and programmatic control functions.

The fund was fed by four types of resources: tax revenue collected from 0.5% of VAT increase upon the eruption to support the reconstruction; other appropriations provided for in the State Budget; subsidies and other financial support provided by public and private institutions or individuals, as humanitarian aid to the populations and municipalities affected by the eruption; and finally,any other allowances, extraordinary allocations or funds set aside for recovery needs.

The fund was operated through the normal systems of public finance management. Its management is subject to the accounting standards applied to state budgets and programs, which are managed with SIGOF tools. The fund is also subject to the Court of Auditors, established in 1993 and considered a key partner in the effort to increase accountability in the use of public resources. This fund not only maintains and disburses foreign aid and donor contributions, it also receives the tax revenue from said increase in VAT and other contributions from the state budget.

In addition, in terms of programmatic and strategic control, the Reconstruction Office was responsible for approving and validating programmatic proposals for the use of the Fund. The National Directorate for the Budget was the unit responsible for financial control, monitoring and accountability to State institutions and donors on the use of aid. Most donors, even private donors, directed their support through government channels and plans. This reflects a good degree of confidence of the international partners in the mechanisms of financial management of the public sector.

ETHIOPIA

Since the period of 2007-08, there has been a gradual but determined paradigmatic shift of focus of the government from relief and response towards risk reduction. The government reported in its National progress report on the implementation of the Hyogo Framework for Action (2013-2015) that "considerable amount of resources has been invested in risk assessments, mitigation measures and preparedness. However, with increasing frequency of disasters, the response measures continue unabated, which also places a lot of pressure on available resources".

The UNDAF (United Nations Development Assistance Framework), led by the Ministry of Finance and Economic Development (MOFED), National Food Security strategies and social protection programs such as PSNP, are geared towards the increased resilience of communities. Improved focus for Developing Regional States (DRS) is also another major consideration by the government and its Development Partners in building communities' resilience through budget allocations.

The DRM Programme is being carried out with the support of many donors, including the Government of Japan, the Swiss Development Cooperation Agency, the African Union, the Central Emergency Response Funds, the Government of Greece, as well as UNDP's core funding.

KENYA

The Government has a national consolidated disaster management fund. However, it is under-resourced and does not have specific disaster fund allocation. In July 2011, the Ministry of Finance allocated US$160million drawn from national contingency funds and budget reallocations to support drought response by line ministries. In 2012, approximately US$120million (0.3% of GDP) were set aside and an expected US$140million were to be set aside in 2013.

The frequency and severity of the disasters being experienced by Kenya attract most of the funds available towards response, leaving little or none for risk reduction. There are no contingency funds for emergency response, given the competing needs for funding. Given the lack of adequate funding, devolving DRM to the local level is a key challenge. Priority for response and poverty eradication has continued to supersede risk reduction.
Looking over the last decade, the Government has spent approximately US$1.9 billion in emergency assistance (66% of total), whereas donors and other humanitarian funding provided approximately US$1 billion (34% of total). The Government has also reallocated budget to post-disasters in order to meet the response costs subsequent to the emergency.

MALAWI

The extensive history of work on risk management for drought and food security in Malawi, combined with work that has been done on flood risk management, create a strong foundation for moving forward with the design and implementation of a National Disaster Risk Financing Strategy. Response capacity could benefit from more dedicated sources of domestic funding.

Risk financing instruments include contingency funds/reserves, contingent loans, market-based risk transfer tools, and regional risk pools that draw on these tools. These tools are designed to put in place—prior to a shock—the financial arrangements necessary to respond to a shock. They are not designed to finance long-term reconstruction measures.

Considering there is no direct allocation of funds to the Multi-Hazard National Contingency Plan, it is up to the National Disaster Appeal Fund to release funds. Though, this process does not guarantee adequate and timely disbursement required to operationalize the plan.

The unpredictability and inadequacy of funds, specifically for preparedness and response, further hampers the response capacity as the country relies on the financial support of the international community.

In 2016, Malawi purchased a drought insurance product from the African Risk Capacity (ARC) to be used as the primary instrument for risk financing. From a policy perspective, the Government's engagement in ARC was anchored in the National Disaster Risk Management Policy (approved by the Cabinet in 2015) and in the Malawi Growth and Development Strategy (2012-2016), which called for the development of an annual national contingency plan written by DoDMA.

The government and ARC are currently exploring the reasons why the Africa Risk View's end-of-season report will indicate that this year's drought was not severe enough to trigger a payout from ARC's insurance coverage, despite evidence from other evaluations, including the MVAC, that the situation is severe and affecting a much larger number of people.

The World Bank has already provided US$80 million to support recovery and reconstruction.

MOZAMBIQUE

In May of 2000, Mozambique used the International Reconstruction Conference to raise funds for its post-flood recovery. It was highly successful, as

it mobilized a total of US$449.5 million. There were several reasons for the extraordinarily high level of donor response: for instance, the pre-existing level of donor support to the country and the credibility of the appeal document. The government's rapid post-conference follow-up and quick signing of legally binding agreements with the donors to firm up their pledges was also important[12].

The World Bank issued a Flood Emergency Recovery project loan of US$30 million after the 2000 floods to help Mozambique maintain its macroeconomic stability by supporting a higher level of imports necessary for relief and recovery activities. According to the World Bank's assessment, supported by the government, the loan achieved its main objective of stabilizing the economy after the floods.

Nowadays, Government-managed funding for disasters takes several forms, including ex-ante and ex-post budgetary provisions for disaster response, recovery and reconstruction. Contingency funds for disaster response and short-term recovery are made available to line ministries, local government, and the National Institute for Disaster Management (INGC) through two mechanisms:

- **Central reserve provisions:** The Ministry of Finance withholds 10per cent of each sector and local government budget in reserve for unforeseen expenditure, such as disaster losses. If the funds are not used for contingency spending, they are released for planned expenditure in the last three months of the fiscal year.
- **The Contingency Plan:** Each year since 2008, the government has allocated US$3.5 to 4 million to cover a percentage of the funds necessary for disaster response and early recovery. The calculations of funds needed are based on population exposure, historical activity and meteorological forecasts under three different scenarios presented in the annual contingency plan. The state provision is typically sufficient to fund the first 72 hours of a disaster; the remaining funds are provided by international cooperation partners. INGC is allocated more than half of the total budget, given its disaster response and coordination responsibilities.

NIGER

Donors provide support under a memorandum of understanding signed on February 28, 2005. The memorandum defines the modalities of partnership between the government and donors who support technically or contribute financially to the prevention and management of food crises in Niger.

The two key modalities of intervention relate to the Common Intervention Fund which finances prevention/alleviation actions and studies, and the National Food Reserve with an optimal capacity of 110,000 tons. Signatories to this framework include multilateral organizations (European Union, World Bank, UNDP, WFP, FAO and UNICEF) and bilateral donors (France, Switzerland, Italy, Germany, Belgium, Canada, Luxembourg and Spain). The European Union, the biggest contributor, is the lead donor.
Between 2011 and 2015, Niger mobilized CFAF700 billion under the agreement to finance the Support Plan to Vulnerable Populations (PSPV).

Niger subscribed to the African Risk Capacity (ARC), which has been providing drought insurance to African Union member countries since 2013. For a premium of CFAF 1.5 billion, Niger recently received from ARC CFAF 1.9 billion that was used to cover activities in regions hit by drought.

NIGERIA

One per cent of the national budget is allocated to the mitigation of ecological problems and underlying risk factors. Twenty per cent of the Fund is allocated directly to the Disaster

[12] In the appeal, the government stressed its commitment to maintain macroeconomic stability. Recovery expenditure would be included in an additional government budget, separate from the main budget in order to avoid imbalances with ongoing programs. The government aimed to make the impact of recovery income and expenditure on the national budget neutral. The negative economic impacts of the floods were offset by the positive response of the donors during the conference.

Management Agency (NEMA). Federal Ministries such as Environment and Health, which contribute to disaster risk reduction and mitigation as well as States and local governments, also benefit from allocations.

In November 2009, a MoU between NEMA and six universities was established to build national capacities for disaster risk reduction by establishing Centers of Disaster Risk Management and Development Studies. This effort is being supported by a US$660,000 grant from the GFDRR to provide high-level, state-of-the-art tertiary education and research on disaster risk reduction/management and facilitate its mainstreaming in national economic planning.

RWANDA

The funding of post-disaster recovery and rehabilitation remains the responsibility of various sectors of the Government. The latter encourages the inclusion of disaster risk reduction and mitigation measures at state level by facilitating financial assistance. In the absence of such measures, the burden of funding disaster recovery might remain within the affected sphere of government.

UGANDA

The Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic Development in liaison with the Office of the Prime Minister has drafted a National Disaster Preparedness and Management Fund Bill[13]. The Bill should, among others, provide for the annual allocation of a minimum of 1.5 % of the annual approved budget to the National Disaster Preparedness and Management Fund. The fund will be used for Disaster Preparedness and Management in the country. International and other National Development partners should be encouraged to contribute to the fund. A transparent mechanism of accessing resources from the fund should be worked out.

The first type of activity is to be managed directly by the GoU through its different sectorial Ministries and units, with assistance from NGOs whenever they may provide significant economies in its implementation. The second type of activity is to be channeled through the private banking sector and/or the development bank, as special post-drought credit under soft conditions of interest and repayment periods. While the government would not execute or finance the second set of recovery and reconstruction activities, it will play an advocacy role with the private banks to ensure the establishment of such credit lines.

Contingency (or site-specific) financing is most appropriate for managing moderate drought risks. National budgets must make adequate provisions in case of disasters, and local governments should be empowered with more resources to address urgent needs. At the same time, the role of the private sector should be increased, since disasters affect a wide spectrum of stakeholders, from the international level down to the individual level.

Per the National Policy, funding for recovery and reconstruction as well as disaster management in general can come from several sources. Suggested sources include:

a) Government budget;
b) Financial support from international development partners;
c) Borrowing from multilateral and bilateral sources, including on accelerated emergency terms;
d) Reallocation of funds under ongoing donor-supported projects and programs;
e) Local governments that have the accumulated resources to support recovery and reconstruction in their communities;
f) The private sector, through use of savings, insurance proceeds when available, and commercial credit;
g) "Sweat equity" through community contributions at the local level, particularly in providing the required labor and implementing the recommended disaster risk reduction operations, especially on the land.

[13] https://opm.go.ug/disaster-preparedness-and-management/

Table 4: Financing for Recovery

Source of Financing	1	2	3	4	1= Government budget allocation 2 = Bilateral agencies 3= Multilateral agencies 4 = Regional funds for disasters
Angola	x	x	x		NCCP (National Commission of Civil Protection) allocates resources in the national budget for disaster response and reconstruction. FAO and UNDP funded resilience programs on food production. Within the framework of the Permanent Interagency Regional Commission (RIASCO), Angola has an action plan jointly with other Southern African countries affected by the drought.
Burkina Faso	x	x	x		The National Solidarity Fund collects the donations from various sources including the State and individuals. A National Fund for the prevention and management of disaster risks (FONAGEC) exists, and there are recommendations for setting up the Climate Fund. Burkina Faso does not have a national strategy or a centralized mechanism for financing disaster risks and recovery. The government is now considering the operationalization of a National Fund for the Prevention and Management of Disaster Risks.
Cabo Verde	x	x	x		A Reconstruction Fund has been established with the intent of serving as a basket fund for government and external contributions (donors, private sector, and so forth). According to Decree 68/2009 of December 23 there is a National Emergency Fund in Cape Verde, its scope limited to financing local authorities for the recovery of public equipment under their responsibility.
Ethiopia	x	x	x	x	The DRM Programme is being carried out with the support of several donors, including the Government of Japan, the Swiss Development Cooperation Agency, the African Union, the CERF, the Government of Greece, as well as UNDP's core funding and resources managed by UNDP Crisis Bureau.
Kenya	x		x	x	The Government has a national consolidated disaster management fund. The Government and donor organisations have equally shared emergency assistance costs. Moreover, a Drought Contingency Fund (DCF) managed under the National Drought Management Authority is cushioning lives and livelihoods of communities vulnerable to drought. The DCF provides flexible financial resources that have been set aside and can be disbursed at short notice to respond to drought threats. Its main objective is to facilitate early mitigation efforts to reduce the time between warning of drought stress and response at county level[14].

[14] http://www.ndma.go.ke/index.php/success-stories/62-contingency-funds-facilitate-timely-response-to-drought

Source of Financing	1	2	3	4	1= Government budget allocation 2 = Bilateral agencies 3= Multilateral agencies 4 = Regional funds for disasters
					The Government has also reallocated budget post disasters to meet emergency response costs. In July 2011, the Ministry of Finance allocated US$160million drawn from national contingency funds and budget reallocations to support drought response by line ministries.
Malawi	x	x	x		The World Bank has provided US$80 million to support recovery and reconstruction. Malawi looks forward to more support from development partners, corporate sector and individuals.
Mozambique	x	x	x		Government-managed funding for disasters includes ex-ante and ex-post budgetary provisions for disaster response, recovery and reconstruction. Contingency funds for disaster response and short-term recovery are made available to line ministries, local government, and the National Institute for Disaster Management.
Niger	x		x	x	Donors provide support under a MoU signed in 2005. The two key modalities of intervention relate to the Common Intervention Fund (FCI), to finance prevention/alleviation actions and studies, and the National Food Reserve (SNR) with an optimal capacity of 110,000 tons.
Nigeria	x	x	x	x	One per cent of the national budget is allocated to mitigate Ecological Problems and the underlying risk factors. Twenty per cent of the Fund is allocated directly to the Disaster Management Agency (NEMA). Others are utilized by the Federal Ministries such Environment, Health and others that contribute to disaster risk reduction and mitigation, as well as States and local governments.
Rwanda	x	x	x	x	In Rwanda, the government has specific schemes for providing funds for disaster management activities for recovery.
Uganda	x	x	x		The funding of post-disaster recovery and rehabilitation remains the responsibility of the various sectors of Government. Any financial assistance provided by and to any organ of state needs to take into consideration the presence of disaster reduction and mitigation measures. In the absence of such measures, the burden of funding disaster recovery might remain within the affected sphere of government. A National Disaster Preparedness and Management Fund Bill has been drafted.

Source: Based on official government reports, reports by United Nations agencies and studies from academic institutions.

d. Key recovery institutions/ both at national and regional level

ANGOLA

No institution is officially mandated to plan and implement disaster recovery in Angola. In 2013, the GoA established an Inter-Ministerial Commission for the coordination of all sectorial efforts to support the drought-affected populations in the country. This Commission is led by the Minister of Planning and comprised of the heads of MINAGRI, MINEA, MINARS, MAT, and MININT, which did not fully follow the structure established in the National Civil Protection System.

The National Preparedness, Contingency, Response and Recovery Plan (2009-2014) included a specific module for Disaster Recovery and aspired to elaborate on needs assessment and a strategy. However, that part of the plan was never implemented.

Based on that experience, the new National Plan for Preparedness, Contingency, Response, and Recovery from Calamities and Disasters 2015-2017 emphasizes the importance of defining the recovery phase, developing institutional guidelines for its implementation, delineating governmental and partners' responsibilities and agreeing on a budgeting process as well as on intervention timelines. The National Civil Protection Commission, with the support of UNDP, is leading the recovery and resilience planning.

BURKINA FASO

The country has created the National Council for Emergency Relief and Rehabilitation (CONASUR) in 2004. In 2007, a National Policy on Social Affairs was adopted. DRM is part of the problematic being addressed by the policy.

Other instances at the national level have specific roles in disaster management and recovery. For instance, the National Society for the Management of Food Security Stocks (SONAGESS) created in 1994, supervises the Cereal Policy and Food Security in Burkina Faso. The General Directorate of Civil Protection (DGPC), working in close collaboration with the National Fire Brigade, is responsible for defining all measures required to safeguard property and people in the event of major disasters.

In 2016, a consultation process was conducted with the purpose of elaborating a Framework for Post-Disaster Recovery. Some of the findings, in terms of institutional arrangements were: (1) the absence of decrees implementing the Law 012-2014/AN, (2) the weak institutional anchoring of CONASUR, (3) the multiplicity of emergency management and coordination structures, and (4) the weak consideration of the rehabilitation/ recovery component in the actual system.

CABO VERDE

There is no pre-established mechanism in Cabo Verde for the management of the post-disaster recovery phase. In the absence of a pre-determined body, the government has opted for the creation of a series of ad-hoc structures. Initially, the Fire Reconstruction Office and later the Inter-Ministerial Reconstruction Commission, oversaw the recovery coordination. In both cases, the executive would entrust planning, coordination, execution and follow-up of the recovery initiatives.

The Commission, created by Resolution no. 13/2015, was conceived as a structure with a temporary two-year assignment operating under the authority of the Prime Minister. Despite its nature as a mission structure, the Commission was endowed with administrative, financial and patrimonial autonomy. This structure was conceived as the successor of the Reconstruction Office responsible for the support and reconstruction of the damage resulting from the volcanic eruption of Fogo.

The government entrusts the Commission with essential functions for any recovery process, such as needs assessment, planning of recovery interventions[15], coordination of the process, technical management and execution of the programs, management of the mobilized funds and the follow-up of the different recovery programs, the ultimate objective of which is "to restore the socio-economic conditions of the affected localities".

ETHIOPIA

The DRR/LR programme which is being implemented by the government of Ethiopia has allowed for experience in the field of recovery. The Disaster Risk Management and Food Security Sector (DRMFSS) of the Ministry of Agriculture and the Ministry of Finance and Economic Development (MOFED) are the accountable

[15] For instance, in this case, the resolution explicitly refers to the projection of infrastructures as well as reconstruction of new settlements

structures for its implementation, with technical and financial support from the UNDP.

The intermediate evaluation of the programme highlighted that "DRR is a long-term process, and it needs long-term investment of time, money and capacity. Injecting short-term emergency funding every time there is a crisis is not the longer-term approach that is needed ".

KENYA

The National Drought Management Authority (NDMA), a statutory body established on November 24 of 2011, withholds the mandate to establish mechanisms preventing emergencies in the event of droughts, mitigating the impacts of climate change. The NDMA has the mandate to exercise general supervision and coordination over matters relating to drought management in Kenya.

The Authority is also expected to provide support to the national and county governments and communities to prepare for and react to drought and its impacts.

MALAWI

The institutional framework for DRR is comprised of the Secretary to the Vice-President and Commissioner for Disaster Management Affairs, the National Disaster Preparedness and Relief Committee (NDPRC), Civil Protection Committees (CPCs) and Department of Disaster Management Affairs (DoDMA), which were created through the DPR Act of 1991. There is no specific institutional mandate for recovery in the national normative framework.

MOZAMBIQUE

Mozambique's national disaster management bodies are defined in the 1999 National Policy on Disaster Management. To respond to the resettlement needs of people affected by disasters, the multi-sectorial Reconstruction Coordination Office (GACOR) was created in 2007 under the authority of the National Institute for Disaster Management (INGC). Its main prerogative is to coordinate the resettlement of vulnerable populations.

With the adoption of the 15/2014 Law regarding disaster management, recovery has been included as part of the formal mandate of DRR structures in Mozambique. Nevertheless, INGC's organizational structure has not been modified or adapted since the approval of the Law.

NIGER

Niger has developed over time a strong risk prevention and management framework for natural disasters. The framework for prevention and management of disasters and food crises (DNPGCCA), initially established in 1989 as the food crisis cell (CCA), has been strengthened with donor support since the early 2000s, and particularly in 2006, 2012 and 2014.

The Support Plan to Vulnerable Populations (PSPV) which is DNPGCCA's central operational framework, can be considered a recovery plan; it details interventions for populations affected by food and nutritional crises, as well as by natural disasters. Nonetheless, a review of the framework would be required for the PSPV to fulfil its recovery capacity.

NIGERIA

The National Disaster Management Framework (NDMF) provides the mechanism that serves as a regulatory guideline for effective and efficient disaster management in Nigeria. The framework defines measurable, flexible and adaptable coordinating structures, and aligns key roles and responsibilities of disaster management stakeholders across the nation. It describes specific authorities and best practices for managing disasters and explains a paradigm shift in disaster management beyond mere response and recovery.

UGANDA

There is no recovery or reconstruction organization officially established in the country. The reconstruction process in 2012 was led directly by the Office of the Prime Minister.

The National Policy for Disaster Preparedness & Management includes recovery as part of the approach to Disaster Risk Reduction (DRM). It has been established under the authority of national and local structures. Nevertheless, the present legal and institutional framework for DRM is mostly oriented towards emergency response and less towards risk reduction.

[16] http://www.et.undp.org/content/ethiopia/en/home/library/environment_energy/DRMmidtermevaluation2014.html

Table 5: Establishment of recovery institutions

Country	yes	no	Additional information
Angola		x	No institution is officially mandated to plan and implement disaster recovery in Angola. The National Plan for Preparedness, Contingency, Response, and Recovery from Calamities and Disasters 2015-2017 emphasizes the importance of defining the recovery phase, developing institutional guidelines for its implementation, delineating governmental and partners' responsibilities and agreeing on a budgeting process as well as on intervention timelines. In 2013, the GoA established an Inter-Ministerial Commission that would coordinate all the sectorial efforts to support the drought-affected population in the country, led by the Minister of Planning and comprised of the heads of MINAGRI, MINEA, MINARS, MAT, and MININT, which did not fully follow the structure established in the National Civil Protection System
Burkina Faso		x	The 2016 workshop recommends creating a department in charge of rehabilitation although there is a National Council for Emergency Relief and Rehabilitation.
Cabo Verde	x		For the 2009 Fogo eruption, a Reconstruction Cabinet was created as a structure responsible for planning, execution, and monitoring of the recovery initiatives.
Ethiopia	x		National Implementation Modality 2012-2015
Kenya	x		Unclear if this has been established
Malawi	x		National Disaster Recovery Framework (NDRF) was set up for the 2015 floods.
Mozambique	x		Mozambique's national disaster management bodies are defined in the 1999 National Policy on Disaster Management. In order to respond to the resettlement needs of people affected by disasters, in 2007 the multisectoral Reconstruction Coordination Office (GACOR) was created under the INGC to work with coordinating the resettlement of vulnerable populations.
Republic of Niger		x	Niger has developed over time a strong risk prevention and management framework for natural disasters (Fig. 6). The framework for prevention and management of disasters and food crises (DNPGCCA), initially established in 1989 as the food crisis cell (CCA), has been strengthened with donor support since the early 2000s, and particularly in 2006, 2012 and 2014.

Country	yes	no	Additional information
Nigeria	x		National Platform for DRR. The National Platform is still evolving and aims to meet regularly.
Rwanda		x	In Rwanda, the disaster management policy places primary importance on the role of the Government as a central actor in disaster management which includes recovery. The policy stressed that it shall be the responsibility of every Ministry and public institutions of the Government of Rwanda, in accordance with the guidance of the Ministry of Disaster Management and Refugee Affairs, to assess disaster damages and losses and carry out recovery and reconstruction. The National Disaster Management Policy specifically indicated that for a Level 4 disaster—a major disaster requiring international assistance—the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning (MINECOFIN) is incharge of recovery with MIDIMAR co-leading the coordination role.
Uganda		x	There is no recovery or reconstruction organization. Reconstruction processes in 2012 were led by the Office of the Prime Minister.

Source: Based on official government reports, reports by United Nations agencies and studies from academic institutions

Chapter 5. Conclusions and the Way Forward

The conclusions and recommendations for the way forward are not only derived from an analysis of the preceding literature review of the eleven countries studied and the findings presented as the baseline data. They are also based on the insights gained through the investigation on the ground, details of which are captured and presented in the case studies found in Annex 1 of the study.

Key Achievements

- Countries in the region have established concrete commitments for ensuring the transition from disaster response/relief to recovery and risk-centered approaches. In a differentiated manner, according to their own historic and geographical characteristics, risk profile and governance capacities, almost all the countries have developed tools and technical capacities to adapt their institutional structures to the challenges of disaster risk management.

- One of the policy initiatives which have been used as a recovery measure and which is found in almost all selected countries, is the Social Safety Net Programmes (SSNPs) although in different versions. Such programmes include pensions for the elderly, child grants for differently abled children or adults, school feeding programmes or cash for food or work programmes and grants for home repair. Although difficult, the scaling up SSNPs as a response to disasters and shocks has been achieved in some countries and used to meet the needs of the affected populations.

- Some governments have achieved a good level of integration using national data sets that inform policy and planning, facilitating the integration of DRM and recovery in the NDA, of which Ethiopia is a good example.

- A solid partnership has been achieved between the international development partners, the AUC and the RECs in providing support to national governments and making the paradigm shift from relief to recovery. This is evidenced by the presence of more robust legal and policy frameworks.

- Many of the governments have made considerable progress towards addressing these issues in their national planning documents, which Slow Onset Disasters, such as droughts, proving that preventing emergencies is possible. Examples of this are evident both in Ethiopia and Kenya. In this sense, the fact that the Government of Angola has also adopted a Drought Recovery Framework for the next five years is an example that decisions can be made in that direction. The elaboration of post-flooding recovery strategies in Malawi and Cabo Verde are also solid steps in the direction of a more systematic management of recovery in the region.

Gaps and Opportunities

- In many of the cases, the capacities of the technocrats managing the DRM and recovery processes would require strengthening. In most instances, though legal frameworks have been put in place, only the fewest have shifted into a development recovery framework.

- The lack of coherence in the DRM processes is a concern. Various Line Ministries are responsible for different aspects of the recovery programme, but insufficient sharing of information or co-ordination at the top prevent efficient recovery.

- Identifying both the financial and technical resources necessary for recovery continues to be a challenge.

- Unconsolidated decentralization of DRM in the territory, with low capacities at regional, municipal and local levels, reduces the possibilities for the protection and recovery of local livelihoods and the empowerment of communities and local actors through the recovery process.

- A major gap which has been identified is the inability of governments and their technocrats to make the best use possible of the existing tools for the assessment of disasters. Of equal importance is the inability to address the issues of disenfranchised and/or marginalized groups and the involvement of those groups as stakeholders in their own recovery processes.

- In some countries which were examined, a grey area was discovered regarding the responsibility for post-disaster recovery. This policy implementation gap left a dissonance between humanitarian action, recovery efforts and the development agenda, including the regular planning and budgeting process of sectors and decentralized authorities.

- Despite progress in the use of national data sets, a wider and better use of social and demographic data as part of recovery planning would strengthen recovery.

Challenges

- According to the International Recovery Platform, the overwhelming pressure to act quickly, or the tyranny of the urgent, arguably poses the greatest challenge to recovery decision-makers, planners and implementers. Disaster impact creates an environment for political action and presents a window of opportunities as well. Experience all over the world has showed that, even in countries with good levels of DRM policies, too often decisions are made based on political gain. This situation has been highlighted in many of the interviews as being a key challenge for implementing sound recovery planning and interventions.

- Financial mechanism for recovery, in a coordinated manner and with efficient risk retention, calls for the definition of specific pre-disaster financial strategies and protection products. None of the countries under survey can count on such instruments, and the common practice continues to

present budgetary stress and complex needs for ensuring multi-year investments. Improvisation at this level continues to be a strong characteristic of the process.

- Private sector involvement in recovery efforts are still tilted towards relief and have not taken root in recovery processes which address long term development outcomes.

- One of the key challenges is the need for stronger technical capacities at sectorial and territorial levels. The capacity of national and local teams needs to be strengthened to lead the PDNA processes, to identify the needs, to plan recovery interventions, and to implement them.

- Engaging women as key actors in recovery is still a challenge. Women should be given a more integrated role in the processes to ensure that gender differentials are regarded, respected and considered in the planning and implementation of the recovery programmes.

- Coordination between different government entities is always a governance challenge. There are more gains when there is real coherence of programmes and coordination between actors such as development planners, disaster risk managers and humanitarian actors.

- For decentralization to work in the interest of recovery, adequate training on DRM must be disseminated to sub-national and local levels, otherwise it can be a stumbling block to Recovery, as partisan views may override development agenda. This becomes a vexing issue, as it is necessary for recovery to be sustained and to be sustainable and that community actors participate in their own recovery.

The Way Forward

In order to move the recovery agenda forward and make recovery assistance predictable, effective and efficient, the main recommendations of the Study are as follows:

1. Recovery should be established as a distinct practice area within DRM and supported through dedicated legislation and procedures identifying responsible actors and defining the operational aspects of the process.

2. The notion of recovery needs to be expanded to include aspects of human and socio-economic recovery more prominently and as key elements of resilience building. Concurrently, this should lead to a vision of recovery as a multi-sectorial process in which multiple stakeholders are involved, including national and local governments, communities, and the private sector.

3. Coordination among actors involved in recovery should be improved, including with humanitarian actors.

4. The participation of the financial sector in the elaboration of pre-and post-disaster recovery frameworks should be pursued more consistently in order to identify budget schemes and market-based financial products for multi-year recovery processes. Reinforcing regional disaster funds and expanding their use could also be explored.

5. Recovery management capacities must be strengthened in several areas:
   - Post-disaster needs assessment and use of relevant information for recovery planning. Particularly, strengthen the capacity in livelihoods analysis and human impact to ensure its usefulness for designing interventions targeted at building resilience of affected population;
   - Formulation of recovery interventions including "building back better" measures;
   - Use of social protection programmes as a valuable tool for recovery. To this end, both managers and administrators of social protection programmes and DRM actors should be targeted;
   - Targeting and mechanisms to enable better involvement of vulnerable populations in safeguarding their livelihoods and assets in the aftermath of a disaster.

Annexures

Annex I: List of Acronyms

AfDB	African Development Bank
AKZ	Angolan Kuanza
ARC	African Risk Capacity
ARSDRR	African Regional Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction
ASAL	Arid and Semi-Arid Lands
AU	African Union
AUC	African Union Commission
AWG	Africa Working Group
BCPR	Bureau for Crisis Prevention and Recovery
CBO	Community-based Organizations
CCA	Climate Change Adaptation
CCGC	Coordinating Council for Disaster Management
CCPCCN	Coordinating Council for Preventing and Combating Natural Disasters
CDGRC	Local Disaster Risk Management Committees
CEC	Extended Concertation Committee
CENOE	National Emergency Operations Centre
CERF	Central Emergency Response Fund
CFAF	African Financial Community Franc
CIDP	County Integrated Development Plans
CMC	Mixed Concertation Committee
CMDRR	Community Managed Disaster Risk Reduction
CNDPF	Comprehensive National Development Planning Framework
CNPC	Civil Protection National Commission
CONASUR	Emergency and Rehabilitation National Council
CORESUR	Emergency and Rehabilitation Regional Council
CPC	Civil Protection Committees
CRC	Restricted Concertation Committee
CSO	Civil Society Organizations
CT-OVC	Cash Transfer for Orphans and Vulnerable Children
DCF	Drought Contingency Funds
DECOC	District Emergency Coordination and Operations Centers
DFID	UK Department for International Development
DIST	District Implementation Support Team
DoDMA	Department of Disaster Management Affairs
DMC	Drought Monitoring Centre

DPCCN	Department for Preventing and Combating Natural Disasters
DPPA	Disaster Prevention and Preparedness Agency
DPR	Department of Petroleum Resources
DRDPM	Disaster Preparedness and Management
DRM	Disaster Risk Management
DRMFSS	Disaster Risk Management Food Security Sector
DRR	Disaster Risk Reduction
DRR/LR	Disaster Risk Reduction/Livelihoods Recovery Programme
DRRM	Disaster Risk Reduction and Management
DRS	Developing Regional States
DRU	Disaster Response Units
DWG	Donor Working Group
EAC DRRM	East African Community Sub-Regional Platform for Disaster Risk Reduction
EAC	East African Community
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
EFSRA	Emergency Food Security Reserve Authority
EGS	Employment Generation Schemes
EIA	Environmental Impact Assessment
ENAMMC	National Strategy for Adaptation and Mitigation of Climate Change
ENRRD	National Strategy of Disaster Risk Reduction
ENSO	El Niño Southern Oscillation
ESMF	Environmental and Social Management Framework
EU	European Union
EWS	Early Warning Systems
EWRD	Early Warning and Response Directorate
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
FBO	Faith-based Organizations
FCI	Common Intervention Fund
FCT	Federal Capital Territory
FEWS	Flood Early Warning Systems
FGN	Federal Government of Nigeria
FIRP	Food Insecurity Response Plan
FIVIMS	Food Insecurity Vulnerability and Information Mapping Systems
FONAGEC	National Prevention and Management Fund of Disaster Risk
FFSSC	Federal Food Security Steering Committee
FFW	Food for Work
FRM	Financial Risk Manager
FSCB	Food Security Coordination Bureau
FSCD	Food Security Coordination Directorate
FSP	Food Security Program

GACOR	Reconstruction Coordination Office at the National Disaster Management Institute
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GFDRR	Global Facility for Disaster Risk Reduction
GIS	Geographic Information Systems
GNI	Gross National Income
GoA	Government of Angola
GOE	Government of Ethiopia
GOK	Government of Kenya
GoM	Government of Malawi
GOM	Government of Mozambique
GoU	Government of Uganda
GTP	Growth and Transformation Plan
HA	Humanitarian Action
HABP	Household Asset Building Program
HCT	Humanitarian Country Team
HDI	Human Development Index
HFA	Hyogo Framework for Action
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus Infection and Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
HSNP	Hunger Safety Net Programme
IASC	Inter-Agency Standing Committee
IATC	Inter-Agency Technical Committee
ICT	Information and Communication Technologies
IDA	International Development Association
IDB	Islamic Development Bank
IDMC	Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre
IDNDR	International Decade for Natural Disaster Reduction
IDP	Internally Displaced Persons
IG	Inspectorate of Government
INGC	National Institute for Disaster Management
INGO	International Non-Governmental Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IOM	International Organization for Migration
ICPAC	Climate Predictions and Applications Centre
ICT	Information Communication Technology
IGAD	Intergovernmental Authority on Development
IMR	Infant Mortality Rate
IMWG	Information Management Working Group
IPC	Integrated Food Security Phase Classification
ITCZ	Intertropical Convergence Zone
JCC	Joint Coordination Committee

JRIS	Joint Review and Implementation Support
JSOC	Joint Strategic Oversight Committee
KAC	Kebele Appeal Committee
KDHS	Kenya Demographic and Health Survey
KDM	Kenya Meteorological Department
KFSSG	Kenya Food Security Steering Group
KFSTF	Kebele Food Security Task Force
LEMA	Local Emergency Management Authority
LGA	Local Government Areas
LGDP	Local Government Development Plans
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
MAE	Ministry for State Administration
MARV	Marburg Virus
MASA	Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security
MDA	Ministries, Departments and Agencies
(F)MDA	Federal Ministries, Departments and Agencies
MEF	Ministry of Economics and Finance
MITADER	Ministry of the Earth, Environment and Rural Development
MDTF	Multi-Donor Trust Fund
MFERP	Malawi Floods Emergency and Recovery Project
MGDS	Malawi Growth and Development Strategy
MGLSD	Ministry of Gender, Labor and Social Development
MIDIMAR	Ministry of Disaster Management and Refugee Affairs
MINADERP	Ministry of Agriculture for Rural Development and Fisheries
MINARS	Ministry of Social Welfare
MOFED	Ministry of Finance and Economic Development
MoH	Ministry of Health
MOARD	Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development
MoU	Memorandum of Understanding
MP	Members of Parliament
MPD	Ministry of Planning and Development
MPI	Multidimensional Poverty Index
MZN	Mozambique Metical
MMR	Maternal Mortality Rates
MTEFF	Medium-Term Expenditure and Financing Framework
MTP	Medium Term Plan
MVAC	Malawi Vulnerability Assessment Committee
MT	Metric Ton
NAP	National Action Plan
NCCP	National Commission of Civil Protection
NCCRS	National Climate Change Response Strategy

NDA	National Development Agenda
NDDCF	National Drought and Disaster Contingency Fund
NDMA	National Drought Management Authority
NDMU	National Disaster Management Unit
NDOC	National Disaster Operations Centre
NDMEC	National Disaster Management Executive Committee
NDMF	National Disaster Management Framework
NDP	National Development Plans
NDPRC	National Disaster Preparedness and Relief Committee
NDRF	National Disaster Recovery Framework
NDRM	National Disaster Risk Management
NDRMC	National Disaster Risk Management Commission
NDRP	National Disaster Response Plan
NERA	National Emergency Relief Agency
NECOC	National Emergency Coordination and Operations Centre
NEMA	National Emergency Management Agency
NGN	Nigerian Naira
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NIMASA	Nigerian Maritime Administration and Safety Agency
NIMET	Nigerian Meteorological Agency
NIOMR	Nigerian Institute for Oceanography and Marine Research
NNPC	Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation
NOAA	National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
NPDRM	National Platform for Disaster Risk Management
NPDRR	National Platform for Disaster Risk Reduction
NRMD	Natural Resource Management Directorate
NSNP	National Safety Net Program
NSSNP	National Social Safety Net Project
NUSAF	Northern Uganda Social Action Fund
ODAMoz	Official Development Assistance to Mozambique Database
OFSP	Other Food Security Program
OPM	Office of the Prime Minister
OPVN	Niger's Office of Food Products
PASS	Payroll and Attendance Sheet System
PDNA	Post-Disaster Needs Assessments
PES	Economic and Social Plan
PESOD	District Annual Plan and Budget
PFMA	Public Finance Management Act
PHCN	Power Holding Company of Nigeria
PIM	Program Implementation Manual
PoA	Programme of Action

PRDP	Peace and Recovery Development Plan
PS	Partnership System
PSNP	Productive Safety Net Programme
PSPV	Support Plan to Vulnerable Populations
RBDA	River Development Agencies
RECs	Regional Economic Communities
REC	Renewable Energy Certificates
RF	Risk Financing
RFSCO	Regional Food Security Office
RIC	Regional Implementation Centers
RISDP	Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan
RRC	Relief & Rehabilitation Commission
RRT	Rapid Response Team
SADC DRR	Southern African Development Community Disaster Risk Reduction
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SAGA	Semi-Autonomous Government Agencies
SDMC	Sector Disaster Management Committee
SDP	Sector Development Plans
SEAF	Special Emergency Assistance Fund
SEMA	State Emergency Management Agencies
SIGOF	Integrated System of Budgetary and Financial Management
SETSAN	Technical Secretariat for Food Security and Nutrition
SISTAFE	System of the Financial Administration of the State
SNPCB	Firefighting and Civil Protection National Service
SNR	National Food Reserve
SNNP	Southern Nations, Nationalities and Peoples
SPIF	Strategic Programme and Investment Framework
SWC	Soil and Water Conservation
TA	Technical Assistant
TLU	Tropical Livestock Units
TST	Technical Support Team
UN	United Nations
UN OCHA	United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
UNAPROC	National Civil Protection Unit
UNCT	United Nations Country Team
UNDAF	United Nations Development Assistance Program
UNDMT	United Nations Disaster Management Team
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UN-Habitat	United Nations Human Settlements Programme
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees

UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
UNISDR	United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction
UNRC	United Nations Resident Coordinator
URCS	Uganda Red Cross Society
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VAT	Value Added Tax
WB	World Bank
WFP	World Food Programme
WFSTF	Woreda Food Security Task Force
WMO	World Meteorological Organization
WOARD	Woreda Office of Agriculture and Rural Development
WOFED	Woreda Office of Finance and Economic Development
WHO	World Health Organization

Annex II: Case Studies

Six country case studies were undertaken using a qualitative approach of guided in-depth interviews and the triangulation of data through examination of supporting literature. Countries were selected based on the experience of recovery. Countries were visited during the month of April, and each consultant visited three countries.

Interviews were established by UNDP country office staff with the guidance of consultants, and logistical support was provided.

Each case provided a unique opportunity to deepen the understanding of the complex nature of recovery, the challenges which country policymakers and technocrats faced in seeking to implement a recovery agenda and the lessons which could be shared not only for the Africa region but globally.

I. Ethiopia

1. Context

1.1. Socio-economic situation

The Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia is a multi-ethnic, multi-cultural and multi-lingual nation which comprises nine member states and two city administrations. It is the second most populated country in Africa with a population size of 108,374,665 as of September 17, 2018.[17]

Ethiopia's economy has grown at a rate between 8% and 11% annually for more than a decade, albeit from an extremely low base. The country is the fifth-fastest growing economy among the 188 IMF member countries[18] and seeks to become a lower middle-income country no later than 2025. Ethiopia has the lowest level of income-inequality in Africa and one of the lowest in the world, with a Gini coefficient of 33.2[19], comparable to that of the Scandinavian countries.

The share of the population below the poverty line[20] fell from 33.6 per cent in 2010 to 26.7 per cent in 2015[21].

Annual average income per capita increased from 377 USD in 2009/2010 to 691 USD by 2014/15. Growth has been driven by sustained progress in the agricultural and service sectors.

Ethiopia's ability to address poverty, food insecurity and various other socio-economic problems is highly dependent on the performance of the agricultural sector. This is true even though the agriculture's share of GDP has declined over the last seven years by approximately 9 per cent, from 53 per cent (2004/05) to 43 per cent (2012/13). Despite the growing share of the services sector to GDP,[22] a great majority of the population still depends on agriculture for their livelihood. The Ethiopian Labour Force Survey of 2013 indicated that about 73.0 per cent of the employed population were working in the agricultural sector.

The Ethiopian Human Development Report of 2014 noted that "a key feature of Ethiopia's development over the past decade has been a tremendous expansion in social infrastructure". Notably, access to primary and secondary education, health services, and housing conditions,

[17] http://worldpopulationreview.com/countries/ethiopia-population/
[18] Sourced on April 24, 21. ;http://www.theodora.com/wfbcurrent/ethiopia/ethiopia_economy.html
[19] HDR 2016
[20] The poverty line was set at US$ 0.60
[21] http://povertydata.worldbank.org/poverty/country/ETH
[22] The share of the Services sector of GDP has grown from 37 per cent (2004/05) to 45 per cent (2012/13).

clean water and sanitation facilities were improved. The Report noted that illiteracy levels dropped from 71 per cent (2004/05) to 39per cent (2018), while primary education coverage had increased for the same period from 68.5 per cent to 85.7 per cent, respectively. Basic health services coverage dramatically increased from 76.9 per cent to 94 per cent for the same period[23].

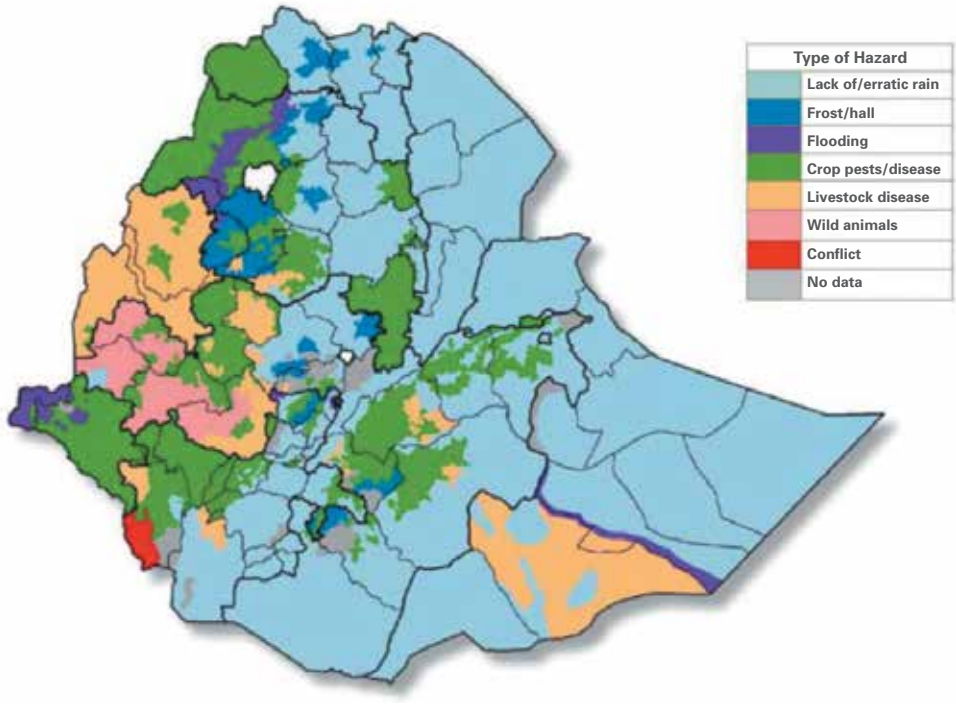
It is noted however, that despite these gains, significant proportions of the population, those who fall below and many who hover just above the poverty line, continue to be susceptible to economic and environmental shocks.

1.2. Risks, Shocks and Vulnerabilities

Historically, Ethiopia has faced a vast array of natural hazards, among them: drought, floods, human and livestock epidemics. Due to the country's diverse eco-climatic and socio-economic conditions, it is exposed to a wide range of hazards. Drought and floods represent major challenges, but several other hazards affect communities and their livelihoods. These include: frost and hail, crop pests and diseases, livestock diseases, human diseases, conflict and other manmade hazards, landslides, earthquakes and urban and forest fires (see Figure 7, below).

Climate change is predicted to further increase exposure to climate-related and hydrological hazards. Generally, the uncertainty around weather patterns is increasing with climate change in the Horn of Africa. Short rains are failing regularly, and soil moisture is likely to decline as temperatures rise. Ethiopia is vulnerable to the threats posed by climate change, which is exacerbated by the importance of agriculture for the overall economy and the livelihoods of poor households; and the scarce diffusion of irrigation and water-shed management practices. Amongwell-documented

Figure 7: The Most Important Hazards (as perceived by rural households)



Source: DRM SPIF 2014

[23] http://hdr.undp.org/en/countries/profiles/ETH

environmental challenges are deforestation, desertification and soil erosion. In the late 19th century, about 35-40 per cent of the country was forested, this had dwindled to less than 4 per cent by the turn of the century. The forest cover now stands at approximately 10 per cent despite Governments efforts at reforestation.

Millions of Ethiopians have been affected by drought and flood in the last decade. The number of people who suffered from drought peaked at 14 million in 2003 and, in the period between 2000 and 2007, those affected were rarely below 1.5 million persons. The floods of 2006 were the most disastrous, affecting about 1.7 million people. Furthermore, a regular and marked rainfall season compounds food security challenges in critical periods of the year: the pre-harvest season in agricultural areas and the end of the dry season for pastoralists.

1.3 Institutional Arrangements for DRM: The Policy and Legal Framework for DRM and Recovery

The Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia established its National Policy and Strategy on Disaster Risk Management in July 2013. This new policy and strategy were formulated by amending the earlier National Policy on Disaster Prevention and Management, which have guided the DRR processes since 1993.

The new policy framework was designed by the then Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development following the Government's Business Process Re-engineering exercises. It resulted in a paradigm shift, moving from a system that mainly focused on drought and supply of life-saving relief emergency assistance during a disaster, to a comprehensive Disaster Risk Management approach. The new process established a coordinated, accountable, and decentralized system. The latter aimed at reducing disaster risks and potential consequences of disasters by providing appropriate and timely responses to disasters before, during, and after the disaster period.

Among the specific objectives of the framework is integrating disaster risk reduction into development, addressing underlying factors of recurrent disasters and building resilience of vulnerable people.

Ethiopia's Disaster Risk Management system, developed in 2014 and driven by the SPIF, provides a strategic framework for the prioritization and planning of investments in DRM. It is designed to implement the DRM policy by identifying priority investment areas with estimates of the financing needs to be provided by Government and its development partners. The SPIF envisions a whole-of-Government initiative led by the DRMFSS that reflects the priorities of the Government and those of a wide range of stakeholders. The new approach relies on organizational structures with appropriate and harmonized roles and responsibilities at federal, regional and woreda or district levels.

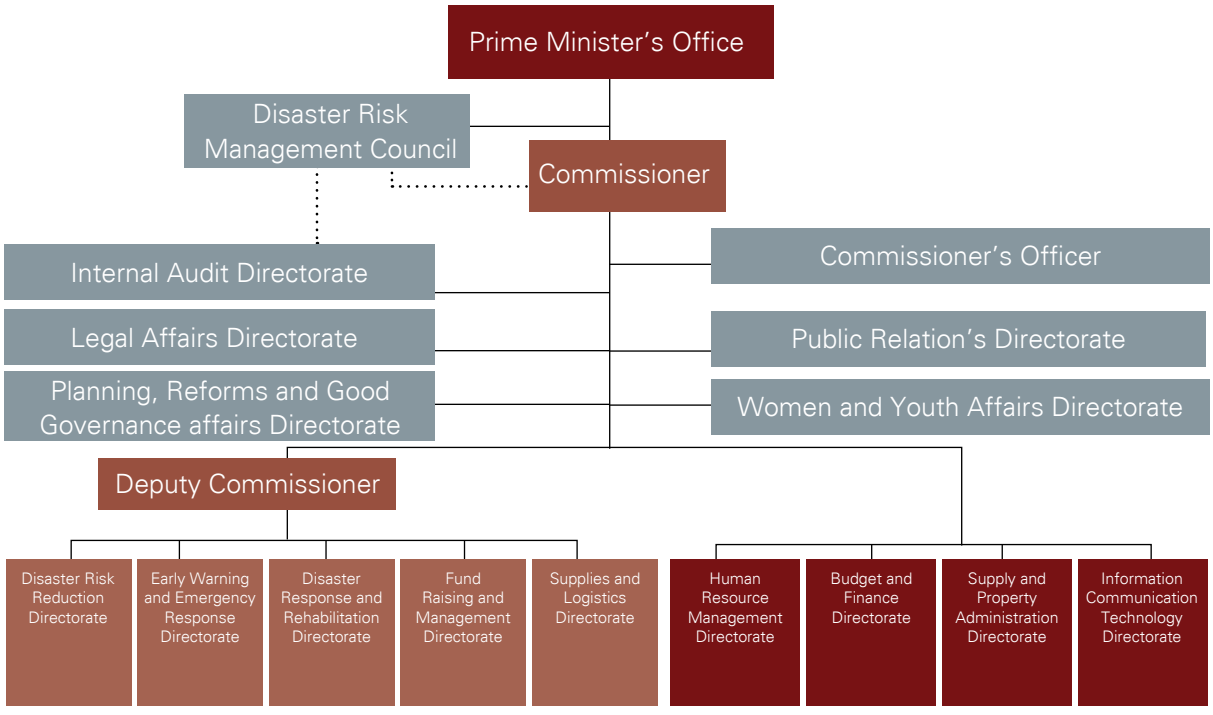
1.4. Response, Recovery and Rehabilitation within the DRM Mechanism

The SPIF identified gaps in terms of recovery and rehabilitation. Finalized in 2014, the SPIF highlighted that there were no standard methodologies in practice to assess recovery needs or to implement recovery activities except for the Government's National Guidelines on Livestock Relief Emergencies, which contained guidance on activities for the early response and recovery phase of drought-related emergencies.

The SPIF emphasized the widespread and fragmented responsibility for recovery and rehabilitation across multiple agencies. This was deemed as a complicated arrangement, suggesting that policy mandate overlaps could lead to confusion and duplication of effort, especially between DRM, climate change, and social protection. It noted however, that strong mechanisms and incentives for collaboration had not yet been fully developed to build adequate synergies and avoid duplication.

Through the establishment of the NDRMC, the Government reformulated the DRM machinery in 2016. NDRMC were to become the federal authority that would operationalize the policy on DRM at both federal and regional levels across the country. With the support of humanitarian partners, the NDRMC has conducted gap

Figure 8: The Structure of the Commission



Source: The Directorate of Disaster Response and Rehabilitation

assessments and capacity building workshops to increase the effectiveness of regional coordination for a (see Figure 8, below).

When analyzing the structure, it can be noted that there may still be some areas of overlap as issues of risk reduction, response and rehabilitation fall under the competence of three separate Directorates.

2. Recovery in Action

2.1 Background

Ethiopia's national programme for recovery on chronically food insecure households and drought-related food insecurity is articulated within the government's Growth and Transformation Plan II (GTP II) (2015/16-2019/20). One of the key objectives of the Plan is to "further solidify the ongoing public mobilization and organized participation to ensure the public become both owners and beneficiaries from development outcomes". It continues with a clear commitment to building a climate-resilient green economy and to reducing poverty and generating employment as a major development objective.

Within the Economic Development Sector in the GTP II, the Government sets out its intended actions in the area of Food Security, Disaster Prevention and Preparedness. The major targets identified are as follows:

1. Increase the amount of contingent food reserves from 405,000 metric tons in 2014/15 to 1.5 million metric tons;
2. Increase the amount of non-food item stocks from 382 thousand in 2014/15 to 1,422 and the amount of contingent budget from Bir 123.13 million in 2014/15 to Bir 415 million by the end of the plan period;

3. Increase the number of the productive safety net programme beneficiaries from 3.4 million in 2014/15 to 8.3 million by the end of the plan period;
4. Increase the number of male and female headed households who graduate from safety net programme from 49,199 in 2014/15 to 1,000,223 or 5,00,116 graduates;
5. Increase the number of chronically food insecure household heads (male and female) who are able to build assets through household-based credit package services from 161,698 in 2014/15 to 628,850 by the end of the planned period.[24]

Such clear articulation was not always the case. Response to crisis brought on by drought and other disasters—and resulting in famine and food insecurity in Ethiopia—usually consisted of food aid distributed by the international donor community. Up to 10 per cent of the population are defined as chronically food insecure.

Food aid was estimated to have cost, over a five-year period (1997-2002), some US$1,325 million[25]. But it was unpredictable and often arrived too late. For people in need, this meant having to sell their household assets to buy food. Instead of strengthening their resilience to future crisis, the food aid mechanism, although keeping them alive, diminished their future livelihood options and security. Continuing this path was deemed untenable and unsustainable by the Ethiopian government and its development partners.

In 2003, the Government launched a series of consultations with donors, UN agencies and civil society. Together they examined the underlying causes of food insecurity. On a consensus, it became obvious that a reform of the response to crisis was needed. Hence, the New Coalition for Food Security was established.

The Food Security Programme consisted of three components, with a fourth component to be added in 2009: (i) a productive safety net programme for very poor households; (ii) the provision of agricultural and financial services to the poor through the Household Asset Building Programme; (iii) the resettlement of families from living on land suffering from erosion and loss of soil fertility; (iv) and the provision of critical community-level infrastructure.

2.2 Ethiopia Productive Safety Net Programme and the Household Asset Building Programme (HABP)

The Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP), launched in 2005, aims to relieve families of short-term effects of their destitution. It is the largest social safety net programme in sub-Saharan Africa, outside of South Africa. The PSNP has gradually expanded from an initial coverage of five million to a maximum of 10 million people in late 2015.[26]

The PSNP seeks to provide predictable transfers in order to meet the annual food consumption gaps and protect household assets from distress-related sales. It ensures that there is food in households and enables heads of households to make investments for the future. The PSNP offers cash or food payments to very poor households in exchange of labor. The latter, known as 'public works' activity, includes working on soil and water conservation, road building, and construction of schools and clinics.

The Household Asset Building Programme (HABP) aims to provide longer term solutions for these same families. It helps families to take a step back from climate dependent activities, increase off-farm and wage labour incomes and increase their total incomes. It supports them to come up with a plan to improve their livelihoods, trains them in the skills they need to make these improvements, and provides them with information regarding where they can borrow money to fund these changes.

The budget for the PSNP is determined each year based on a formula derived from the number of

[24] Federal Republic of Ethiopia. Growth and Transformation Plan II (GTP II) (2015/16-2019/20). Vol 1: Main Text. National Planning Commission. May 2016 Addis Ababa
[25] Designing and implementing a rural safety net in a low-income setting. Lessons Learned from Ethiopia's Productive Safety Net Program 2005–2009. WORLD Bank 2012
[26] Tom Lavers. 2016. Social protection in an aspiring 'developmental state': The political drivers of Ethiopia's PSNP

Table 6: Types of Public Works' Outcomes and Activities Communities May Select

Outcomes	Community Level Sub-projects
Improved land productivity, soil fertility restoration and increased land availability	Area closures SWC
Improved market infrastructure	Community roads
Improved access to drinking and irrigation water	Community water projects such as stream diversion, spring development, shallow wells
Increased availability of fodder	Area closure incorporating conservation measures
High school enrolment and improvement of health standards	Rehabilitating, extending and constructing primary schools; Rehabilitating and constructing health posts

Source: Lessons Learned from Ethiopia's Productive Safety Net Program 2005–2009

beneficiaries in each program woreda. The overall budget consists of four components:

(a) Transfers (wages for Public Works participants and payments to Direct Support beneficiaries);
(b) Administrative and capital budgets (for program running costs and for capital inputs and material for public works);
(c) Contingency funds to allow for variations in need during the year; and
(d) Capacity building budget, based on an annual assessment of woredas, regions and the Federal Government.

PSNP is constituted by 84% of the "public works component" and 16 % of the "direct support component" for households with no able-bodied caretakers.[27]

The PSNP is integrated into the national budget system. Budgets are prepared as part of the annual planning process by the woreda and are then consolidated by the regional government for onward submission to the Federal Government. The regional budgets are consolidated with federal budget line items into a single federal budget that is approved as part of the MOARD annual budget. In addition to determining the budget, the annual woreda planning process also identifies eligible households and prioritizes public works projects based on community and kebele[28] plans.

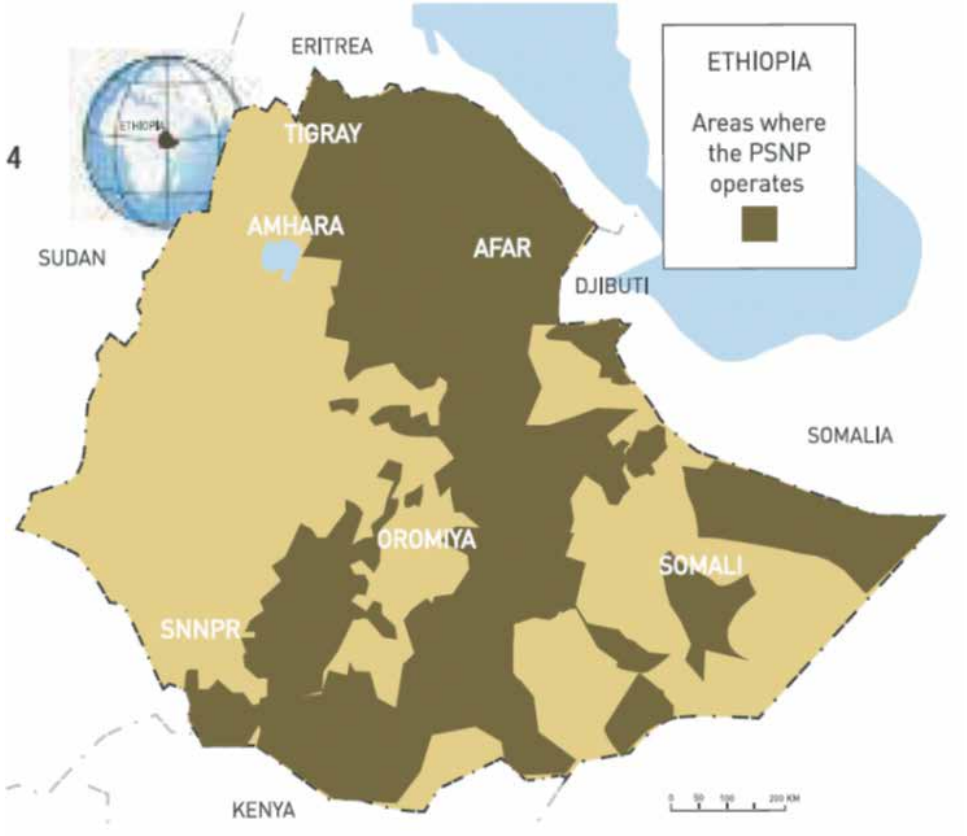
The UK Department for International Development (DIFID)[29] has reported that one of the unplanned benefits of the PSNP is that it has contributed to off-setting the rising level of atmospheric carbon dioxide that is contributing to global warming. This has occurred through the 45,000 public works projects completed each year through its focus on soil and water conservation, using terracing, tree-planting and gully control measures to stop and reverse the effects of rapid runoff and soil erosion on deforested and over-grazed hillsides. Due to the enclosing of the rehabilitated slopes from grazing and wood cutting, large quantities of carbon in both soil and biomass are sequestered. PSNP 4 is expected to cost US$ 2.87bn, 14 per cent of which will be funded by the government of Ethiopia and the remaining balance by nine development partners.[30]

2.3. What have been the outcomes?

The expected outcome of the PSNP was that the people who participating in the programme would eventually improve their lives through the programme.

[27] UNDP 2012 analysis of 2008 members.
[28] A Kebele is an administrative unit of Ethiopia, similar to a ward, a neighborhood.
[29] DFID. Ethiopia Productive Safety Net Programme phase 4 (PSNP 4)
[30] Supporting Development partners to PSNP include: Canadian International Development Agency; UK Department for International Development; Irish Aid; European Commission; Royal Netherlands Embassy; Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency; United States Agency for International Development; World Food Programme; and World Bank.

Figure 9: Illustration of Geographic Spread of OSNP Operating in Ethiopia



Source: Sandford, Judith and Matt Hobson, Leaving No one Behind: Ethiopia's Productive Safety Net & Household Asset Building Programmes, World Bank, Washington DC., 2011

Social progression, or "graduation" as it was called, from the PSNP was defined as a key goal of the Government, but was understood to be a long-term process, that would not be possible if only PSNP resources were available. It required the same households to receive other food security program interventions (OFSP), and other development interventions as illustrated by Figure 10.

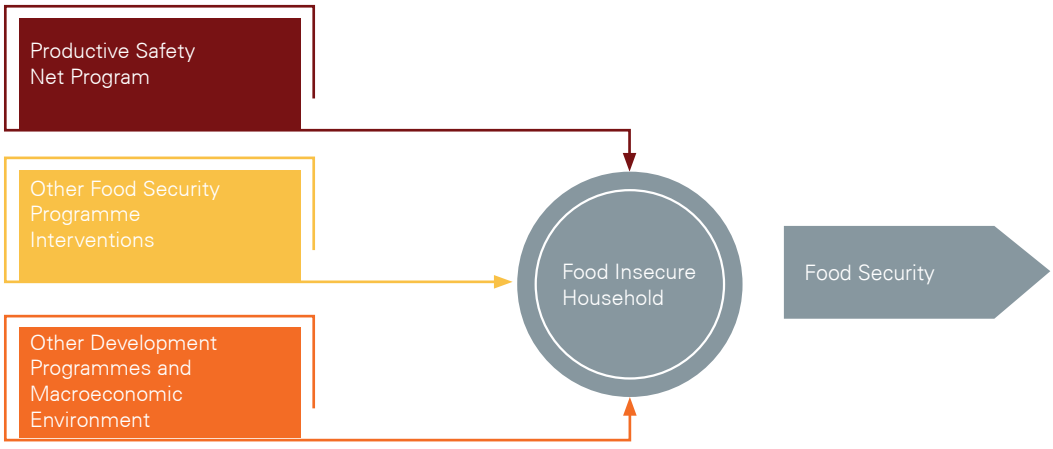
Graduation is based on a set of objective asset-based benchmarks tailored to local conditions to measure a household's food security status. Two levels of graduation have been defined.
Benchmarks and an accompanying Graduation Guidance Note clarified that the two levels were: (i) graduation from the PSNP upon obtaining food sufficiency; and, (ii) graduation from the FSP upon obtaining food security.

The first could be further defined as the level at which households in the PSNP leave the programme because their families have enough to eat—without the PSNP money—and can handle small difficulties without assistance. The second level of graduation occurs when households no longer need the special support that HABP provides. At this level of graduation, families are expected to be able to feed themselves in all but the worst years.

Many villages and districts believe that graduation is worth celebrating. Ceremonies to recognize graduates' achievements are organized on a regular basis. The graduates are given certificates, and some may receive rewards or even gifts like farm tools.

The UNDP National Human Development Report (2014) noted that despite the overall effectiveness of the PSNP in enhancing food security and increasing the livestock holding of beneficiaries, a number of concerns have been raised.

Figure 10: Linkages between PSNP and other Food Security Programmes



Source: Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development. Productive Safety Net Program, Program Implementation Manual (PIM), July 2006. Addis Ababa: Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development, 2006a.

One had to do with the targeting and delivery methods of the program. It was noted that although the PSNP had been highly successful in following its mandated targeting criteria, it was not applied consistently across all regions.

The other was on the issue of graduation from the programme. The baseline number for PSNP participants was 7.1 million for 2009/10 with a target of only 1.3 million by 2014/15. It was reported that in 2012/13, the number of beneficiaries served was six million. It is possible that the graduation target was too ambitious. The PSNP graduation target had subsequently not been as high as had been hoped for in the GTP.

One study focusing on the beneficiaries highlighted that people who participated in both the PSNP and the OFSP were "more likely to be food secure and more likely to borrow for productive purposes, use improved agricultural technologies and operate their own non-farm business activities". Another study also considered that there was a positive effect on income growth and food security, especially for people who received food only and mixed payments.[31]

2.4 How have Programmes been monitored?

Instead of establishing a specific M&E system for the program or adopting that of the emergency system, it was agreed to strengthen the M&E system for the overall FSP. A comprehensive M&E plan for the FSP was developed in 2004 with the support of donor agencies.

The M&E plan detailed the monitoring and evaluation systems for all components of the FSP, including the PSNP. The regular monitoring data for the PSNP was to be collected through government systems, as part of the core responsibilities of the food security line agencies. With support from donor agencies, it was expected that this system would be substantially strengthened and ultimately automated.

The FSP M&E Plan determined the type and frequency of data that Government would generate, which donors would then use to meet their separate M&E requirements.

The impact evaluation would be outsourced to ensure its quality and independence. This was

[31] UNDP 2014. National Human Development Report 2014

eventually modified as the national statistical office task, in collaboration with an independent research institution, would undertake the evaluation.

Significant data gathering and analysis over the years should ensure sound decision-making. The combination of M&E tools developed and put into use, including household surveys, audits, key informant surveys, and real-time data collection via telephone utilizing focal points at the woreda level, highlights the critical role and importance of robust data in the management of this broad set of safety net programmes.

3. Conclusions

3.1 Challenges

a) There is still a need to integrate all of the existing safety net programmes coexisting in the country. Indeed, in addition to the PSNP, the Government is involved in a number of small-scale social protection programmes: Pensions are available for staff who have provided more than ten years of service to the Government. Recent legislation has opened up the pension service to people who work for private organisations. Schools in several areas offer school feeding programme that ensures all students at the school get at least one good meal a day, improving their ability to study and providing an incentive for children to stay at school. The Government has periodically ordered bulk sales of wheat or maize to stabilize food prices which were quickly increasing.
b) Capacity building among technocrats who manage DRM programmes through the NDRMC is a necessity. This would encourage best use of their capacities to support the holistic nature of risk reduction, vulnerability reduction, resilience building and its contribution to meeting national development goals.

3.2 Gaps

a) How to make the best use of the national level post-disaster needs assessments;
b) Recognizing and Managing gender differentials within the safety net programmes: women heads of households who are engaged in the PSNP may not be called upon to work the same length of time as male counterparts recognizing the reproductive work for which they have responsibility;
c) The government's commitment towards risk reduction and vulnerability of its population: multiple famines in the sixties, seventies and eighties was necessary to convince the Government that a shift from relief to recovery to long-term development, as part of DRM, were necessary;
d) Good integration of the use of Policy, national data sets and Planning to achieve the integration of DRM in national development agenda;
e) The paradigm shift from crisis management to multi-sectoral, multi hazard disaster risk management strategy;
f) Willingness of development partners to work with Government to reduce vulnerability of the poorest and guarantee sustainable development.

II. Kenya

1. Context

1.1. Socio-economic situation

The Republic of Kenya has a population of 53 million people as of September 2018, uniquely dispersed throughout 47 geographical areas known as Counties. Through the 2010 Constitution, a two-tier governance framework has been established within which political, administrative and fiscal authority has devolved to the Counties. Under the Constitution, provision has been made for the transfer of a minimum of 15% of budgetary resources to the 47 Counties. Twenty-three counties, or 89 per cent of Kenya's land mass, are described as Arid and Semi-Arid Lands (ASALs). Some 14 per cent of Kenya's population live in areas defined as ASALs (GOK, 2012).

Kenya has experienced economic growth estimated at 5.5per cent in 2018 and growth was projected to rise to 6.5per cent in 2020[32]. Kenya's solid performance was attributed to the decline in oil prices, good agricultural performance, continued innovations in ICT and ongoing infrastructure investments (World Bank, 2016).

The government has articulated its vision for the country to become a newly industrializing, middle-income country by 2030, when its people can enjoy a high quality of life (GOK,2007).

The GDP per capita has risen consistently from US$ 408.90 in 2000 to USD$ 991.85 in 2010 to US$1,376.71 in 2015 (World Bank). However, Kenya remains among the most unequal countries in the sub-region, with a Gini coefficient of 48.5 and with 45 per cent of its population living below the poverty line (UNDP, 2016).

Growth of the agricultural sector has been described as a key driver for both rural development and poverty reduction, as the sector absorbs the increasing number of jobseekers and generates income and livelihoods for others. Agriculture employs at least 30% of all workers in the formal sector and about 62% of jobs in the informal sector. The sector is also responsible for providing food security for the population and provision of raw materials for the agro-based industries.

In the social sector, Kenya has experienced some improvements. Over the years, primary school completion rate increased from 57.7% in 2000 to 83.2% in 2009 and has remained within the 80% range. Despite the completion rates having improved consistently, 20% of the children who join school are likely to leave before reaching the last grade of primary education. Comparative analysis from household surveys reveals that literacy levels have increased by over 14% since 2000 and that more than 90% of young people in Kenya have basic literacy and numeracy skills (GOK,2014).

The Kenya Demographic and Health Survey (KDHS) 2008/09 reported an infant mortality rate (IMR) of 52/1,000 live births. This is an improvement compared to the previous KDHS 2003 where the IMR was 77/1,000 live births and under five mortality was 115/1,000 live births. In response to persistently high Maternal Mortality Rates (MMR), the government has been offering free maternity services in all public health facilities since June 2013.

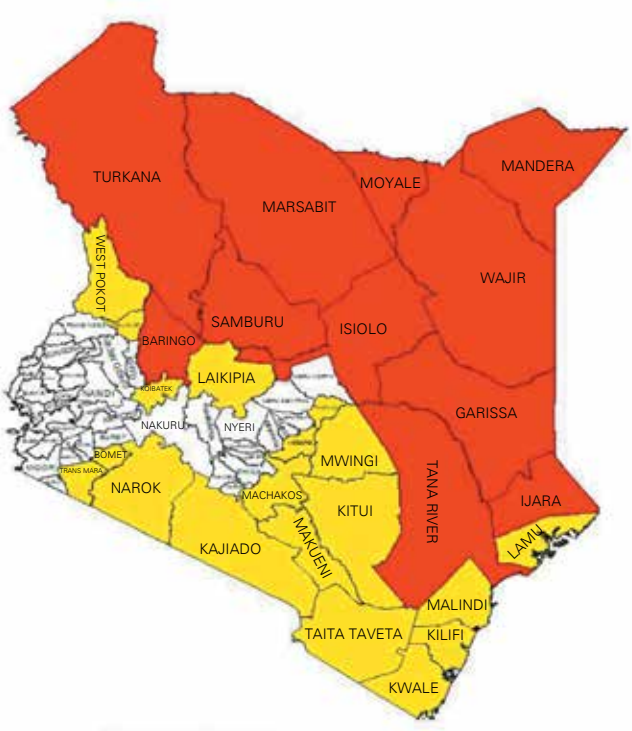
1.2 Risks, Shocks and Vulnerabilities

Kenya is a water-scarce country with a per capita water availability among one of the lowest in Africa, making access to clean water a problem in many areas of the country, including the capital, Nairobi.

Kenya is susceptible to natural disasters such as drought and flooding which are likely to be exacerbated as a result of climate change. This is coupled with the high vulnerability of the ASAL areas where approximately 70% of the national livestock herd and more than 90% of the wild game are based, contributing greatly to wildlife-based ecotourism in the country. The ASAL

[32] https://tradingeconomics.com/kenya/forecast

Figure 11: Distribution of ASAL counties in Kenya



Source: GOK , 2012

regions contain most of the protected areas such as game reserves and national parks.

For decades, drought has been the single most disastrous natural hazard in Kenya and has destroyed livelihoods and caused hunger, disease and even death. Of the US$ 12.1 billion of drought-related damages and losses recorded in 2008-2011, US$ 11.3 billion was attributed to lost income flows across all sectors of the economy (GOK,2012).

Between 1975 and 2011 there were at least ten serious droughts, three of them in the last seven years (2005-6, 2008-9 and 2010-11). The number of people affected by repeated drought emergencies appears to be rising. According to the inter-agency Kenya Food Security Steering Group (KFSSG), an estimated 4.5 million people were affected in 2011, 3.8 million in arid and semi-arid lands (ASALs) and 700,000in non-ASAL areas (GOK,2013).

Drought has a ripple effect on vulnerability. It leads to competition between communities over natural resources which in turn, increases insecurity within and across borders. Insecurity in turn increases vulnerability to drought, by impeding migration, often pushing traditional pastoralists into sedentary life styles, curtailing access to services and resources, destroying assets, and damaging inter-communal relations. Poor infrastructure increases vulnerability to drought by reducing access to markets and basic services, and by deterring the investment needed to expand and diversify the economy (Njoka, 2016).

Drought emergencies also have significant social impacts on traditional social structures, on gender roles and responsibilities and on young people's prospects, as children are often withdrawn from school. Drought imposes social costs by undermining the social standing of pastoral households whose position of honor is gauged through the size of their livestock herds. It disrupts local power relationships and damages the social

safety networks that are built around lending and borrowing of livestock thus promoting equitable ownership of the only means of livelihood.

Drought also increases household vulnerability in event of future climatic shocks and food insecurity. It pushes pastoralists out of their production systems, forcing them to move to urban centres where food distribution, health, sanitation and water supply may be more reliably available.

And, importantly, drought can heighten humanitarian challenges. For Kenya, it is the presence of over 500,000 refugees from Somalia and 30,000 new arrivals from South Sudan. In June 2011, Kenya faced formidable hurdles with the Horn of Africa drought that left 3.75 million Kenyans and 150,000 refugees mostly from Somalia, in need of humanitarian assistance.

2. Institutional Arrangements For DRM

2.1 The Policy and Legal Framework for DRM and Recovery

Disaster Risk Management in Kenya is expected to be governed by the NDRM Bill of 2016, once approved by the current parliament. The Bill calls for the establishment of a National Platform for DRM and a National DRM Authority to (i) coordinate Inter-Agency DRM activities; (ii) serve as the central agency for the implementation of DRM activities; (iii) advice the national and county governments on DRM measures; and (iv) develop/implement DRM strategy, response and recovery plan.

Currently, there are various institutions that handle disaster-related activities in Kenya. These include line Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs) specialized Semi-Autonomous Government Agencies (SAGAs) and County Governments. Some of the agencies created include the National Disaster Operations Centre, National Drought Management Authority, and the State Department of Special Programmes.

The government argued that in the past, national response to disaster risks had been reactive and short term due to deficiencies in policies; legal and institutional arrangements; inadequate investments in DRR and poor climate change related research. Institutional short-comings were worsened by lack of comprehensive strategies for addressing disaster risks in a comprehensive manner.

To respond to this challenge, the Government of Kenya, with the support of development and Humanitarian partners, developed its Disaster Risk Management Policy.

The National Disaster Risk Management Policy, approved in February 2017, seeks to integrate disaster risk management in planning and budgeting. County Governments have been mandated to develop County Disaster Risk Management Policies and plans for disaster risk reduction funds. Meanwhile, the National Government has devolved funds for disaster management to all Counties.

This policy aims to create an integrated and coordinated disaster risk management system that focuses on preventing or reducing the risk of disasters, mitigating the severity of disasters, enhancing preparedness, rapid and effective response to disasters, and post-disaster recovery.

The Government of Kenya has committed itself to ending drought emergencies in Kenya by the year 2022. This commitment is stated in the Second Medium Term Plan (MTP) for the Vision 2030, launched by H.E. Hon. President Uhuru Kenyatta, CGH, on 3rd October 2013. Ending drought emergencies has been recognized as one of the key foundations to attaining the 10% GDP growth target envisaged in the Vision 2030.

The key authority for leading the success in this matter is the National Drought Management Authority (NDMA), a public body established by the National Drought Management Authority Act, 2016. It previously operated under the State Corporations Act (Cap 446) of the Laws of Kenya by Legal Notice Number 171 of November 24, 2011. The Legal Notice gives the NDMA the mandate to establish mechanisms which ensure that drought does not result in emergencies and that the impacts of climate change are sufficiently mitigated. Its mandate is to exercise general supervision and coordination over matters relating to drought management in Kenya. The Authority

is expected to support the national and county governments and communities to prepare for and react to drought and its impacts.

Besides the NDMA, other structures play key roles on disaster management:

- The National Disaster Operations Centre (NDOC) which was established as a Department within the Ministry of State for Provincial Administration and Internal Security Office of the President. This was in 1998 after the El Niño rains and in the wake of the US Embassy bomb blast in Nairobi. NDOC has responsibility for preparedness and response to disasters.
- The National Disaster Management Unit (NDMU) is an inter-agency unit and plays a lead role of managing emergencies and disasters in Kenya.
- The National Platform for Disaster Risk Management (NPDRM) is an informal team that brings together both State Actors and non-State Actors who have interests in disaster risk management. It has provided and continues to provide an opportunity for State, non-governmental, private and international institutions to participate in decision-making and consultation processes geared towards disaster risk management.
- There is a Climate Change Secretariat and National Climate Change Adaptation Strategy in place. In 2010 Kenya developed a National Climate Change Response Strategy (NCCRS), which identifies the agriculture, tourism, infrastructure, health and natural resources areas as being most vulnerable to climate change. The NCCRS identifies a number of priority adaptation actions by sector in Kenya. On November 22nd, 2012, Kenya validated the Climate Change Action Plan to operationalize the NCCRS (UNDP,2013).
- Kenya also has a National Environmental Management Agency (NEMA) policy and bill in place. There are numerous Acts of Parliament supporting disaster risk management activities in the Country.

With the advent of devolution, attempts are being made to mainstream national development plans in the County Integrated Development Plans (CIDPs). Coordination of development activities between the two levels of government is critical in ASALs where there are multiple actors. Some County Governments have gone ahead and enacted legislation to handle disaster risk management. Nairobi County has legislated disaster management and fire-fighting policy. Kisii County has also legislated disaster management policy.

2.2. Response, Recovery and Rehabilitation within the DRM Mechanism

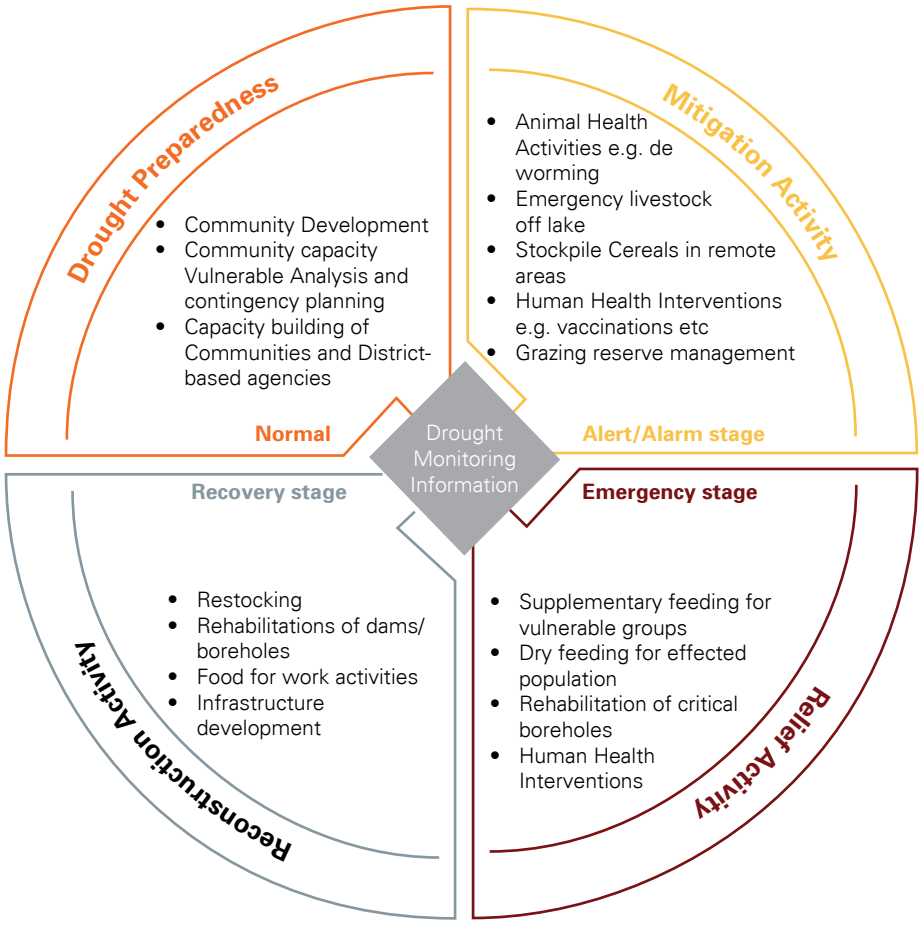
Kenya has carried out extensive hazard mapping of drought through the Kenya Meteorological Department which has identified the key areas likely to experience drought. This information is available to all, including the academia, stakeholders and development partners.

Kenya is also host to the IGAD Climate Predictions and Applications Centre (ICPAC), previously known as the Drought Monitoring Centre (DMC). ICPAC was established in 1989 by the member countries through WMO and UNDP. The IGAD Climate Prediction and Applications centre in conjunction with Kenya Meteorological Department (KMD) and the Office of the President, carries out capacity assessments for institutions on the ground and sets up measures to reduce loss of life. It also issues warnings of when droughts are likely to occur, their duration and the areas to be affected. ICPAC is funded mainly from IGAD, USAID, WMO and NOAA.

The GoK has established a National Drought and Disaster Contingency Fund (NDDCF). The NDDCF is managed by the National Drought Management Authority and its main objective is to facilitate early mitigation efforts to reduce the time between warning of drought stress and response at county level. The DCF provides flexible set-aside financial resources that can be disbursed at short notice to respond to drought threats. Figure 13 illustrates the Alert/Alarm stage during which the Contingency Funds may be used to support human and animal health interventions.

In the 2012-2013 financial year, Parliament secured an initial capital 2 billion Kenyan Shillings for the NDDCF. It was expected that further

Figure 12: The Drought Cycle highlighting the period of mitigation and recovery/reconstruction



Source: GOK, NDMA

contributions to the Fund would be appropriated through the development budget for each financial year. Other sources would include funds provided by donors by way of grant, loans or concessions (World Bank, 2013).

3. Recovery in action

3.1 Background

The government recognizes that it is essential to reduce vulnerability of the population affected by drought-related disasters. The government set up a 10-year programme for ending recurrent drought emergencies in Kenya that includes investing in the foundation for development of ASAL region and ensuring mainstreaming of DRR and CCA to enhance adaptive capacity and build resilience.

Through a policy programme based on investments in peace and security, infrastructure, livelihoods, human capital, combined with the necessary humanitarian relief, it is expected that sustainable development and enhanced resilience of the population can be achieved.

The Kenya Draft ASAL policy of 2015 calls for several structures to support a coordinated and harmonized development of ASALs. ASAL Transformation Structures have been identified and function at different levels of Government, such as the ASAL Cabinet Sub-Committee,

chaired by the Presidency to provide high-level policy direction and political support; ASAL development and the ASAL Inter Governmental Steering Committee are comprised of Cabinet Secretaries and Governors from ASAL counties and provide leadership across governments.

Implementation of this policy will contribute towards the Government's vision of security, justice and prosperity for the people of Northern Kenya and other arid lands. It has been argued that such an approach will help achieve the three pillars of Vision 2030—economic, social and political—but particularly the social pillar, which seeks to 'create a just and cohesive society that enjoys equitable social development in a clean and secure environment'. Finally, it will reduce dependence on relief interventions and the heavy financial burden of emergency response.

3.2 Hunger Safety Net Programme (HSNP)

The Kenyan Government, with support from DFID, established the innovative Hunger Safety Net Programme (HSNP), launched in 2009, to address the issues of hunger and distress sale of assets triggered by drought. The programme provides for an unconditional, regular source of income that has the potential to stabilize household food consumption and free up resources for sustainable investment in areas such as health and education.

The NDMA has been given institutional responsibility for the implementation of the HSNP and for overseeing its scale-up within the national drought management system. The HSNP was scaled up four times in 2015, the last of which, in October 2015, saw payments made to all non-routine beneficiary households as a crisis preparedness payment in advance of anticipated El Niño rains and possible flooding. In December 2016, the HSNP made emergency cash transfers to an additional 26,482 households in response to the current drought (IWAG 2017).

During its pilot period, the HSNP delivered regular cash transfers to some 69,000 households in four of the worst affected counties in the region. Vulnerable households and individuals received twice a month 2,150 Kenyan shillings via a simple smartcard and pay-point system. It was expected that the programme would address hunger and poverty and support the Government's wider national protection strategy.

The Hunger Safety Net Programme (HSNP) aims to reduce the vulnerability of the region's poorest households to external shocks by stabilizing their incomes and strengthening their livelihoods through the delivery of regular, unconditional cash transfers. This innovative social protection scheme has been found to improve food security and reduce the impact of extreme poverty in northern Kenya.

3.3 Other Initiatives

Another approach of the government has been the effort to institutionalize the role of communities in drought management. The approach has been piloted in 28 ASAL districts, utilizing the Community Managed Disaster Risk Reduction (CMDRR) approach. Such an approach enables community-level planning structures to mainstream DRR into local development plans and to prepare drought contingency plans.

Conflict management and peace building is also a critical aspect of response and recovery to situations of drought and one in which community management have had positive outcomes. Often conflict can flare up when neighbouring communities compete over scarce resources. Following the Post-Election Violence in 2008, Peace Committees were instituted in most communities to preserve peace and prevent conflict (GoK, 2016). Traditional peace committees have been utilized to bring groups together to discuss and agree on solutions to meteorological and climate related events that result in conflict. Solutions have been found through the organization and enforcement of grazing systems designed to avoid conflict, such as patterns which allow livestock to move freely between water and pasture, prolonging animal production and assisting in meeting household needs (OPM, 2012).

District Security Teams have also been established to enable rapid interventions by the authorities if and when conflict arose. Also, other mechanisms have also been put in place, such as

livestock insurance and livelihood projects where women and youth were trained in new economic activities.

3.4 Monitoring and evaluation

The HSPN programme is rigorously monitored and evaluated. The evaluation team used a comprehensive mixed-methods approach to monitor and evaluate the programme over its three-year pilot period. The approach included a rigorous impact evaluation based on a randomized control trial household survey as well as an assessment of the performance of three alternative household targeting mechanisms.

Survey results were complimented by evidence from qualitative research activities including focus group discussions and key informant interviews. The result was a robust measure of programme impact as well as valuable insights into the usefulness of HSNP and areas for improving and refining its efficiency and performance. Recommendations were made for more effective targeting.

The government has developed a robust monitoring and evaluation (M&E) framework for the National Safety Net Program. This framework draws on the existing M&E frameworks of the five cash transfer programs, particularly the HSNP and

the CT-OVC. The Government monitors progress towards the achievement of the program's outputs and outcomes by collecting and analysing data on a common set of indicators. Progress towards these indicators will be monitored regularly through reports generated automatically from the single registry.

It will also employ a system of external spot checks to ensure that program implementation is independently monitored on an annual basis. This will be done by a third-party contractor and will include the performance of the payment system and the grievance and appeals system. Steps are also being taken to strengthen the capacity of the programs to carry out the planned M&E activities as detailed in the Technical Assessment. (World Bank, 2013).

Collaboration with the Office of the Controller of the Budget, which has the mandate for budget monitoring, will be required. Additionally, the impact of the NSNP on beneficiary households will be assessed by means of a set of impact evaluations.

The M&E process has allowed policy-makers and other key stakeholders to be better informed about the impact of cash transfers on people's lives and wellbeing. Specifically, it was found that the HSNP can protect households against a fallout into extreme poverty, improve food security and reduce the need to resort to negative coping strategies such as selling off livestock in the face of external shocks (OPM, 2012).

In addition, using a community-based targeting mechanism combined with proxy means testing allowed for the most efficient targeting of the poorest households and improved the overall effectiveness of the programme.

4. Conclusions

4.1 Challenges

a) Agreeing on what level to scale up safety net programmes and identifying the necessary resources. The safety net programme cannot reach as many families as is necessary. Hence, so some families become dependent on emergency food aid and have to resort to selling off livestock, weakening their livelihoods and sliding into a vicious cycle of poverty
b) The newness of the political structure of devolution and the unfamiliarity of County officials with addressing DRM
c) Lack of coherence in the DRM national systems
d) Building the resilience of the population of pastoral areas who are highly dispersed, scattered across a large area in relatively small settlements is very challenging. Many people are also mobile, since mobility is key to reliable production in dry-land environments
e) Delivery of services to mobile populations is challenging. Distances to schools, health referral facilities, and centres of justice and administration are long, and over poor roads with limited transport.
f) Mobility in many pastoral areas of Kenya is curtailed by unplanned settlements, administrative boundaries, conflict, and land alienation
g) The reliance on emergency food aid is still too important and not yet making the paradigm shift necessary to engage with the measures for resilience building and recovery

4.2 Gaps

a) Weak capacity of policy makers on issues of comprehensive DRM, resilience building and recovery
b) An inability to address the inherited social structures which have marginalized and disenfranchised many groups living in the ASAL regions
c) Weak human capital in the ASAL region

4.3 Lessons learned

a) The success of the HSNP suggests that there may be benefits to be had from scaling up the programme and integrating the HSNP into a wider social protection programme in Kenya.

III. Malawi

1. Country description

1.1. Socio-economic situation

The Republic of Malawi is largely an agricultural country, with about 85 % of its population living in rural areas and ranking as the 16th least developed country in the world according to the 2015 UNDP Human Development Report. It is a landlocked country neighbouring Tanzania, Zambia, and Mozambique. Its surface area is approximately 118,484 square kilometres, of which 20 % is covered by Lake Malawi. Over 70 % of the population lives below the income poverty line, and 29.8 % are considered living in severe poverty.

Although poverty is more widespread in rural than urban areas, income inequality is significantly more pronounced in urban areas. Almost 80 % of the population is employed, with 85.7 % men and 74.3 % women constituting Malawi's labour force. Malawi's economy is predominantly agrarian, with 85.1 % of households engaged in agricultural activities. Agriculture accounts for 30 % of Malawi's GDP as well as 80 % of its exports (mainly tobacco). In 2013 and 2014, growth remained positive at 6.3 and 6.2 % respectively.

Growth in 2015 slowed down to 2.8 % following the challenges of macroeconomic instability, late arrival of rains and the severe floods experienced in January 2015. Annual average inflation rates have hovered around 20 % in recent years, reaching a peak of 28 % in 2013 and declining to 10.38% in 2018 . Current development policies and strategies for Malawi are reflected in the Vision 2020, which was developed in 1998 and presents the country's development goals.

The country's topography is highly varied, with a sub-tropical climate and a rainy season from November to April. In the mountainous sections of Malawi surrounding the Rift Valley, plateaus rise generally from 800 to 1,200 m above sea level, although some rise as high as 3,000 m in the north. Shire Highlands are located to the south of Lake Malawi, gently rolling land at approximately 900 m above sea level. In this area, the Zomba and Mulanje mountain peaks rise to respective heights of over 2,000 and 3,000 m. The country's climate is sub-tropical, but the influence of its high elevation means that temperatures are relatively cool. The warm-wet season stretches from November to April, during which 95 % of the annual precipitation takes place. Average annual rainfall varies from 725 mm to 2,500 mm with Lilongwe having an average of 900 mm, Blantyre 1,127 mm, Mzuzu 1,289 mm and Zomba 1,433 mm. A cool, dry winter season is evident from May to August with mean temperatures varying between 17 and 27 degrees Celsius, and temperatures falling between 4 and 10 degrees Celsius. A hot, dry season lasts from September to October with average temperatures varying between 25 and 37 degrees Celsius.

The climate in Malawi is largely decided by the oscillations of the Inter-Tropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) and inter-annual variability is further influenced by the El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO). Wet season rainfalls depend on the position of the ITCZ, which can vary in its timing and intensity from year to year. Inter-annual variability in wet-season rainfall in Malawi is also strongly influenced by the Indian Ocean sea surface temperatures, which can vary from one year to another due to variations in patterns of atmospheric and oceanic circulation, such as the ENSO. The influence of the ENSO on the climate of Malawi is difficult to predict as it is located between two regions of opposite response to the El Niño phenomenon. Eastern equatorial Africa tends to receive above average rainfall during El Niño conditions, whilst south-eastern Africa often experiences below average rainfall. The opposite response pattern occurs during La Nina episodes. The response of the climate in these two regions and the extent of the area affected vary with each El Niño or La Nina year.

The intensity and frequency of climate-related hazards in Malawi have been increasing in recent decades and factors like population growth, urbanization and environmental degradation continue to increase the country's vulnerability to these hazards. The impact of these hazards has severely disrupted food production, led to the loss of life, and destroyed public and private

assets. In fact, when shocks like droughts occur, households with low resilience resort to coping mechanisms that are destructive and increase their vulnerability to future shocks.

1.2 Risks, Shocks and Vulnerabilities

Malawi is exposed to several hydro-meteorological hazards, including floods, droughts, hailstorms, strong winds and landslides, and geo-hazards, notably earthquakes. Between 1979 and 2008, disasters have affected nearly 21.7 million people and have resulted in over 2,500 casualties. Malawi's vulnerability to hydro-meteorological hazards is primarily linked to specific geo-climatic factors: (i) the influence of the El Niño and La Niña phenomena on the country's climate; and (ii) the tropical cyclones developing in the Mozambique Channel resulting in highly erratic rainfall patterns and unequal distribution of rainfall causing localized dry spells as well as floods.

Farmers in Malawi are directly affected by such disasters, as they are highly vulnerable to natural hazards. The Lower Shire, for instance, which constitutes a key agricultural region of the country, is prone to cycles of recurrent floods and droughts.

Available records indicate that in the last 100 years, the country has experienced about 20 droughts. In the last 36 years alone, the country has experienced eight major droughts, affecting over 24 million people in total. The impact, frequency and spread of drought in Malawi have intensified in the past four decades and are likely to worsen with climate change, compounded by other factors, such as population growth and environmental degradation.

Droughts and dry spells in Malawi cause on average a 1 % loss of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) annually. Most drought episodes occur in El Niño years, during which the country experiences rainfall deficits.

Between 1967 and 2003, the country experienced six major droughts and 18 incidences of flooding, which heavily impacted smallholder farmers. More recently, two major floods struck the country, including the district of Nsanje in January 2012, and the Mangochi District in January 2013. In the case of Nsanje for instance, recovery and reconstruction needs were estimated at US$7.3 million.

The seasonal rainfall forecast for 2014/2015 that was provided by the Department of Climate Change and Meteorological Services indicated that during October to December 2014, the Southern half of Malawi was expected to have normal to above normal rainfall amounts while the Northern half would have normal to below normal rainfall amounts. During January to March 2015, the Southern half of Malawi was expected to have normal to below normal rainfall amounts while the Northern half would have normal to above normal rainfall amounts. Overall, the country was going to experience normal rainfall amounts during October 2014 to March 2015. October marks the beginning of the rainfall season in Malawi which ends in March of the following year in some areas but extends to April in others.

2. Institutional Arrangements for DRM

2.1 The Policy and Legal Framework for DRM and Recovery

2.1.1 Disaster Preparedness and Relief Act (1991)

The Act "makes provision for the co-ordination and implementation of measures to alleviate effects to disasters, the establishment of the Commissioner's office for Disaster Preparedness and Relief, the establishment of a National Disaster Preparedness and Relief Committee of Malawi, and for matters incidental thereto or connected therewith". The Act does not include any provisions related to rehabilitation, reconstruction or recovery.

2.1.2 Malawi Growth and Development Strategy (MGDS II)

The Malawi Growth and Development Strategy (MGDS II) is the overarching development agenda for the country. Disaster Risk Management is Sub-Theme 2 under Theme 3, Social Support and Disaster Risk Management in MGDS II. The long-term goal of the sub theme on DRM is to reduce

the social, economic and environmental impact of disasters. Although disaster risk management is embedded as a sub theme in the MGDS II, the integration of disaster risk reduction into all sustainable development policies and planning processes at all levels cuts across all the themes of the MGDS II.

2.1.3 National Disaster Risk Management Policy (2015)

Malawi has a National Disaster Risk Management Policy (2015) with its implementation and monitoring and evaluation strategy. The policy has been developed to guide DRM mainstreaming in the country by providing policy strategies that would achieve the long-term goal of reducing disaster losses in terms of life and the social, economic and environmental assets of communities and the nation as envisioned in theme 3 of the MGDS II.

The DRM Policy highlights a set of key priority areas and strategies for making Malawi a nation resilient to disasters. It also provides a common direction to all government, non-governmental organizations, private sector organizations, media and development partners at national and local levels on how to effectively implement disaster risk management programs and activities.

Furthermore, Malawi has a progressive national gender policy, and the legal environment includes the Gender Equality Statutes and the National Gender Policy which provides the guidance.
A National Resilience Strategy, launched in October 2018, is expected to fill several of the gaps that have been observed in the practice of DRR and recovery. The plan has passed several consultative steps and is still a work in progress.

2.2. Response, Recovery and Rehabilitation within the DRM Mechanism

The Government of Malawi has established institutional arrangements that implement the Disaster Preparedness and Relief Act (1991). The DRM policy 2015 has been endorsed during the response to the disaster. The Office of the President and Cabinet, through the National Disaster Preparedness and Relief Committee, directs the Department of Disaster Management Affairs (DoDMA) and supports technical committees to coordinate the implementation of disaster risk management at national level. In the districts, coordination is conducted through the District Executive Committees and Civil Protection Committees at district, area and village levels.

The National Disaster Preparedness and Relief Committee (NDPRC) comprises the Principal Secretaries of all line ministries and departments, the Malawi Red Cross Society, four Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and United Nations (UN) agencies which are co-opted when need arises. The committee provides policy directions in the implementation of disaster risk management programmes in the country and reports to cabinet. It is chaired by the Chief Secretary to the Government.

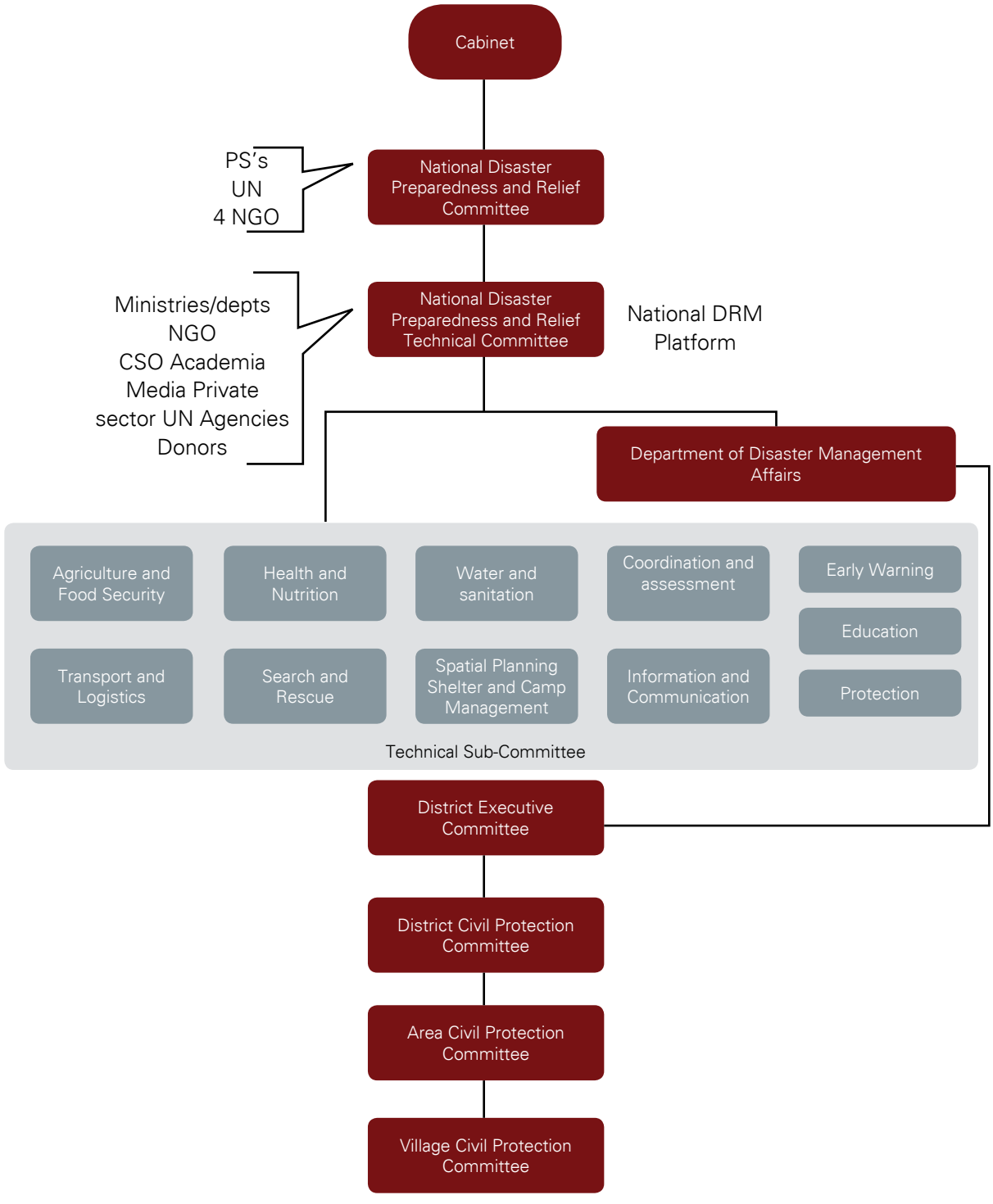
After the declaration of a state of disaster, the NDPRC, in addition to Principal Secretaries, Ministers, UN agencies and NGOs, attended meetings which were being held twice a week initially and later once a week to coordinate the flood response operations. The Vice President of the Republic of Malawi, who is the Minister in charge of the Disaster Management Affairs department, chaired the meetings. Recovery has been directly integrated into the functional structure. DoDMA has responsibilities in all the Disaster Risk Management aspects and it is divided into two divisions: Disaster Risk Reduction and Disaster Response and Recovery.

2.3 Humanitarian Country Team

The Humanitarian Country Team comprises Heads of UN Agencies, international and local NGOs, Government, and the Malawi Red Cross Society. This team is chaired by the United Nations Resident Coordinator (UNRC). For coordination of the current response, donors and heads of Government Ministries and Departments have been co-opted into the HCT.

To ensure better coordination for the disaster assessment and emergency response at operational level, ten clusters were activated. These clusters are coordination, communication

Figure 13: Malawi DRM Mechanism



and assessment; Food Security; Agriculture; Water and Sanitation; Health; Nutrition; Education; Shelter and Camp Management; Protection; and Transport and Logistics. The clusters are led by the government and co-led by UN agencies and the Malawi Red Cross Society. Most have developed response plans to address the 2015 flood response.

A National Emergency Operations Centre (NEOC) was established at DoDMA with support from UNDAC. Cluster representatives were operating from the centre. UNDAC also facilitated the establishment of an Information Management Working Group (IMWG) at the national level, comprising representatives from all the clusters.

3. Recovery in Action

3.1. Background

Malawi's experience with recovery processes is very special, considering that two important hazards occurred almost simultaneously. Both situations, flooding and long-lasting droughts, were themes covered by the PDNA exercises.

The 2015 floods[34] were the most devastating in terms of geographical coverage, severity of damage and extent of loss. While 15 districts were directly affected, the whole country suffered from the effects. Water and electricity were interrupted. Damages on roads and bridges disrupted business. An estimated 1,101,364 people were affected, 230,000 displaced, 106 killed and 172 reported missing. Economic losses were experienced at different levels: damage in infrastructure, crops and livestock; reduced production due to water and electricity shortage, disruption of economic system in communities where people were displaced; fiscal transfer to disaster response and crowding out of other functions as for weeks manpower concentrated more on disaster response than on any other activity.

The 2015/2016 agricultural season[35] was greatly affected by strong El Niño conditions

[34] Malawi 2015 Floods Post Disaster Needs Assessment Report
[35] Malawi Drought 2015-2016Post-Disaster Needs Assessment (PDNA)

and resulted in erratic rains and prolonged dry spells across most parts of the country. The country experienced a delayed start of the 2015-16 agricultural season by two to four weeks followed by erratic and below average rains in November and December 2015. Prolonged dry spells have resulted in severe crop failure, particularly in the Southern Region and parts of the Central Region.

The drought has been characterized as an agricultural drought, as in large parts of the country precipitation commenced too late and was too erratic or occurred over a short period. In response to the dry spells, the Government of Malawi declared a state of disaster in April 2016, and a Post Disaster Needs Assessment (PDNA) was initiated in mid-May under the leadership of the Government of Malawi, with the assistance of the World Bank and the United Nations (UN).

One important aspect in terms of the implementation of recovery plans and actions is the macroeconomic assessment, necessary for the formalization of statistical data, and the process of elaboration of the national budget, conducted by the Ministry of Finance.

3.2 What have been the outcomes?

In response to the 2015 floods, as a follow up to the PDNA, DoDMA led the development of a National Disaster Recovery Framework (NDRF) to guide the implementation of recovery interventions.

Since the launch of the NDRF in October 2015, DoDMA has mainstreamed it in the implementation of the Malawi Floods Emergency and Recovery Project (MFERP) across all 15 disaster-affected districts. It has also incorporated the NDRF as a central tool for prioritization of flood recovery interventions. Additionally, DoDMA's efforts to disseminate and mainstream the NDRF at the national and district levels are improving coordination, oversight mechanisms, financial management systems, and implementation processes for recovery.

In the declaration of the 'state of national disaster', the President of Malawi made an appeal to the humanitarian relief assistance of the international donor community, the UN, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), the private sector as well as individuals. The total amount of financial assistance mobilized to date by the government and international partners is USD 149.36 million and has covered the following areas in 24 districts: food security, agriculture, nutrition, protection and education.

In response to the current situation and in preparation for the 2016/2017 lean season, the Department of Disaster Management Affairs (DoDMA) has led the preparation of a Food Insecurity Response. The Food Insecurity Response Plan (FIRP), was elaborated on behalf of the government, under the cluster system and in collaboration with key UN agencies. The main strategic objective of the FIRP is to provide immediate life-saving and life sustaining assistance to the drought-affected population. The total amount required to cover all the 6.5 million affected people across the 24 districts has been estimated at USD 380.056 million.

The government has played a leading role in the development and implementation of the recovery interventions and facilitating the participation and coordination of all other relevant national and international stakeholders.

A Drought Recovery Strategy and associated action was also elaborated, in the context of the PDNA. The Government of Malawi is responsible for its implementation.

3.3 How Have Programmes Been Monitored

Only food security has a comprehensive system for monitoring and evaluating. To this regard, efforts will still have to be made to come up with a dedicated monitoring framework.

4. Conclusions

4.1 Challenges

a) The main challenge for the country is the consolidation of the DRM system and its processes. Its successful implementation

will require a comprehensive institutional and legal framework, political commitment, clear mandates and functions for all the institutional actors. Efforts in identifying innovative ways for financing, monitoring and control of effectiveness are necessary.

b) The implementation of both PDNAs helped with the consolidation of the DRM process in the country, by bringing continuity in the practice of data collection and analysis, multi-sectoral coordination and national leadership. Nevertheless, those exercises are still considered donor-driven and to be very complex for their adaptation and internalization into national structures, procedures and competences. The transfer of this positive experience into long term processes is a key challenge for the country and its partners.
c) The adoption and implementation of effective recovery policies and mechanisms require clear orientation in terms of the theoretical and practical framework, especially for the promotion of articulation and coordination, and the prevention of competition between terms, policies and practices, such as adaptation, disaster risk management, and resilience.
d) No adequate resources have been mobilized and NGOs were not integrated as they made their own evaluations.
e) The adoption of the National Disaster Recovery Framework (NDRF) was an important step to develop institutional and organizational capacities that would deal with recovery. Nevertheless, NDRF has been concentrated on floods, for the most part.
f) A key challenge is the consolidation of a framework that would include all the different natural, anthropic and chronic impacts. Moreover, there is a need of alignment of the different actions, partners, NGO, into one common multi-purpose strategy in order to strengthen the leadership of national institutions. In the adaptation of the framework, it will be important to consider clear financial mechanisms that would have to be defined with the co-leadership of the Ministry of Finance.
g) There is the challenge on how to vertically expand the coverage of the National Social Protection Program. Although the program supports the affected population in meeting their needs, resources are not sufficient.
h) Financial needs for recovery are multi-sectoral and territorial. Many actors are responsible for the implementation of recovery planning and activities, and pressure is made for the allocation of funds. Nevertheless, the search for adequate financial solutions requires a dialog between DoDMA and the Ministry of Finance, a dialog that would be centered on risk reduction, recovery and "building back better". Subsequently, a comprehensive DRM financial strategy could be designed.
i) A critical issue in the development and review of the national contingency plan is that this is generally done at the onset of the rainy season in September or October, by which time the national budget has already been approved. The unavailability of a direct allocation of funds to the plan implies that those who make requests are dependent upon the National Disaster Appeal Fund, a process that does not guarantee adequate and timely disbursement of the resources required to operationalize the plan. Furthermore, the contingency plans are rarely tested and strengthened through execution of scheduled emergency simulations and drills.
j) DRM structures such as the CPCs exist at the district, area and village levels to undertake preparedness, response, and recovery interventions. However, the lack of adequate capacity and resources to support the implementation of the activities has been a limiting factor.

4.2 Gaps

a) Local capacities for DRM in general and particularly in recovery
b) Needs assessment tools for annual/recurrent events
c) Concrete instruments and processes for the implementation of policies (budget approach, information and monitoring mechanisms, participatory processes)
d) Articulated vision of adaptation, disaster risk management, and resilience
e) Integrated cross-cutting issues on gender equality and empowerment of women

4.3 Lessons learned

a. The concept of disaster cannot be fully separated from chronic risk and social vulnerability
b. Need to strengthen disaster management and disaster risk reduction at national, sectorial and district level in data management and implementation of DRM measures
c. Need to strengthen coordination with sectors and stakeholders not only related to humanitarian response but also with those engaged in development planning, disaster risk management and climate change adaptation (CCA), enhancing community and civil society participation
d. Financing DRM and post-impact recovery plans require the ex-ante definition of financial mechanisms that consider budget and public investments cycles
e. Decentralization and strengthening of district and community capacities is key for the adequate implementation of assessment and recovery plans

IV. Mozambique

1. Country description

1.1. Socio-economic situation

Mozambique has faced overwhelming odds since its independence in 1975. Over one third of the population was displaced at some point, and 1.7 million lived as refugees in neighbouring countries. Following a peace agreement in 1992, elections were held in 1994. Mozambique remains a developing democracy with substantial political tensions. Economically, the government, under heavy pressure from donors, started to transition from a centrally-planned economy with a socialist approach to a market economy back in 1987.

Since the war ended, the country has maintained an economic growth with an annual gross domestic product (GDP) growth rate of over 7.5% in each of the last five years, leading to an estimated GDP of 10.5 billion US$ in 2011.

According to UNDP (2016)[36], between 1990 and 2015, Mozambique's Human Development Index (HDI) value increased from 0.209 to 0.418, an increase of 99.8 per cent. Between 1990 and 2015, Mozambique's life expectancy at birth has increased by 12.3 years, years attended of school has increased by 2.7 years and expected years of schooling increased by 5.4 years. Mozambique's GNI per capita increased by about 205.0 per cent between 1990 and 2015. The human inequality coefficient for Mozambique is equal to 32.9 per cent.

Based on Mozambique's Multi-dimensional Poverty Index (MPI) of 2011, 70.2 per cent of the population (17,552 thousand people) are multi-dimensionally poor, while an additional 14.8 per cent live near multidimensional poverty (3,706 thousand people). The breadth of deprivation (intensity) in Mozambique, which is the average deprivation score experienced by people in multi-dimensional poverty, is 55.6 per cent.

Mozambique has received continuous support from international donors and has a substantial dependency on foreign assistance, with more than 50 % of public spending and about two thirds of public investment coming from external sources. Economic growth has tended to be concentrated in and around Maputo, and to a lesser extent in Beira, in the centre.

Maputo contributes up to 40 % to the GDP and accounts for 10% of the population. Mozambique has one of the lowest urbanization rates in the world (GoM 2001). The impact of economic growth has been uneven, especially in urban areas. The Mozambican population is predominately young and rural, with only 23% of the population living in urban areas and almost half of the entire urban population living in Maputo. It is considered that the acute shortage of Mozambicans with higher education qualifications also remains a major impediment to the development of the country.

1.2 Risks, Shocks and Vulnerabilities

The geography of Mozambique is dominated by ten main river systems that cross the country from west to east and drain into the Indian Ocean along Mozambique's 2,500 km coastline. The catchment areas of these rivers drain water from vast swathes of southern Africa, stretching into Botswana. The management of water flows from two major dams, the CaboraBassa and the Kariba.

The three biggest floods recorded in Mozambique happened in the 21st century: the first in 2000/2001, the second in 2007/2008 flooded Central Mozambique, and, most recently, the 2013 floods. Located downstream of several major rivers in the south-eastern coast of Africa, Mozambique is extremely prone to recurrent natural hazards, namely floods, tropical storms, droughts, and earthquakes. Nine of its rivers have sources in neighbouring countries, requiring cross-border coordination for early warning alerts. Sixty per cent of the population lives along the coastline and are therefore vulnerable to hurricanes,

[36] http://hdr.undp.org/sites/all/themes/hdr_theme/country-notes/MOZ.pdf

particularly between January and March each year. Droughts, exacerbated by the impact of the war, have had devastating impacts by the end of the last century. Four major droughts and famines between 1980 and 1992 caused an estimated 100,000 deaths (Maule 1999; World Bank 2000c; 2001b).

In February 2000, Mozambique and its neighbouring countries were battered by a succession of tropical storms. Heavy and persistent rain across Southern Africa resulted (for the first recorded time) in the simultaneous flooding of all of the major river systems that flow into the sea through Mozambique. Seven hundred people died, 650,000 were displaced, and 4.5 million were affected, which equals about a quarter of Mozambique's total population. A massive national and international relief operation avoided greater loss of life.

The 2001 floods mainly affected the central provinces of Mozambique and were caused by prolonged and intensive rains at the end of 2000 and in early 2001. About 500,000 people were affected, of which 223,000 were displaced. Agencies were better prepared to respond to the 2001 floods because the systems and contacts established in 2000 were in place.

The rainy season of 2013 recalled the year 2000 in terms of the height to which the flood waters rose, but with much lower impact on the population. Southern Mozambique was again devastated: 30 people died as a direct consequence of floods in the Limpopo River basin, and up to 186,000 were evacuated. Damages were estimated to exceed US$250 million; of which 50 per cent accrued on the road network and 30 per cent in the agricultural sector.

Mozambique experienced consecutive disasters with devastating floods in the 2014/15 season and continuing dry spells leading to an agricultural drought in the 2015/16 season. The latter severely affected agricultural production and food security in the country. Data from the Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security (MASA) indicates that the drought has resulted in the loss of about 875,000 hectares of several crops affecting 464,879 farmers.

The food security and nutritional assessment of the Technical Secretariat for Food Security and Nutrition (SETSAN), released in March 2016, estimates 1.5 million people are in need of urgent food assistance in seven provinces (Maputo, Gaza, Inhambane, Tete, Manica, Sofala and Zambezia). This shows severe deterioration of the food security situation as the initial assessment conducted in November 2015 indicated that 167,000 people were food insecure: an increase of food insecure people by almost 900 per cent in four months. Data from SETSAN's August 2016 Report demonstrates that acute food insecurity in the country has slightly decreased to -4.74 per cent, however. This improvement is attributed to rains during the pre-winter period and some mitigation interventions from the Government.

Economic gains in the country are significantly undermined as a result of recurrent water and weather-related hazards; consequent economic losses are estimated to average 1.1% of GDP annually. Worse, disasters such as floods and cyclones have a lasting impact that disproportionally affects the poorest.

Recently, the World Bank has studied the impact of various shocks on poverty: floods and cyclones were estimated to have the strongest impact at the household level, reducing expenditures by about 32 per cent and contributing more than 2 percentage points to the poverty rate. When facing a shock, poor households are often forced to sacrifice their long-term interests for the sake of immediate needs, for example by withdrawing children from school to supplement household labour, or by selling or consuming productive capital. In the long run, these coping mechanisms make households poorer and even more vulnerable, and may transmit these adverse effects to future generations through their impact on education and health outcomes.

1.3 Institutional Arrangements for DRM

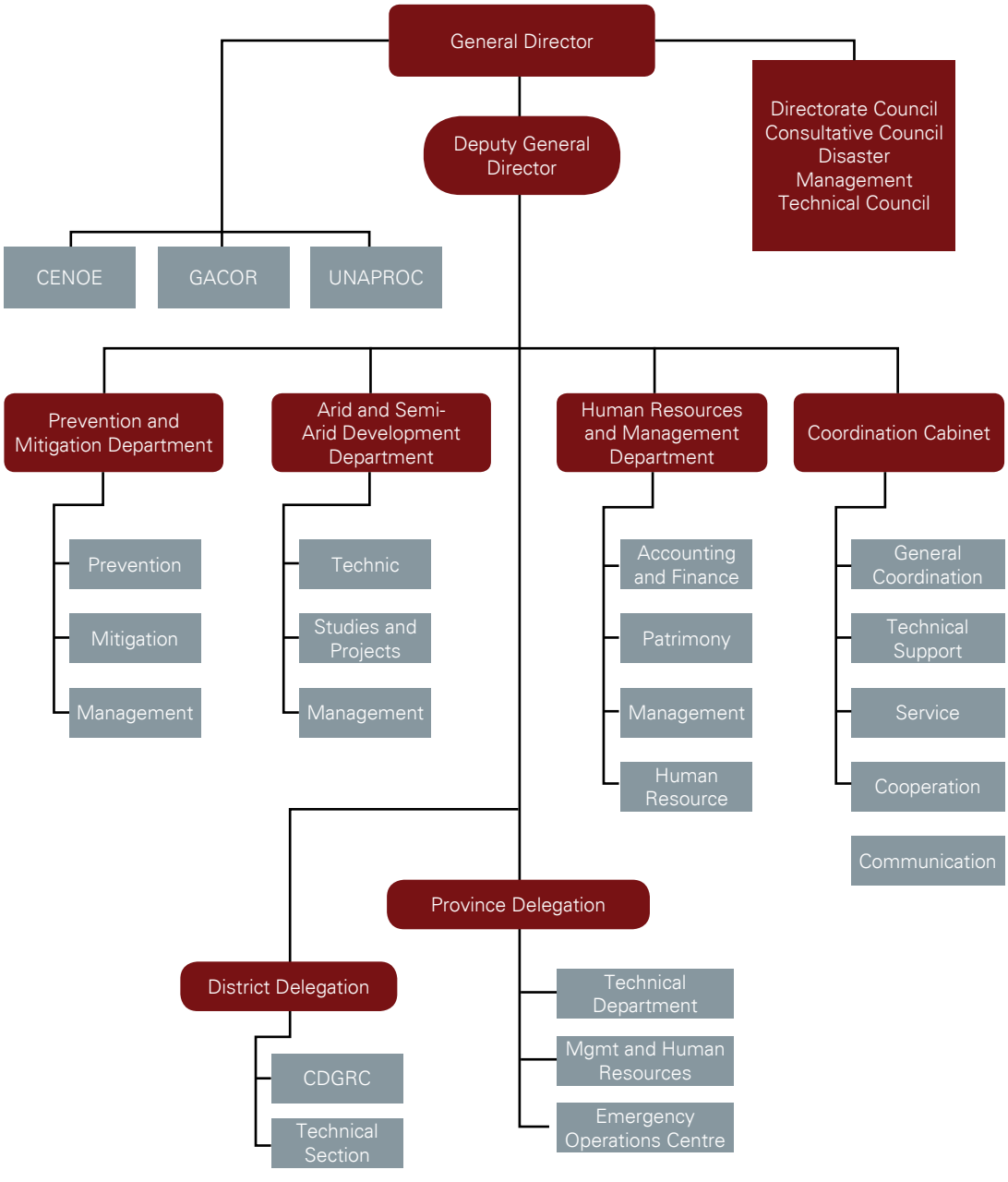
The Coordinating Council for Preventing and Combating Natural Disasters (CCPCCN) was created by presidential decree no. 44/80 on 3 September 1980. Its executive arm, the Department for Preventing and Combating Natural Disasters (DPCCN), had the mandate of

providing humanitarian assistance to refugees and internally displaced people, as well as to drought-impacted populations. In 1999, a new national government policy on disaster management was promulgated, replacing DPCCN with the National Disaster Management Institute (INGC) under the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. This reflected the country's dependence on foreign assistance for funding and the importance of donor coordination to recover from disasters.

The restructuring and transformation of INGC in 2005 benefitted from the flexibility given to the new manager, in terms of creating a completely new team and introducing innovative processes. Notwithstanding INGC's achievements in the areas of readiness and disaster response, its role in post-disaster recovery is more ambiguous.

Structurally, INGC was authorized in 2006 to create a National Emergency Operations Centre (Centro

Figure 14: The Policy and Legal Framework for DRM and Recovery



Nacional de Emergência, known as CENOE) to coordinate overall humanitarian support, and a civil protection unit known as UNAPROC to support search and rescue operations. At the same time, the legal basis for INGC's work was strengthened through judicial statutes (2007 and 2008) and approval of internal regulations by the Council of Ministers (2009). Three regional INGC offices have been set up in northern, central and southern parts of Mozambique, which respectively suffer different types of natural disasters.

Provincial departments of INGC have also been opened, to be closer to areas of potential disasters and to decentralize the institutional structures for disaster management. Their role is to support provincial governors and district administrators in the planning, coordination and implementation of provincial- and district-based programs.

Until the late 1990s, disaster management in Mozambique was a reactive process and depended upon international assistance for humanitarian relief and recovery, mainly due to the instability and insecurity caused by 17 years of war. Following the end of the war in 1992, the government of Mozambique, the Mozambique Red Cross, national NGOs, and international agencies wanted to move away from war-time relief mode. Development became the priority, and disaster prevention and preparedness were not integrated into those efforts. The government disaster relief agency, *Departamento de Prevenção e Combate as CalamidadesNaturais*[37] or DPCCN, had an unsustainable post-war delivery infrastructure of 3,000 staff and 400 vehicles.

1.3.1 The Disaster Management Policy

By adopting a Disaster Management Policy in 1999, the Government of Mozambique started to introduce proactive measures for disaster management, using early warning systems with community involvement, allocating funds for contingencies and supporting livelihood recovery through labor intensive strategies. This policy was part of a broader post-independence development strategy to shift from supply-driven service delivery to a demand-driven approach involving effective community participation in making decisions and managing systems.

1.3.2 Master Plan for the Prevention and Mitigation of Natural Disasters (2006-2014)

The Master Plan served as the key reference for disaster risk management in Mozambique. It clearly linked disaster mitigation and recovery with poverty and vulnerability reduction in an agriculture-based economy. The implementation strategy for this plan was decentralized, so that local and traditional governments as well as civil society were considered as primary managers of information and disaster risk.

INGC has launched an updating process of the Plan, and a new proposal has already been submitted for approval.

The sharp decrease in fatality rates and the impact of disaster indicate that disasters are being managed more effectively. This reflects lessons learned in the prior decade, including flood forecasting, early warning systems and trans-boundary cooperation. Most importantly, national investment and international cooperation in strengthening institutional capacity and readiness have noticeably reduced the devastating impact of disasters on human lives and housing.

1.3.3 Disaster Management Law 15/2014

Since April 2014, Mozambique has a legal instrument that obligates every sector or stakeholder to take action for disaster risk management. The Law *"establishes the legal regime for the management of disaster risk, including the prevention and mitigation of the disaster-damaging effects, the development of relief and assistance actions and the reconstruction and rehabilitation of affected areas."* In March 2016, the Government approved the Regulation of the Law on Disaster Management that establishes rules and procedures for implementation.

[37] The department for the prevention and combat againstnatural disasters.

1.3.4 Agenda 2025: Strategic Vision of the Nation.

The analysis of strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats included in the Agenda 2025 identified vulnerability to disasters such as floods, droughts and cyclones as one of the main threats to development. The strategy also clearly establishes the relationship between calamities and development by highlightening that income per capita has declined as a result of the calamities that devastated the country in the years 2000 and 2001, together with the country's excessive vulnerability to these phenomena.

1.3.5 National Strategy for Adaptation and Mitigation of Climate Change (ENAMMC) 2013-2025

ENAMMC's overall objective is "to establish action guidelines for building resilience, including the reduction of climate risks, in communities and the national economy, and to promote the development of low carbon and green economy by integrating them into the sectoral and local planning process". This emphasis on resilience and climate risk reduction already establishes an indivisible interaction between Strategy with the objectives, actions and functional structure of the DRM Master Plan. In the identification of institutional responsibilities, INGC—as a multi-institutional entity coordinating disaster risk management actions—has been assigned with coordination responsibilities, including recovery.

1.3.6 Five-Year Government Program 2016-2020

The Government's Five-Year Program 2016-2020 presents the priorities of the country's economic and social development in the various areas of government action. The Program constitutes the commitment of the Government to focus its action on the search of solutions to the challenges and obstacles that impede the economic and social development of the country.

The Program provides orientation and guidelines for integrating disaster risk management and adaptation to climate change into national, sectoral and local development plans.

2. Response, Recovery and Rehabilitation within the DRM Mechanism

Disaster Management Law 15/2014 clearly defines responsibilities for Response and Recovery, in particular (i) the mandatory development of operational readiness in all public and private institutions and by citizens in general; (ii) the Government's obligation to have a Contingency Plan.

INGC is the institution responsible for coordinating the implementation of response and recovery actions in the country. In particular, INGC implements multi-sectoral recovery programs that are not explicitly covered by line ministries. To respond to the needs for relocation of flood-affected populations, an Office for Reconstruction Coordination (GACOR) was created within INGC in 2007 to work with sector ministries, provincial and district governments and other partners.

INGC involvement in relocation activities began after the Council of Ministers approved the Chimoio Plan and Preliminary Assessment and Post-Disaster Reconstruction plan in April 2007.

2.1 Recovery in Action

2.1.1 Background

As already mentioned, Disaster Management Law 15/2014 clearly defines responsibilities for all the sectors and local governments, and INGC is the institution responsible for the coordination of actions. The authority of INGC in disaster-stricken areas is supported by local governments. Nevertheless, the implementation of recovery programs in flood-prone areas has been subject to questioning by line ministries and provincial governments.

According to a case study on recovery, implemented by INGC, World Bank, GFDRR and UNDP in 2016, INGC's leadership mandate for disaster prevention and mitigation is distinct from coordination of recovery programs, in terms of skill sets and functions. As an example, the coordination of rapid humanitarian assessments at the outset of an emergency draws upon field observations and provides information for immediate relief,

whereas damage and loss assessments for post-disaster recovery draw upon secondary sources of information to estimate recovery and reconstruction needs. To date, INGC does not have the tools to coordinate the latter, nor does it have the staff structure in GACOR to coordinate decentralized multi-sectoral recovery.

Yet INGC is the only government agency with a dedicated department for reconstruction and relocation. Other sectors of government are not structured for recovery and reconstruction activities, yet they have the responsibility of assessing disaster-related needs, estimating costs for addressing the needs, and developing projects for funding and implementation. This grey area of post-disaster responsibilities creates gaps between humanitarian action and development plans, raising issues of sustainability for normal development activities.

Government-sponsored resettlement policies are implemented differently if related to disasters or development. The mandates of INGC and the Land, Environment and Rural Development Ministry (MITADER) also overlap and require public negotiation. In fact, it is the Ministry of Economy and Finance (MED) that coordinates budget revisions to fund urgent recovery needs. MEF also oversees the integration of longer-term recovery actions into development plans with line ministries and external donors.

Institutionally, oversight of disaster recovery is transferred by default (in the absence of any regulation or directive on this matter) from INGC to MEF and other ministries. In 2013, the relocation activities implemented by GACOR/ INGC were part of the recovery actions compiled by each sector and consolidated in one document by MPD, called "Preliminary Assessment of Post-Disaster Reconstruction Activities". Recovery assessments are thus being undertaken by each sector, and may or may not be addressed, depending on the level of urgency and related possibility of funding, as will be discussed in the section on Financial Management. In the process, disaster recovery shifts from emergency to development in terms of management perspective, financing, and processing.

2.1.2 What have been the outcomes?

A significant factor bearing on the response to and recovery from the floods of 2000 and 2001 has been Mozambique's positive relationship with its donors. The donors developed sympathy, respect, and solidarity for Mozambique during its suffering as an anti-apartheid Front Line State. Wider donor respect has grown through the 1990s as a result of the management of the economy and the success of the peace process.

Remarkably few evaluations have been carried out around the recovery period, so it is not possible to make a definitive judgment on the effectiveness and impact of the recovery processes after the 2000 floods. However, Mozambique's recovery from the 2000 floods broadly appears to have been effective and generally well handled. The 2000 floods in Mozambique demonstrated clearly that it is possible to make an impact and carry out extensive recovery activities when the disaster is high profile and the amount of money donated to the affected populations is large. Recovery programs provided an opportunity for investments in upgraded services and infrastructure. Evidence from the community survey illustrated many ways in which some affected populations have been assisted, albeit somewhat passively, to resume their livelihoods.

On the negative side, asset depletion has been neglected in the post-emergency period. Increased social capital was the most important positive aspect for affected populations. There are indications that some of the new social structures created—associations, community committees and resettlement areas—will strengthen the safety net for future disasters, but it is too early to state categorically that this will be a lasting effect of the post-emergency interventions.

The first National Relocation and Reconstruction Plan was elaborated in 2007, with an emphasis on relocating vulnerable populations. This included support to the construction of resilient houses far from flood zones, land use planning, provision of basic services and structures in newly established communities, livelihood support, water supply and sanitation infrastructure.

Other actions to rehabilitate damaged infrastructure are enfolded into development projects and are not labelled as post-disaster recovery programs per se, even when resources for recovery come from donor funds earmarked for emergency.

A sampling of projects that include recovery components are (i) the Safer Schools Project jointly financed by the EU, UN-Habitat and GFDRR, (ii) the Baixo Limpopo Development Project financed by the African Development Bank; and (iii) two projects financed by the World Bank for (1) Roads and Bridges management and maintenance and (2) a national productive social action program.

In the absence of a defined recovery phase, recovery projects are subject to standard financial management procedures that have been constructed for transparency and embedded with safeguards for accountability—but which are not time-sensitive to the aim of returning to normal as quickly as possible. This can frustrate the expectations of partner organizations that adjusted their funding to address a post-disaster situation but find that disbursements are not treated with any urgency.

Community surveys implemented in three flood-affected areas found that coordination between the local authorities and external agencies was seen as one of the positive aspects of the post-emergency period by all key informants. However, its success depended on the philosophies of the external agencies and their commitment to coordination measures, and not necessarily the organizational ability of the local government.

The Chimoio Plan and the "Preliminary Assessment and Post-Disaster Reconstruction" plan were approved by the Council of Ministries in April 2007. The first project involved the construction of houses for 30,000 families, at a cost of 193 million meticais (MZN) or USD 7.9 million. The government could finance one third or 66.5 million MZN, from available resources, out of which 92 per cent was earmarked for the four affected provinces of Sofala, Manica, Tete and Zambezia.

Responsibility for program implementation was initially attributed to the Ministry of Public Works, provincial governors and concerned districts. The role of INGC was limited to working with communities on disaster management and coordinating with the Ministry of Science and Technology on income generation activities.

However, the Prime Minister designated INGC as the overall coordinator of the relocation process in 2008, and GACOR was created for this purpose; their first disbursements took place in 2009. As a result of relocation activities, the population faces visibly reduced risk of being victimized by floods, as compared to those of 2000 and 2007.

A performance audit conducted by KPMG recognizes positive performance indicators. For example, 99 communities were settled along the river basins of Zambeze, Punge, Save, Buzi and Limpopo. Socio-economic infrastructure (e.g. health centres and schools) was also rehabilitated and repositioned in these areas. Also, economic conditions in the resettled areas have improved somewhat, as indicated by the development of local markets for bricks and the local construction capacity.

The MEF guidelines for planning post-disaster needs specifies that settlements located far from flood plains be considered a definitive solution to eliminate risks, and to substantially reduce loss of property, given that no dyke or dam can guarantee total protection to cities and settlements in case of catastrophic floods. Options for transferring social infrastructure and public administration services to new locations are being identified, together with the allocation of enough land to progressively transfer to inhabitants in these same areas. The locations under consideration are small and medium-size cities and settlements along the banks of the major rivers. Other views for reducing vulnerability and risk, as proposed by some cooperation partners, are seen through a paradigm of learning to live with floods in situ (introducing different building techniques and designs), instead of moving communities away from flood zones to reduce their vulnerability.

2.1.3 How have Programmes been monitored?

Neither of the assessments of recovery needs included in the 2007 National Relocation and Reconstruction Plan are actively used to monitor

or evaluate the completion and impact of actions undertaken.

SISTAFE and ODAMoz, two financial management tools and databases existing in the country, help to monitor funding at a national level—but do not provide correlations between available funding and post-disaster needs, let alone the overall state of recovery from the most recent disaster. Nevertheless, the 2013 guide for preliminary assessment of post-flood damage stipulates that recovery, reconstruction and vulnerability reduction should merit priority attention of all sectors, and consequently will be periodically monitored by the Council of Ministers. Progress reports are prepared by MEF, in coordination with the Ministry for State Administration (MAE), for review by the Council of Ministers, with the possibility of mid-course corrections if the reviewers deem it necessary.

The early recovery strategy defined by key international partners is not monitored by either INGC or MEF. Within the humanitarian country team, composed of international organizations and led by the United Nations, the Early Recovery Cluster working group considers this strategy to have been developed for fund-raising purposes, and does not use it (or any other baseline) to track how recovery needs are being addressed after each disaster in Mozambique, even if they are incorporated into and financed as development projects that are coordinated by the MEF.

Similarly, long-term recovery needs are not explicitly included when defining government development priorities or socio-economic plans. Thus, there is no certainty that the needs identified in post-disaster assessments are being treated or financed. Within the guidelines, line ministries are responsible for reconstruction within their respective mandates, but they each face the challenge of limited resources and balancing between recovery needs and those already identified in socio-economic development plans (e.g. PES, PESODs).

The resources allocated to INGC for recovery are subject to monitoring and control by the same institutions and mechanisms that monitor line ministries and development activities. While the active participation of a comptroller (from the Finance Ministry) within CENOE creates room for maneuvering during the emergency phase, the Administrative Tribunal who audits state accounts reviews accounts only years after the fact—when appreciation for the special circumstances has long dissipated.

3. Conclusions

3.1 Challenges

a) Mozambique is a country that has developed modern approaches to disaster, transcending preparedness and response. Coordination mechanisms are considered efficient for alert and emergency response, but are not very visible in the recovery/reconstruction phase. A key challenge for the country is to further institutionalize post-disaster recovery measures and operational and financial implementation mechanisms. This makes it urgent to establish an Ex-ante Recovery Strategy for guiding the elaboration and implementation of reconstruction and recovery plans.

b) INGC is well-placed by its institutional mandate to coordinate recovery policy and programs—working with sector ministries, provincial and district governments, international partners and civil society organizations. The stakeholders in Mozambique are urged to take advantage of recently approved Disaster Management Law to debate, define and formalize the roles and responsibilities of individuals, organizations, and institutions, to ensure that recovery needs caused by recurrent disasters be fully funded, implemented and monitored.

c) Improving the quality and impact of post-disaster actions calls for the implementation of pro-active measures. The bottlenecks created by long procurement processes—which under normal development conditions can take at least three to six months—require attention in order to create and use accelerated procurement and management mechanisms for recovery activities.

d) Long-term recovery needs are not explicitly included when defining government development priorities or socio-economic

plans. Thus, there is no certainty that the needs identified in post-disaster assessments are implemented or financed. An Ex-Ante Recovery Strategy should define mechanisms for integrating recovery needs in development planning and normal budget cycles.

- Projects financed by the International Cooperation that contain tranches of recovery activities, should include monitoring indicators for recovery.
- The resources allocated to INGC for recovery are subject to monitoring and control by the same institutions and mechanisms that monitor line ministries and development activities. With the promulgation of the Emergency Law, there is an opportunity to resolve many of the monitoring, control and accountability issues, giving the DRM system financial capacities with appropriate mechanisms and safeguards.
- Monitoring of post-disaster recovery and reconstruction is not yet conducted consistently. The mechanisms for monitoring should be developed to link recovery activities with the allocated budget, such as the Reconstruction Plan of 2013-2015 and related plans of action.

3.2 Gaps

a) Apart from INGC, sectors of government are not structured for recovery and reconstruction activities, yet they have responsibility for assessing disaster-related needs, estimating costs for addressing the needs, and developing projects for funding and implementation.
b) Consolidated database related to the demographic, geographic, and infrastructure information collected through the assessments
c) Lack of accelerated financial mechanisms for recovery, while maintaining transparency and accountability
d) Effective decentralization of DRM capacities at provincial, municipal and district capacities
e) Needs assessment tools for annual/recurrent events
f) Articulated vision of adaptation, disaster risk management, and resilience
g) Inclusion, gender equality and the empowerment of women

3.3 Lessons learned

a) The floods in 2000 demonstrated clearly that it is possible to make an impact and carry out extensive recovery activities when the disaster is high profile and the amount of money donated to the affected populations is large. Recovery programs provided an opportunity for investments in upgraded services and infrastructure.

b) Community surveys implemented in three flood-affected areas found that coordination between the local authorities and external agencies was one of the positive aspects of the post-emergency period by all key informants. However, its success depended on the philosophies of the external agencies and their commitment to coordination measures, and not necessarily the organizational ability of the local government.

c) The community survey found that beneficiaries were often poorly informed about recovery plans and activities. Nobody in the communities visited was aware of the full recovery picture. This lack of information led to a sense of powerlessness and dependency. There was a general lack of transparency in the government and among NGOs about budgets, funding, and planning. Community participation in recovery remained rudimentary and generally consisted of providing labour, participation in committees, and compliance with a set of rules decided by external agents.

d) At the same time, GACOR-INGC have learned important lessons for disaster recovery through the relocation process:

- Each relocated community has unique specifications and characteristics
- Economic opportunity is a critical part of recovery
- District government must be involved. Local leaders play a critical role in coordination and interaction between government, communities, and relocation partners
- Community participation increases consumer satisfaction
- Building Back Better: relocation is more than reconstruction
- Logistics management is critical

V. Nigeria

1. Country description

1.1. Socio-economic situation

The Federal Republic of Nigeria, Africa's most populous country, was estimated to have some 197 million people in 2018[38]. Nigeria has seen its GNI per capita decrease from $2,910 in 2014 to $2,790 in 2015. The GDP growth has also experienced a decrease for the same period from 6.3% to 2.7%, due most significantly to the drop in the price of crude oil. The Nigerian economy is rated in terms of GDP size as the largest in Africa. The country is among the world's largest oil producers: ranked as the 12th largest in the world, and the 6th in Africa. Despite Nigeria's huge petrodollar income, the country has continued to grapple with many developmental challenges and governance issues.

A little more than half of Nigeria's population lives in poverty, with 53.5 per cent of the population falling below the poverty line of US$ 1.90 per day between 2003 and 2009. The income inequality in 2015, reported by the Gini coefficient, was relatively high at 43.3 (UNDP, 2016).

During the course of2016, the reforms which the government had put in place began to take effect and boost the economy. Increased spending on infrastructure was secured, for instance. Security, fighting corruption, and improving the social welfare of Nigerians are concerns at the heart of the development policy of the new administration that was inaugurated on 29 May 2015.

Since the colonial period Nigeria has been plagued by conflict, of a social, religious or political nature, over issues of power and resources. In this current period, the major challenge seems to come from the northeast. While the military has stepped up the fight against the Boko Haram insurgency, the humanitarian situation has continued to deteriorate. The number of internally displaced persons is estimated at over two million, located mainly in the cities where conditions are safer. Both the government and development partners continue to explore additional ways of improving the situation.

The country is divided into 36 states, the Federal Capital Territory (FCT) and 774 Local Government Areas (LGAs). Nigeria has a rich diverse culture, with more than 374 ethnic groups and over 500 languages and dialects. English is the official language and the languages of the three major indigenous languages (Yoruba, Ibo and Hausa) are also widely spoken. Most Nigerians belong to any of the three religious' beliefs, namely Islam, Christianity and Traditional religions.

Nigeria's human development indicators have not shown significant improvement in recent years. From poverty to life expectancy, indicators have tended to stagnate. According to the UNDP (2018), Nigeria continues to be ranked amongst countries with a low development index, scoring 157 out of 187 countries.

Life expectancy averages around 53.9 years. Adult illiteracy rate for women aged 15-49 years was 53.1 per cent while the corresponding rate for men was 75.2 per cent. There was a marked improvement in some indicators such as Under-5 Mortality Rate which dropped from 99 in 1990 to 89 in 2014; Infant mortality rate dropped from 91 in 1990 to 58 in 2014; while maternal mortality rate dropped from 1000 in 1990 to 243 in 2014. (UNDP,2016).

1.2 Risks, Shocks and Vulnerabilities

Nigeria is one of the most disaster-prone countries in Africa, being extremely vulnerable to droughts, floods, landslides, gully erosion, and wind storms.

Droughts and floods affect the largest proportion of the population. Northern Nigeria, which stretches towards the Savannah and Sahel belt of the neighbouring Republics of Niger and Chad, has regularly been affected by droughts. The 1983 drought affected more than three million people in the country.

[38] http://www.worldometers.info/world-population/nigeria-population/

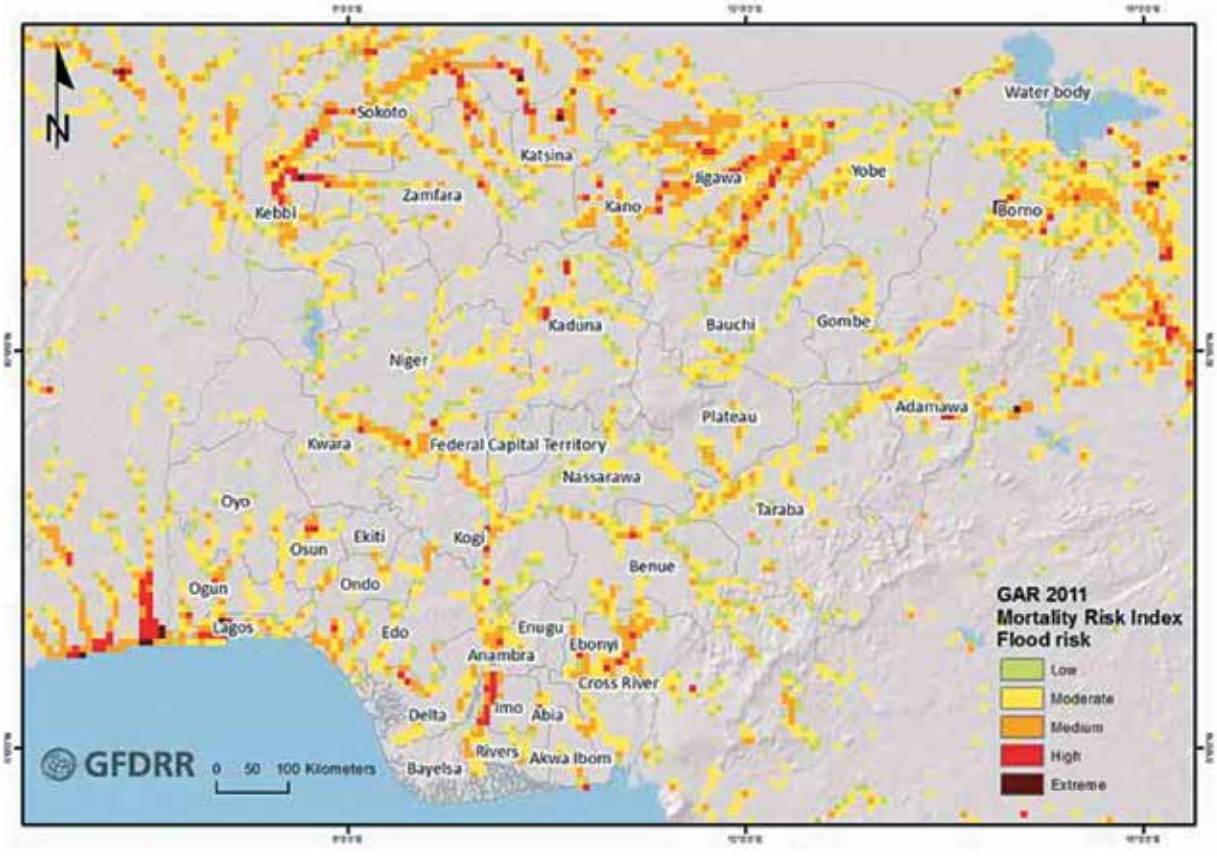
The 2012 drought, affecting populations across the Sahel, also hit several thousand people in the northern states. Two major rivers run through Nigeria, Niger and Benue. The Niger flows from the northwest through the country to its vast delta in the south, while the source of the Benue is the Cameroon Mountains; it flows into the country from the east, joining River Niger at Lokoja in Kogi State. Flooding along the Niger and Benue Rivers and their tributaries affects large parts of the population living along the river banks. Flooding has also become a frequent phenomenon in major urban centres such as Lagos, Port Harcourt, Kano, and Ibadan. Expanding settlements into wetlands areas while existing environmental and town planning regulations are disregarded, and drainage capacities are limited, have fuelled vulnerabilities in recent years.

In 2011, the floods in Ibadan killed more than 100 people and substantially affected local infrastructure. In other parts of the country, weak infrastructure (mainly dams) has contributed to the flooding problem. In 2010, for example, the Goronyo dam spillage affected thousands of people in Sokoto and Kebbi states. Landslides and extreme gully erosion have substantially impacted infrastructure and livelihoods of parts of south-eastern Nigeria, with Anambra state being the most affected. There are an estimated 3,000 gullies, which can run up to 10 kilometres, their multiple tributaries spreading through the rural or urban landscape. (See Figure 15 below, which presents the flood map of Nigeria.)

Other disasters in the country include disease outbreaks and epidemics, such as cholera, malaria, meningitis, measles, Lassa fever, yellow fever, and, more recently, avian flu virus.

Another area of vulnerability for Nigeria is its high number of Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs), as a result of armed conflict, internal strife and natural or man-made disasters. Before, the end

Figure 15 Flood map of Nigeria



Source: PDNA 2012. GFDRR using data from UNEP & UNISDR 2011, Global risk data platform.

of 2011, IDPs in Nigeria was driven mainly by boundary disputes and disasters such as flooding.

However, the intensification of insurgency in the North-East of Nigeria has changed this trend as terrorist activities are now the main driver of IDPs. According to the IDMC, as of 31 December 2015 Nigeria had the fifth largest number of IDPs globally, as a result of conflict (GRID,2016) and over 100,000 were displaced as a result of disasters.

Most IDP camps in Nigeria are lacking the basic necessities of life such as conveniences, decent sleeping places and shelter. They have virtually no access to healthcare facilities and personnel while their security is in peril.

The issue of deforestation and the declining trends in the forest resources of the country is also of serious concern. Nigerian forests occupy about 10 million hectares, representing almost 10 per cent of the total land area of 92, 377 hectares, but this figure is deteriorating. The UNDP Nigerian Human Development Report (2016) noted that Nigeria has one of the highest rates of forest loss in the world. Between 1990 and 2000, Nigeria lost an average of 409,700 hectares of forest per year. This amounts to an average annual deforestation rate of 2.38%. In total, between 1990 and 2005, Nigeria lost 35.7% of its forest cover.

The desert is encroaching at an estimated annual rate of between 8 and 30 hectares in 11 states: Borno, Yobe, Bauchi, Gombe, Adamawa, Jigawa, Kano, Katsina, Zamfara, Sokoto and Kebbi. Around 35 per cent of the arable land there has been overtaken by desert in the last 50 years. This has adversely affected the livelihoods of over 55 million people, more than the combined population of Mali, Burkina Faso, Senegal and Mauritania (IRIN, 2008).

As climate change increases the threats to sustainable development in Nigeria, exacerbated by extreme climatic events such as flooding and drought, people, properties and their livelihoods are being negatively impacted. Declining trends in the forest resources of the country have serious implications for human development (UNDP,2016).

2. Institutional Arrangements For DRM

2.1 The Policy and Legal Framework for DRM and Recovery

In 1972-1973, Nigeria experienced a devastating drought which had negative socio-economic consequences and cost the nation the loss of many lives and property. This event, amongst others, led to the establishment of the National Emergency Relief Agency (NERA) in 1976, which had the mandate of collecting and distributing relief materials to disaster victims.

An Inter-Ministerial body was set up by the Federal Government of Nigeria (FGN) in 1990 to address natural disaster reduction strategies in line with the UN International Decade for Natural Disaster Reduction (IDNDR) and to address the limited scope of NERA. In 1993, the FGN decided to expand the scope of managing disasters to include all areas of disasters. This bold approach was backed up by decree 119 of 1993 which raised the status of the Agency to an Independent body under the Presidency.

In 1997, NERA changed its name to National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA), as well as its structure, putting into place appropriate Policies and Strategies, as well as search and rescue operations, resource mobilization capabilities and information, education and prevention strategies.

The National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA) was formally established by Act 12, as amended by Act 50 of 1999. NEMA has the Vice President of the Federal Republic of Nigeria as the Chairman of its Governing Council, and the rest of the Council is made up of Ministers from Ministries that have mandates contributing to DRR or disaster response.

NEMA is mandated amongst others to:

i. Formulate policies on all activities relating to disaster management in Nigeria and coordinate plans and programmes, for efficient and effective response to disasters at the national level.
ii. Monitor the state of preparedness of all

Organizations or Agencies that may contribute to disaster management in Nigeria.

iii. Collate data from relevant Agencies so as to enhance forecasting, planning and field operations.

iv. Educate and inform the public on disaster prevention and control measures.

Nigeria has 36 States and all the States are mandated to establish their State Emergency Management Agencies.

One per cent of the national budget is allocated to mitigate ecological problems and related, underlying risk factors. Twenty per cent of the Environmental Fund is allocated directly to the Disaster Management Agency (NEMA). Others are utilized by the Federal Ministries such as Environment, Health and others that contribute to disaster risk reduction and mitigation, as well as States and local governments.

Local governments have the constitutional responsibilities to protect the lives and property of citizens and are therefore expected to make budget allocations for DRR in their areas. Unfortunately, except in few cases, DRR activities are not seen as a priority.

To fulfil its statutory mandate, NEMA has developed a number of policy and programming instruments. These include the National Disaster Response Plan (NDRP), the National Disaster Management Framework (NDMF) and the National Action Plan for Emergency Preparedness and Response/Disaster Risk Reduction in Nigeria 2013-2015 (NAP).

It is expected that NEMA will work closely with SEMA and LEMA to assess and monitor where the distribution of relief materials should go: disaster survivors, IDPs, refugees, and those adversely affected by mass deportation and repatriation from any other country as a result of crises, disasters or foreign policies.

2.2. Response, Recovery and Rehabilitation within the DRM Mechanism

There is a National Platform of Disaster Risk Reduction in Nigeria. It is made up of government Ministries, Department, Agencies, Civil Society groups, and Development Partners. The National Platform developed a National Action Plan for DRR and is working to review and update the Plan. The National Emergency Management Agency is the Secretariat and coordinates the activities of the National Platform.

(See Figure 16, which illustrates the DRM framework of coordination at the national level.)

The 2012 flood disaster was unprecedented in the history of Nigeria. It affected, at the very least, 25 out of 36 states, displaced 3,871,063 people, injured 5,871, killed 363, and destroyed 597,400 homes. The severity, scale, intensity, and impact of the 2012 flood disaster in Nigeria called for a concerted effort among all the stakeholders, who rallied to cushion its effect on the affected population.

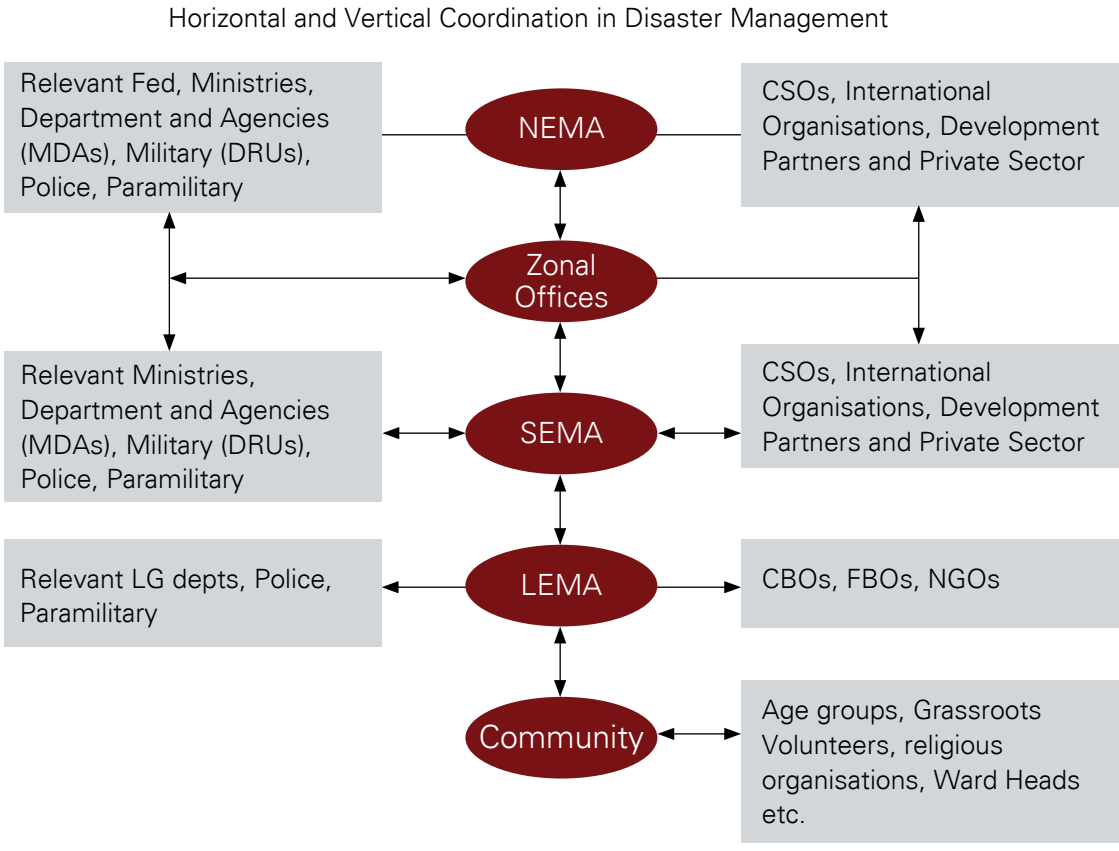
Following the undertaking of the PDNA 2012, it was recommended that Nigeria could use the window of opportunity provided by the Floods to address difficult, long-standing development issues. If it did so, it could facilitate the modernization of the country overall and the Niger and Benue river basins, with improved living conditions for its population.

To assist such a robust recovery, a reconstruction framework was recommended. It was argued that such a framework would have been able to provide the sequenced, prioritized, programmatic, yet flexible (living) action plan, to guide the recovery and reconstruction process.

It is well known that a belt of poor and rich savannah is shrinking, thus affecting the population's living standards and resulting in the increase of poverty and crime. Programmes for reforestation first appeared in 2005 through an initiative put forward by the former Nigerian president Olusegun Obasanjo, called the Great Green Wall. This project proposes a green belt to stop desertification from threatening the African continent. The initiative was aimed at ending soil erosion, reducing wind speed and soil absorption of rain water.

The project got off the ground in 2009-2010 when Sudan ratified the project and paid its subscription,

Figure 16 Coordination Structure of the DRM in Nigeria



Source: Nigeria National Disaster Framework

as Khartoum recognized its importance, particularly for supporting the Arabic Gum belt, of which Sudan is one of the biggest producers. The project was also supported in 11 states of Nigeria through a World Bank project aimed at providing funds for planting 1 billion seedlings in 2008, funnelled through the federal government to the states.

In 2013, the Federal Government approved the sum of Naira (NGN) 10 billion for the Great Green Wall project at the second meeting of the National Council on Shelterbelt and Afforestation in Abuja. The Federal Government was working with the support of the African Development Bank (ADB) and Islamic Development Bank (IDB). It was noted that N3.3 billion was to be used for the 2013 work plan (Premium Times, 2013).

3. Recovery in action

3.1 Background

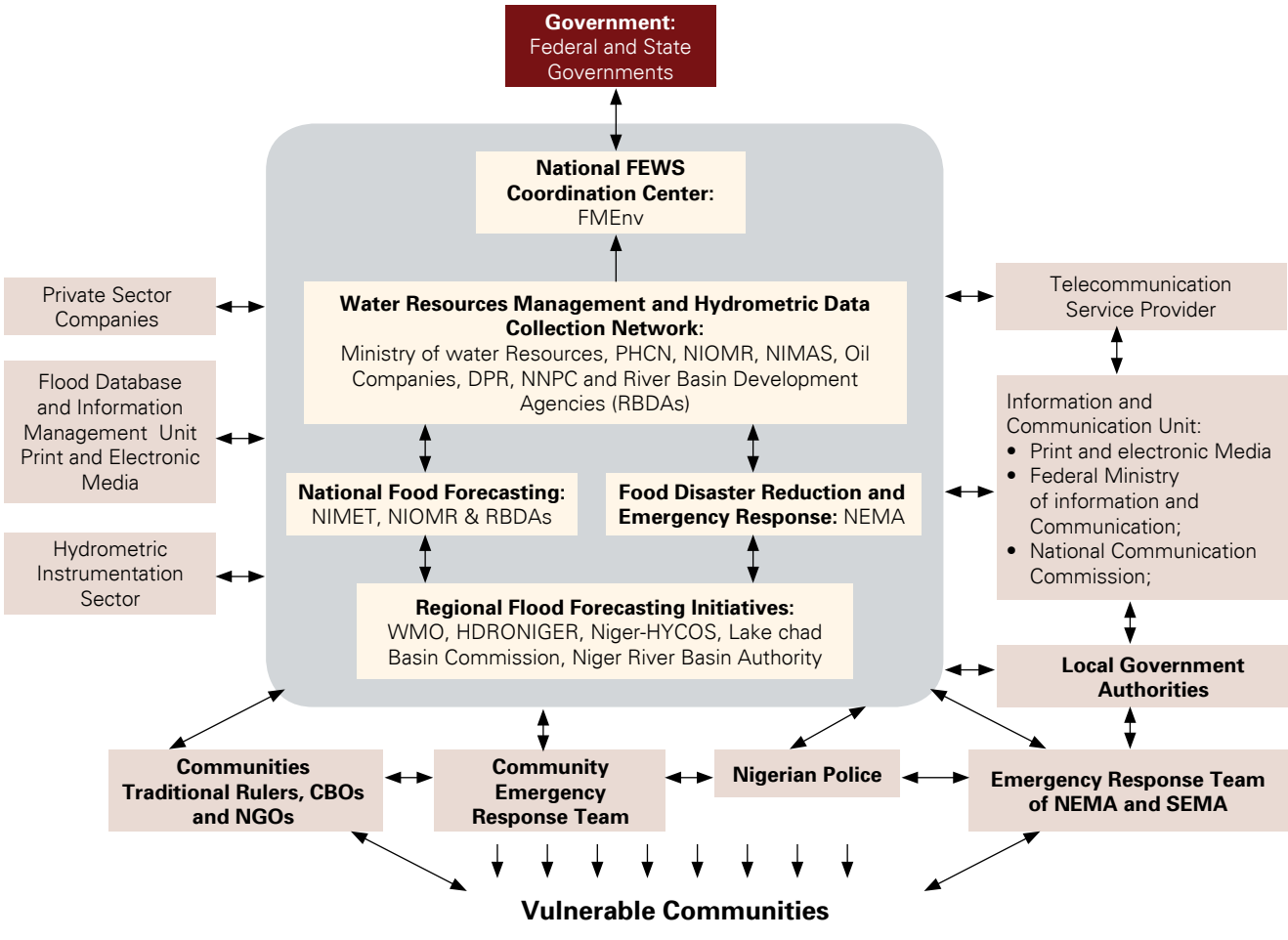
A number of initiatives have together made up the national recovery process. This study does not cover the entirety of flood risk management projects (FRM). It should be noted however that many of the FRM projects have been critiqued for having focused too much on structural measures, structural flood defences, canals, embankments, culverts and bridges without sufficient consideration though for less costly and more sustainable, non-structural solutions such as advocacy, education, stakeholders' participation, and consultation enhancing the sense of project co-production and ownership (Oladokun, V.O. & D. Proverbs, 2016).

Food security in times of disaster has been of key concern. The Government of Nigeria established a Strategic Grains Reserve Department of the Federal Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development. The latter seeks to prevent post-harvest losses, to provide the first line of food relief internally in times of disaster, natural or man-made, and to make food available at other times at affordable prices. This Department forms part of the National Agricultural Food Storage Programme of the Federal Government, which was launched in 1987.

The programme is involved in construction of silo complexes and maintenance of silo facilities; grain and food item purchase and storage and management of stored product and acts as buyer of last resort (BLR). It ambitions to store 5% of the food grains produced in the country for providing food during the period of national disasters and to give assistance to friendly sister countries in their period of need.

Another programme which forms part of the DRM processes is the Flood Early Warning Systems (FEWS). Reports indicate that information and communication technologies (ICTs), remote sensing, satellite and cellular mobile and geographic information systems (GIS) were incorporated into a web-based system for real time dissemination of information which would facilitate decision-making processes. The information has been used to create resilience, and to bring down the levels of risk and uncertainty with regards to the flood hazards in Nigeria. Prior to the introduction of the FEWS, there was no coordinated monitoring of floods or established early warning systems for flood disaster reduction in Nigeria.

Figure 17 Institutional Framework for Nigeria's Flood Early Warning System



Source: Onafeso, Olumide David and Kayode, Julius Samuel (2012)

3.2 National Social Safety Net Programme (HSSNP)

Another programme that is now taking shape is the National Social Safety Nets project (NASSP). The project was announced on June 2016. Through it, it is expected that up to five million people, among the poorest and most vulnerable, will have access to social safety nets by 2021 through a $500 million International Development Association (IDA) credit. The Government of Nigeria will contribute $1.3 billion of its own budget to this National Social Safety Nets project (NASSP) which will lay the foundation for the establishment of the country's first national social safety nets system.

While the sharp drop in oil revenues has shrunk its budget significantly, the federal government of Nigeria recognizes the importance of investing in social protection to help mitigate the effect of the economic slowdown on the poor. An electronic national registry of poor and vulnerable households, using state-of-the art methodologies to target those who need it the most, is to be established as part of the programme.

The National Social Safety Nets Project will support the Government's program by providing cash transfers to poor households throughout Nigeria, identified through a combination of geographical and community-based targeting. Each targeted household will receive a base transfer of NGN 5,000 ($25 per month), and households among the most vulnerable will be eligible for an additional monthly benefit of NGN 5,000 a month via conditional cash transfers.

4. Conclusions

4.1 Challenges

a) To move from a culture of response to one of long-term recovery and resilience in order to address long-term vulnerability and risks
b) To incorporate risk reduction and resilience building as part of the government's development agenda at the state and local government level
c) To place recovery in the realm of a technocratic function, and not directly in the political directorate
d) Political instability makes recovery a difficult proposition
e) There are real competing demands for Government priorities and resilience building is a long-term endeavour
f) Minimize reliance on relief

4.2 Gaps

a) A cadre of knowledgeable DRM experts/ activists

4.3 Lessons Learned

a) More emphasis needs to be placed on monitoring and tracking measures and activities for impact
b) More popular education about DRM, risks, protection of resources
c) Greater peoples' involvement and ownership of recovery processes

VI. Uganda

1. Country description[39]

The Republic of Uganda, located in Eastern Africa, is a landlocked country occupying a total area of 241,550.7 square kilometres—18 % of which is open inland waters and wetlands. It lies astride the equator and is bordered by the Republic of South Sudan to the North, Kenya to the East, Tanzania to the South, Rwanda to the Southwest and Democratic Republic of Congo to the West.

Uganda has an estimated population of about 42million people—with a female population of 51 %. The actual growth rate of 5 % is one of the highest in the world.

The country is currently governed under a multi-party system succeeding a national referendum in July 2005 which opened the door for political parties to contest the leadership. Since then, the country has held four elections under the current system—in 2001, 2006, 2011, and 2016—which were all won by the incumbent President Yoweri K. Museveni, who has been in power since 1986.

1.1 Socioeconomic situation[40]

Uganda's economic outlook has been favourable since the late 1980s. Between 1986 and 1990, the country experienced an average Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth rate of 6.1 %. In fact, from 1999 to 2000 there were major reforms that resulted in a continued average growth rate of 6.3 %. Between 2010 and 2015, the growth rate averaged 5.4 %, and –=9.7 % was the highest rate recorded, in 2011. GDP growth is expected to slightly increase from 5.3 % in 2016 to 5.9 % in 2020 with the rebound of private-sector activity after the end of elections.

Thus, per capita income grew 6.3 % over the 1990s and accelerated to 7.0 % in the decade of 2000s. Per capita income increased from US$ 665 in 2009 to US$ 801 in 2015; yet, it still is much less than the sub-Saharan average of US$ 1,127. In other words, per capita income almost doubled over the last two decades. The solid growth was underpinned by strong economic fundamentals; e.g., including a prudent fiscal policy, responsive private investment, stable prices, and a liberal economic environment. While the economic prospect remains favourable, the low rate of private sector investment growth and limited degree of transformation from low to higher productivity activities threaten to constrain the acceleration and maintenance of high growth rates which are necessary to enable middle-income status.

Since 2007, Uganda has had a long-term Comprehensive National Development Planning Framework (CNDPF) for a thirty-year Vision development plan: three ten-year Perspective Plans, six five-year Development Plans, six five-year Sector Development Plans (SDPs) and Local Government Development Plans (LGDPs), as well as annual plans with budgets. To date, the country has already developed the Uganda Vision 2040 and the first and second National Development Plans (NDPs).

Vision 2040 provides the overall guiding framework on sustainable development and socioeconomic transformation for Uganda. The vision consists on transforming Uganda from a peasant to a modern and prosperous country by 2040; this involves transitioning from a predominantly low-income to a competitive upper middle-income society. NDP I (2010/11 to 2014/15), whose thrust was "Growth, Employment and Socioeconomic Transformation for Prosperity', was instrumental in instilling the culture and discipline of planning as a basis for development planning and financing. The NDP II (2015/16-2019/20) seeks to achieve middle-income status through strengthening the country's competitiveness for sustainable wealth creation, employment, and inclusive growth.

Through the Decentralization Policy Framework, substantial powers, functions and responsibilities have been delegated to local governments, with the objective of improving service delivery and,

[39] Sourced on May 3, 2017. http://www.ug.undp.org/content/uganda/en/home/countryinfo/
[40] Idem

ultimately, people's quality of life. Currently, there are 111 districts and one city, Kampala. The districts are sub-divided into lower administrative units namely counties, sub counties, parishes and villages or local councils.

1.2 Risks, Shocks and Vulnerabilities

According to the National Policy for Disaster Preparedness and Management, in the past two decades, on average, more than 200.000 Ugandans were affected by disasters.

In 1987, drought affected 600.000 people and epidemics killed 156 persons two years later. From 1997 to 2000, epidemics affected 100, 000 and killed 388 persons. An earthquake affected 50.000 people in 1994. Moreover, droughts in 1998-1999 affected 826,000 people and killed 115; in 2002 655.000 persons were affected and 79 died and in 2008 the drought impact reached 750, 000 people. Furthermore, in 2005 floods affected 718, 045 people and killed 67.

The above statistics demonstrate the challenges posed by natural and human-induced hazards to the economic growth of the country. Disasters are of common occurrence for the clear majority of Ugandans. In the last decade alone, Uganda has experienced over 2,500 catastrophic events, causing death, destruction and opportunity loss. Over 70 % of natural hazards in Uganda are related to hydro-meteorological events such as droughts, floods, severe lightning, earthquakes and storms, among others. Consequently, there was a considerable reduction in GDP of Ugandan economy by 3.5 % on average from 2010 to 2014—per the World Bank. While over half the country is vulnerable to drought, and one third to floods, communities along the fragile dry land cattle corridor, mountainous regions and informal urban settlements are at risk. It is estimated that 43 % of Ugandans could regress into poverty during shocks[41].

- **Drought**

Uganda has witnessed several natural and human-induced disasters that have culminated in loss of life and property, as well as displacements. The following have been prevalent: displacement due to civil strife and natural disasters; famine because of drought; transport accidents; earthquakes; epidemics; flooding; landslides; environmental degradation; technological accidents; crop pest infestation; and livestock and wildlife disease epidemics.

Numerous areas of Uganda are continuously receiving less rainfall than before. The most drought-prone areas are the districts in the cattle corridor stretching from Western and Central to mid Northern and Easter Uganda. In extreme conditions, the frequent failure of the seasons leads to starvation—mainly in the Karamoja region. Severe drought results in human and livestock deaths and is also exemplified by water table reduction, diminishing water levels in major lakes and crop failure. It is anticipated that desertification will make Uganda more prone to drought and water shortage. Nevertheless, water is a major factor in the socio-economic development of Uganda.

Inadequate water supply leads to drought and famine whereas a stable water supply, scientific water control and management ensure good health and high productive agriculture. Excess water leads to floods, landslides, and poor sanitation; hence, water borne epidemics such as cholera.

The rapid growth in population and increased agricultural and industrial production require adequate and safe water supply. The development of adequate domestic and industrial water supply, which can be accessed during disaster, is hampered by inadequate financial resources, poor accessibility to safe water supply points, scattered settlement, and inadequate education on awareness on hygiene.

- **Food security**

The regions that are most prone to food insecurity are Karamoja, Acholi, Lango, Teso and areas within the West Nile. A few factors contributing to famine include drought, crop failure and livestock

[41] James Wokadala, (2016). Country-specific guidance note to support PDNA Roll-Out in Uganda. Draft Report. Kampala, Uganda

deaths. Likewise, famine is a consequence of conflict, displacement and land shortage. The 1993/94 famine affected over 1.8 million people in 16 different districts.

Food insecurity and drought conditions have compounded poverty among the peasants, incapacitating the communities from participating in economic development and lowering their nutritional status. Thus, the frequency of illness and death, loss of livestock, migration, and community disintegration has increased in the last years.

According to the latest IPC report prepared in January 2017, an estimated 10.9 million people in Uganda are experiencing an Acute Food Insecurity situation, of which 1.6 million are in a crisis. Projections based on meteorological forecasts, along with observed trends in market prices of key staples, indicate that the number of people at risk of becoming food insecure may reach 11.4 million by March 2017; of which 1.4 million may fall into Phase 3 (crisis).

• Floods

Floods in Uganda are seasonal and usually occur in periods of intense rainfall and El Niño phenomena. Besides causing deaths due to drowning, floods destroy critical facilities such as public health, water sources, and sanitation. Floods also trigger outbreaks of water-borne diseases and malaria, hence compounding community vulnerability. They also cause physical damage by washing away structures, crops, animals, and submerging human settlements. Floods are common in several urban areas along river banks and swamps. The areas prone to flooding are: Kampala, Northern and Easter parts of Uganda.

• Landslides and Mudslides

Community settlements on steep slopes and other uncontrolled land use practices increase the likelihood of landslides and mudslides prevalence. The areas mostly affected by landslides are: Mt. Elgon, Rwenzori and Kigezi sub-regions.

• Epidemics

Common diseases include cholera, meningitis, hepatitis E, Marburg virus (MARV), plague, Ebola, and sleeping sickness –others include diarrhoea, dysentery and typhoid. Furthermore, massive chemical or/and alcoholic poisoning may also create a hazardous condition like epidemics do. Modern epidemics include avian influenza, Ebola

haemorrhagic fever, and malaria. In some regions of Uganda, diseases such as meningitis also are common and cause social and economic loss. Other health-related hazards come from radiation, strong tropical winds and the increased threat of global warming.

Moreover, uncontrollable movements of livestock and plants are some of the chief causes of associated epidemics.

• Heavy Storms

Heavy storms in Uganda are often accompanied by hailstorms, thunder storms, and violent winds. Hailstorms can cause flooding and correlated public health hazards. Various parts of Uganda are prone to hailstorms, to varying degrees. While in some areas the occurrence and magnitude are low, several places are highly susceptible to hailstorms characterized by heavy tropical rains, strong and violent winds. Hailstorms and thunderstorms result in immense destruction of crops, animals, public infrastructure, and human settlements—often leading to deaths and disruption of social services. Besides, lightning has a serious effect on human life.

• Pest Infestation

Pest increased in number due to one or a combination of ecological factors including, among others, temperature, monoculture, introduction of new pest species, weak genetic resistance, poor pesticide management, bad weather patterns, and migration. Pests lead to damage of plants and harvested crops consequently leading to food shortages, famine, and economic stress. Common pests in Uganda include weevils, locust, and caterpillars while diseases include coffee wilt, banana wilt and cassava mosaic. Crop-eating caterpillars known as fall armyworms are spreading across Uganda, raising fears for the East Africa region. The pests have appeared in 60 districts, attacking up to 40 per cent of the maize in some areas. Authorities warn they could wipe out 11 per cent of the country's annual four-million-metric-tonne maize output. Sugarcane fields have also suffered damage (U-NIEWS bulletin, April/May 2017, NECOC/OPM).

• Earthquake

Available seismic information indicates that parts of Western and Central Uganda are prone to seismic activity. In 1994, a strong earthquake hit districts in Rwenzori region affecting over 50,000 people. The year 2007 was characterized by frequent seismic activity.

• Internal Armed Conflicts and Internal Displacement of Persons

Since independence, Uganda has been characterized by successive internal armed conflicts which have led to loss of lives on massive community displacement. Major conflicts include the 1979 war, which ousted the government of Idi Amin; the 1980-1986-armed struggles that took place mainly in the central part of Uganda; and the 1986-2007 armed conflicts in northern on Eastern parts of the country.

These types of disasters are complex and difficult to handle because, quite often, the victims are in areas where armed conflicts are taking place. Such areas are difficult to access, and the delivery of relief requires agreements with some of the parties involved in the conflict.

2. Institutional Arrangements for DRM

2.1 The Policy and Legal Framework for DRM and Recovery

Disaster risk reduction in Uganda is regulated by a set of norms and policies of which the most relevant are:

2.1.1 The Constitution of the Republic of Uganda

The right of the Ugandan people to a healthy and safe environment is guaranteed by the Constitution of the Republic of Uganda (1995), as well as Section 2 and 3 of the National Environmental Act of 1995. Article IV, "National sovereignty, independence and territorial integrity", of the Political Objectives of the Constitution suggests the support for resilience building in the country, through sustainable development.

"Article XXIII: Natural disasters", indicates that the State must ensure effective institutional arrangements for disaster risk management, "for dealing with any hazard or disaster arising out of natural calamities or any situation resulting in general displacement of people or serious disruption of their normal life". It also makes provision for the establishment of the Disaster Preparedness and Management Commission (Objective 249) and gives specific responsibility to the Defense Forces to ensure cooperation with civil authorities in emergency situations such as natural disaster (Objective 209).

Objective 110 addresses a "State of Emergency" in which the President, after consultation with Cabinet, can declare a state of emergency if a natural hazard threatens the wellbeing and economic life of the country. The declaration of a state of emergency provides certain special powers to Parliament in so much that additional laws can be passed to effectively deal with the given disaster situation. Furthermore, Schedule Six indicates that the "control and management of epidemics and disasters" is a function which Government is responsible for.

2.2.2 National Development Plan II

The NDPII contains several references to disaster risk reduction and management as well as climate change and adaptation. The Plan recognizes inadequate preparedness to response to disasters; thus, the reallocation of development funds for disaster recovery still stands as a significant challenge in the implementation of NDPI (paragraph 35). In this vain the NDPII highlights the need to develop and implement robust early warning systems and disaster preparedness plan for resilience building.

Paragraph 460 mentions the contingency fund and the purpose of the findings to be used in the event of a disaster.

In terms of Human Capital Development (Chapter 12), the Plan makes reference to the multisectoral nature of disaster risk reduction and management. "Building community resilience to health disasters through promotion of disaster risk reduction and management strategies" is needed.

Paragraph 636 states that over the next five years the public sector must aim to reduce the impact of disasters and emergencies; in particular, the public sector must strive to:

- Develop a disaster risk profile and vulnerability map of the country
- Coordinate the development and implementation of disaster mitigation
- Increase preparedness and response to natural and human induced disasters
- Coordinate regular disaster vulnerability assessment at the community level, hazard forecasting, and dissemination of early warning messages
- Resettle landless communities and victims of disasters
- Coordinate timely responses to disasters and emergencies
- Provide food and non-food relief to disaster victims
- Coordinate other state and non-state actors in fulfilling their mandates towards disaster issues; and
- Develop and implement humanitarian interventions and support livelihoods of disaster

2.2.3 The National Environment Act 1995

The National Environment Act of 1995 contains several cross-linkages to disaster risk reduction and climate change adaptation. Section 66 (Disaster Preparedness) makes provisions for the development of plans and guidelines for coordinating responses to environmental disasters. This section also sets out punitive measures, and emphasizes the need of strategies for preventing, controlling, or mitigating any disastrous environmental effects.

2.2.4 Food and Nutrition Bill 2009

In broad terms, the Food and Nutrition Bill guarantees the right to food and insures that no person shall be prohibited from the right to food. The bill makes provision for a national food reserve (section 35). In fact, the purpose of the national food reserve is to meet any food emergency needs caused by drought or floods or any other natural hazard. Section 36,

"Food emergencies, food aid and vulnerability mapping systems", provides for a "Food Insecurity Vulnerability and Information Mapping Systems" (FIVIMS) to be established to provide for the information needed and to galvanize and strengthen the capacity to respond to food emergencies and food aid. This section further supports the development of disaster management plans and the establishment of early warning systems (especially for food security). Likewise, risk management and vulnerability mapping systems are also explicitly mentioned. Section 36 furthermore provides a cross-linkage to institutional arrangements for disaster risk reduction.

Section 36 (4) requires the Ministry responsible for disaster preparedness and management to establish a national emergency coordinator to supervise and coordinate the distribution of food aid provided by Government through international assistance; this does happen on an ad hoc and needs-driven basis.

2.2.5 The Land Act 1998

Land tenure problems are often an important contributor to food insecurity, to restricted livelihood opportunities, and, therefore, to poverty and vulnerability. The existence of a Land Act and Policy in Uganda in itself can be seen as a macro-disaster risk reduction and management measure. The Land Act provides for the tenure, ownership and management of land. Section 26, "Basic rights and duties of members of the community using common land", makes provision in sub-section 1(e) for the duties of the members of a community under a common land management scheme to "bear a reasonable and proportionate share of any expenses or losses incurred in using and managing the common land or through any natural disaster affecting the common land". Moreover, Section 27 provides vulnerability reduction measures for women, children, and persons with disability in terms of land tenure and ownership. This section protects the rights of such vulnerable groups. In the same vain, section 31 guarantees the security of tenants by occupancy on registered land. Essentially, such security of tenure contributes greatly to livelihood security.

Of particular interest is section 41. The Land Act makes provision for the establishment of a Land Fund. Among others, this fund can be used to "… resettle persons who have been rendered landless by Government action, natural disaster or any other cause". It can therefore be argued that the Land Fund can be applied as a disaster relief and recovery measure.

2.2.6 National Climate Change Policy 2012

The main aim of the Uganda National Climate Change Policy is to ensure that all stakeholders address climate change impacts and their causes through appropriate measures while promoting sustainable development and a green economy.

Disaster risk management is specifically mentioned as an adaptation policy priority; the policy thus aims "to ensure disaster mitigation and adequate preparedness for climate change–induced risks, hazards and disasters". Throughout the policy, linkages to disaster risk reduction and management is evident. The need to include the disaster risk management institutional arrangements in climate change and adaptation is mentioned and disaster preparedness and management enjoys ample attention in the human settlements and social infrastructure policy response. Disaster preparedness and management are also mentioned in terms of health risks and the mitigation thereof. However, the policy also calls for the establishment of parallel climate change and adaptation structures to that of disaster preparedness and management. Research by Becker et al. (2013) cautions against the creation of such parallel structures and urges to follow, rather, an integrated path for disaster risk reduction and climate change adaptation.

2.2.7 Public Finance Management Act 2015

The Public Finance Management Act (PFMA) establishes a Contingencies Fund in Section 26. The Contingencies Fund makes provision for the allocation of funds where urgent and unforeseen needs have arisen, and it is in the public interest that funds should be provided to meet the need. The Contingencies Fund must be replenished every year with an amount equal to 3.5 % of the annual budget of the Government of Uganda; 15

% of the Fund is ring-fenced for disaster response and management, although more than this may be used. Section 27 of the Act highlights the various responses that can be funded by the Contingencies Fund.

However, Section 7 of the PFMA alludes to deviations from objectives for the Charter for Fiscal Responsibility. Herewith the Minister, on approval of Parliament, may deviate from these objectives if Uganda experiences a severe natural disaster or unanticipated economic shock which the Contingency Fund cannot make provision for.

2.2.8 Internally Displaced Persons Policy 2004

This policy addresses the needs of a standard, coordinated, multisectoral, multi-disciplinary process for the Government and other organizations in dealing with displaced persons within Uganda. The policy aims to prevent hazards from turning into disasters through collective efforts. The policy mission is "to ensure that IDPs enjoy the same rights and freedoms under the Constitution and all other laws like all other Ugandans".

Chapter 2 makes provision for the institutional arrangements, roles and responsibilities. The Department of Disaster Preparedness and Refugees is designated as the lead agency for this Act, butan inter-agency technical committee (IATC)2 is proposed as well, for overall coordination (section 2.2.2).

2.2.9 National Agricultural Policy 2013

Section 4.17 of the National Agricultural Policy specifically mentions "vulnerability" and vulnerable groups as"households headed by women and children, the elderly, the poor, and people living with disabilities and disease". Vulnerable households are less productive and more likely to suffer from food insecurity. The National Agricultural Policy aims to mainstream responses to the needs of vulnerable groups in sector plans and interventions.

Agencies responsible for Early Warning, Disaster Preparedness, and Management are covered by Section 4.18. This section requires the establishment of an effective forecasting, early warning mechanism, and strategic food reserve (see paragraph 22 (iv) of this policy) to respond to any emergency. To this end, the policy makes the Department of Disaster Preparedness and Management responsible for the aforementioned.

2.2.10 The National Policy for Disaster Preparedness & Management

The National Policy for Disaster Preparedness and Management is one of the new generation disaster risk reduction policies in the region. The expected outcome of this policy is a maximum state of preparedness for the country so that in every agency that has relevance to disaster preparedness response mitigation and recovery, there is ability and readiness to operate together in consonant and harmony before, during, and after a disaster event.

This policy contains several elements explaining the current disaster risk situation in Uganda, establishes a comprehensive natural hazard profile for Uganda, and touches on anthropogenic hazards: the institutional arrangements for disaster reduction is alluded to—as well as the multisectoral approach necessary for implementation. The policy explains the roles and responsibilities of key ministries and institutions. Specific and cross-cutting risk reduction strategies are clearly defined.

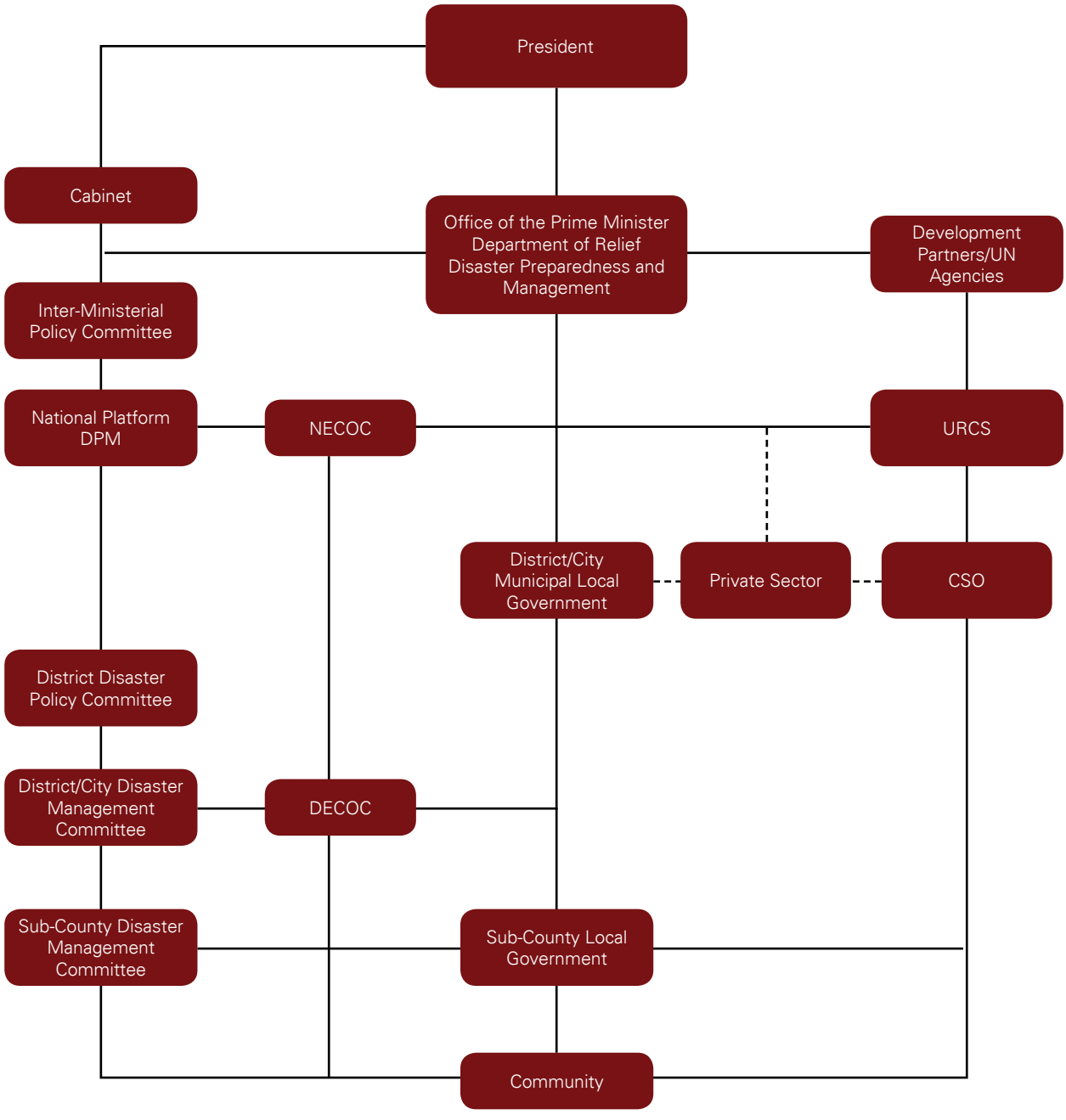
2.3. Response, Recovery and Rehabilitation within the DRM Mechanism

Recovery is included as part of the approach to Disaster Risk Reduction (DRM), and it has been integrated into national and local structure responsibilities.

The mandate for DRM lies in the Department for Disaster Preparedness, Relief and Refugees (which coordinates activities of the various line ministries), humanitarian agencies, and stakeholders in order to achieve a multisectoral and harmonized approach to disaster management.

The National Platform for Disaster Preparedness and Management/Inter-Agency Technical Committee coordinates preparedness, prevention, mitigation, and response interventions in the

Figure 18: National Disaster Preparedness and Management Structure



Source: Onafeso, Olumide David and Kayode, Julius Samuel (2012)

country. The National Emergency Coordination and Operations Centre (NECOC) is responsible for the technical aspects of coordinating emergency and disaster responses in Uganda.

The 2010–2011 Integrated Rainfall Variability Impacts, Needs Assessment and Drought Risk Management Strategy elaborated by the Department of Disaster Management Office of the Prime Minister, identified that the existing disaster risk management (DRM) system should become more proactive, coherent, and effective to address vulnerability to drought and similar disasters. The developing of a more

effective disaster risk reduction and management framework was considered essential.

3. Recovery in Action

3.1 Background

To date, the government's main priority is the implementation of the second National Development Plan (NPD-II), and other related policy instruments; e.g., the Peace and Recovery Plan, the National Policy on Disaster Preparedness and Management, and the Settlement Transformation Agenda (for refugee-hosting communities).

Post-disaster recovery, induced by the impact of natural or socio-natural hazards, has been included in the National DRM policy and has been considered a priority after the impact of rainfall variability in 2010-2011. Nevertheless, according to DRDPM authorities, the situation of IDP and refugee camps in the country is still considered one of the main post-impact priorities, as well as internal and regional conflict and war. Per the Uganda Refugee Response Portal 1.199.051 refugees are distributed in the country, by the end of April 2017.

A Post-Disaster Needs Assessment (PDNA) exercise was implemented after the impact of rainfall and many recommendations for improving capacities on recovery management were produced. However, most of them have not been applied yet.

3.2 Outcomes

One important recovery process that has been implemented and monitored—and where priorities are concentrated—is the Peace and Recovery Development Plan. It was adopted in its initial phase in 2007, and currently ongoing, with the support of the Government of Uganda and key international partners. The PRDP purpose was contributing to the return and resettlement of the 1.6 million Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) through investments in roads, water and sanitation, re-establishment of health and

education facilities and services—including infrastructure and staffing. The process was supported through the Northern Uganda Social Action Fund (NUSAF) by the World Bank.

The Government and development partners agreed to support a second Northern Uganda Social Action Fund (NUSAF 2) aimed at further strengthening the reconstruction of northern Uganda. The development objective of the project was to empower communities of northern Uganda to improve their livelihoods and access basic socioeconomic services. The project was designed to fund a vast amount of small-scale rural community sub projects in 40 districts (in the North and East of the Country, including the 18 that were covered by NUSAF 1) that will be identified and planned by the communities while being supported by project-financed extension teams and then approved for funding by local government authorities.

A third NUSAF was approved for the period 2015-2020; its objective consisted on providing effective income support and building resilience within poor and vulnerable households in Northern Uganda[42].

The project became effective on March 14, 2016 and a systematic roll out of the implementation was undertaken by the Office of the Prime Minister (OPM), NUSAF3 Technical Support Team (TST), Ministry of Gender, Labor and Social Development (MGLSD), Inspectorate of Government (IG) and districts. The progress made to date includes the following: Recruitment of staff, training of Community Facilitators; Sensitization and training of 7,667 district officials; Formation of the District Implementation Support Team (DIST) in the 56 districts; (d) Sensitization of the newly elected Members of Parliament (MP); Inclusive affirmative actions to ensure the indigenous community in Karamoja benefit from the project; and partnership arrangements.

3.3 Program Monitoring

There is no specific instrument for the monitoring of post-disaster recovery actions, (outside of ones that are built into recovery plans).

4. Conclusions

4.1 Challenges

a) Uganda has settled strong and highly contemporary developments, DRR policies, and planning instruments. One of the most important challenges for the country could be the concrete integration of DRM measures on sectorial and multisectoral policies and investments.
b) GoU officials mentioned that the risk and disaster pattern in Uganda—if compared to their neighbours—is characterized by small-scale disasters, rather than intensive impacts. In consequence, Disaster Risk Management in general (but mainly post-disaster recovery) should be strengthened at the local level to reach not only the less frequent impacts at national scale, but also those that are affecting communities where that risk remains unnoticed.
c) The situation of IDP and refugees in the country is still absorbing the attention and capacities of institutions responsible for DRM. Given the problem's complexity, a key challenge is to identify innovative forms of including DRM and ex-ante recovery planning in the development process in which the country is engaged.
d) Complex instruments, such as the PDNA, are not easily adapted to the country's needs when it comes to evaluation and post-impact planning. Developing local, small-scale tools is considered a more adequate option.
e) The implementation of the PDNA, with the participation of key international partners (World Bank, UNDP and EU) created expectations on resource mobilization that were not fulfilled. In this sense, the opportunity created by the

[42] http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/367161481832773955/pdf/ISR-Disclosable-P149965-12-15-2016-1481832762726.pdf

implementation of PDNA was missed. A key challenge for the country is to establish ex-ante recovery strategy or framework, in which the procedures of such exercises, as well as the expectations for mobilization of resources should clearly established.

4.2 Gaps

a) A PDNA exercise was implemented after the impact of rainfall and many recommendations for improving capacities on recovery management were created. Nevertheless, the country has not developed technical and monitoring instruments for its follow-up and evaluation.
b) Financial instruments for recovery actions implementation have still not been developed. The adoption of strategies or platforms for risk retention and transfer is an important need to be addressed.

4.3 Lessons learned

a) Disaster and emergencies were often regarded as abnormal events, divorced from "normal" life. For the elaboration of the DRM policy, the Government of Uganda considered disaster and emergencies to be fundamental reflections of "normal life" and as consequences of the ways a society is structured economically, socially, politically as well as its relationship with the environment.
b) The implementation of PDNA requires previous planning and understanding of the scope, utility and capacities necessary for implementation.
c) Disaster Risk Management objectives and priorities—such as the Sendai Framework—have to be adapted to the country's risk pattern and the priorities of the Uganda society. This is the case of IDP and refugees' management requirements in comparison to natural hazard impacts.

Annex III: References

African Union. (2010). Programme of Action for the Implementation of the Africa Regional Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction (2006-2015)

Adopted at the Second African Ministerial Conference on Disaster Risk Reduction, held in Nairobi, Kenya, 14-16 April 2010.
http://www.unisdr.org/files/13655_POAinEnglishadoptedinNairobi16April%5B1%5D.pdf

African Union. (2004). Africa Regional Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction. July 2004. African UNION/ NEPAD/African Development Bank/UNISDR
http://www.unisdr.org/files/4038_africaregionalstrategy1.pdf

African Union. (2016). Programme of Action for the Implementation of the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030 in Africa. In line with the Africa Regional Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction. Draft V. 25 November 2016.
http://www.preventionweb.net/files/49455_poaforsendaiimplementationinafrica.pdf

Atyang, A. (2014). Study on Early Warning Systems in Uganda. Report prepared for Office of the Prime Minister, Department for Disaster Preparedness and Management.

Comissão Nacional de Protecção Civil. (s.f). Seca em Angola 2012-2016. PDNA Avaliação das Necessidades Pós-Desastre. Quito, Ecuador: Imprenta Ativa.

Department of Disaster Management. (s.f). The 2010–2011 Integrated Rainfall Variability Impacts, Needs Assessment and Drought Risk Management Strategy. Kampala, Uganda.

Department of Disaster Preparedness and Management. (2011). The National Policy for Disaster Preparedness and Management. Kampala, Uganda.

Developing a Recovery Framework. (s.f). Step by Step Guide.

Economic Community of West African States. (2006). Ecowas Policy for Disaster Risk Reduction. Humanitarian Affairs Department (dha). August 2006.
http://www.preventionweb.net/files/26398_4037ecowaspolicydrr1.pdf

Ecowas Plan of Action of the Ecowas Humanitarian Policy (2012 – 2017).
http://www.ifrc.org/docs/IDRL/Action%20Plan,%20ECOWAS%20Humanitarian%20Policy_en_1.pdf

Ecowas. (2010). Programme of Action for the Implementation of the Ecowas Policy for Disaster Risk Reduction 2010-2014.
www.unisdr.org/files/12709_ECOWASDRRPoARev.FINALreformatted.doc

Ecowas. (2013). Progress on the implementing of HFA and Ecowas DRR Policy in West Africa. 2013, http://www.preventionweb.net/files/30143_annex5ecowas.pdf

Evaluation des dommages, pertes et besoins de construction, de reconstruction et de relèvement. (2010). Inondations du 1er Septembre 2009 au Burkina Faso.

FAO. (2016). FAO in Ethiopia El Niño Response Plan 2016. http://www.fao.org/fileadmin/user_upload/emergencies/docs/FAO-Ethiopia-ElNino-Response-Plan-2016.pdf

Federal Government of Nigeria. (2010). Nigeria National progress report on the implementation of the Hyogo Framework for Action (2009-2011) – interim. National Emergency Management Agency, Nigeria. 27 Sep 2010. An HFA Monitor update published by Prevention Web http://www.preventionweb.net/english/countries/africa/nga/

Federal Government of Nigeria. (2013). NIGERIA Post-Disaster Needs Assessment 2012 Floods. A report by The Federal Government of Nigeria With Technical Support from the World Bank, EU, UN, and Other Partners. June 2013 https://www.gfdrr.org/sites/gfdrr/files/NIGERIA_PDNA_PRINT_05_29_2013_WEB.pdf

Financial Mechanisms for Recovery. (s.f). [diapositivas de PowerPoint].
Fogo Volcanic Eruption 2014-2015. (s.f). Case study investigation: Cabo Verde. Based on the Post-Disaster Needs Assessment (PDNA)

Global Facility for Disaster Reduction and Recovery. (2014, a). Recovery from Recurrent Floods 2000-2013. Recovery Framework Case Study.

Global Facility for Disaster Reduction and Recovery. (2014, b). SENEGAL: URBAN FLOODS. Recovery and Reconstruction since 2009. Recovery Framework Case Study.

Global Facility for Disaster Reduction and Recovery. (2015). Guide to developing disaster recovery frameworks. Sendai Conference Version. Washington. DC, USA.

Global Facility for Disaster Reduction and Recovery. (2017). Resilient Recovery at GFDRR. https://www.gfdrr.org/resilient-recovery

Global Facility for Disaster Reduction and Recovery - Ethiopia: Country Profile. https://www.gfdrr.org

Global Facility for Disaster Reduction and Recovery. (2015). GUIDE TO DEVELOPING DISASTER RECOVERY FRAMEWORKS Sendai Conference Version. MARCH 2015 https://www.gfdrr.org/sites/gfdrr/files/publication/DRF-Guide.pdf

Government of Cabo Verde. (2015) Fogo Volcanic Eruption 2014-2015. Post-Disaster Needs Assessment (PDNA).

Government of Ethiopia. (1993). National Policy on Disaster Prevention and Management. Transitional Government of Ethiopia. October 1993. www.preventionweb.net/go/42435

Government of Kenya. (2012). Kenya Post-Disaster Needs Assessment (PDNA) 2008-2011 Drought. http://www.gfdrr.org/sites/gfdrr/files/Kenya_PDNA_Final.pdf

Government of Malawi. (2015). Malawi 2015 Floods Post Disaster Need Assessment Report. PDNA Report.
https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/Malawi-2015-Floods-Post-Disaster-Needs-Assessment-Report.pdf

Government of Rwanda. (2015, a) Ministry of Disaster Management and Refugee Affairs. THE NATIONAL RISK ATLAS OF RWANDA. 2015.
http://midimar.gov.rw/uploads/tx_download/National_Risk_Atlas_of_Rwanda.pdf

Government of Rwanda. (2015, b) Rwanda: National progress report on the implementation of the Hyogo Framework for Action (2013-2015). DIRECTOR OF DISASTER RISK REDUCTION AND PREPAREDNESS. 23 April 2015. A National HFA Monitor update published by Prevention Web
http://www.preventionweb.net/english/hyogo/progress/reports/

India Recovery Framework-Education sector. (s.f). [PowerPoint].
International Monetary Fund. (2013). Initial Market Assessment - Country Scoping Note: Kenya. Political Champions Group - Partnership for stimulating insurance penetration in lower income countries. September 22, 2013. http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/776021467998233984/pdf/98011-WP-Box391499B-PUBLIC-PCG-Country-Note-Kenya-092213.pdf

International Monetary Fund. (2016). Niger: Selected Issues. IMF Country Report No. 17/60. International Monetary Fund Publication Services. February 2017. PO Box 92780 Washington, D.C. 20090E-mail: publications@imf.org Web: http://www.imf.org

Ministry of Disaster Management and Refugee Affairs. (2015). The National Risk Atlas of Rwanda. Government of Rwanda. National Commission for Civil Protection. (s.f). Droughts in Angola 2012-2016. Quito, Ecuador: ImprentaActiva

Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs. (2010). Emergency Response Fund Uganda. Annual Report.

Preparedness for Disaster Recovery Project- 2015-2016. (s.f). Guidelines to conduct the Capacity Gaps/ Needs Assessment on Disaster Recovery.

République de Djibouti. (2011). Evaluation des Dommages, Pertes et Besoins Suite à la Sécheresse.
Structure for case study investigation with description of Key Informants and relevant documentation. (s.f). Table of information general.

Simonet, Catherine, Eva Comba and Emily Wilkinson. Disasters and National Economic Resilience: An Analysis of Braced Countries. Working paper. Published February 2017www.braced.org

Southern African Development Community (SADC). Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR) Sub-regional Platform: Mainstreaming & Implementing DRR into Development Frameworks in the SADC Region
28 to 29 November 2013. Gaborone International Convention Centre. Gaborone, Botswana.
http://www.uneca.org/sites/default/files/uploaded-documents/Natural_Resource_Management/drr/final_report_southern_africa_sub-_regional_workshop_on_mainstreaming_implementing_drr.pdf

The Brookings Institution - London School of Economics. In the Neighborhood: the growing role of regional organizations in disaster risk management. The Brookings Institution - London School of Economics Project on Internal Displacement. February 2013. https://www.brookings.edu/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/REGIONAL_DISASTER_MECHANISMS_2013.pdf

The East Africa Community. The East Africa Community Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Bill. 2013
http://kenyalaw.org/kl/fileadmin/pdfdownloads/EALA_Legislation/BILLSUPPLEMENT5thApril20132.pdf

The East African Community. Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Strategy (2012 – 2016) http://www.ifrc.org/Global/Publications/IDRL/regional/EAC_DRRMS(2012-2016).pdf
Tool to Assess Recovery Preparedness in countries. (s.f). Table of information general.

United Nations Development Programme, Ethiopia. 2013 Annual Report. Disaster Risk Management and Livelihoods Recovery Programme.
http://www.undp.org/content/dam/ethiopia/docs/2013_DRM_Annual_Report_final_2014-04-24_highres.pdf

United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (UNISDR). (2009). Terminology on Disaster Risk Reduction. Published by the Geneva, Switzerland, May 2009
http://www.unisdr.org/files/7817_UNISDRTerminologyEnglish.pdf

United Nations Development Programme. (2015, a). A Guidance Note National Post-Disaster Recovery Planning and Coordination.

United Nations Development Programme. (2015, b). Governance of disaster risk reduction and management in Uganda: A literature review. Uganda.

United Nations Development Programme. (2016, a). Preparedness for Resilient Recovery. (The 2ND Project Report). Angola, Africa.

United Nations Development Programme. (2016, b). Ateliers Sectoriels d´Elaboration du Document Cadre pour le Relèvement Post-Catastrophe. Rapport de Mission. Ouahigouya.

United Nations Development Programme. (2016, c). Disaster Recovery. Challenges and Lessons. New York, USA.

United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). (2016). DISASTER RECOVERY Empowered lives. Resilient Nations. Challenges and Lessons. 2016. United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) Bureau for Policy and Programme Support. One United Nations Plaza, New York, NY, 10017 USA www.undp.org

United Nations Development Programme. (2017, a). Preparedness for Resilient Recovery. (The 4ND Project Report). Angola.

United Nations Development Programme. (2017, b). Lessons Learned on Post-Disaster Recovery. The Case of the 2013-2014 Drought in The Province of Cunene (Angola). Angola, Africa.

United Nations Development Programme. (2017, c). Strengthening Capacities for Disaster Risk Reduction and Resilience Building. Project Information for update the CO website. Angola, Africa.

United Nations Development Programme. (2017, d). Preparedness for Resilient Recovery. Project Information for update the CO website. Angola, Africa.

United Nations Development Programme. (s.f). Lições Aprendidas Dos Processos De Recuperação Pós-Desastre Em Cabo Verde. Cabo Verde.

Venton, Courtenay Cabot, Catherine Fitzgibbon, Lorraine Coulter, Olivia Dooley The Economics of Early Response and Resilience: Lessons from Kenya. June 2012.
https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/media/57a08a63e5274a27b200058f/61114_Kenya_Report.pdf

Venton, Courtenay Cabot Catherine Fitzgibbon, TennaShitarek, Lorraine Coulter, Olivia Dooley
The Economics of Early Response and Resilience: Lessons from Kenya and Ethiopia. June 2012. Economics of Resilience Final Report
http://prime-ethiopia.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/03/Econ-Ear-Rec-Res-Full-Report_20.pdf

Wiles, P. Selevester, K. y Fidalgo, L. (2005). Learning Lessons from Disaster Recovery: The Case of Mozambique. The World Bank. Washington D.C, USA.

Woldemariam, Muluneh. (2013). Policy and Institutional Framework for Effective Disaster Risk Management in Ethiopia. Risk Identification, Monitoring & Early Warning in Ethiopia. August 2013. Disaster Risk Management & Food Security Sector (DRMSS), Ministry of Agriculture
http://www.undp.org/content/dam/undp/library/Environment%20and%20Energy/sustainable%20land%20management/AADAF3/3.3.Dendena.pdf

References - Risk Profile

African Union (AU) Heads of State and Government. 2016. Programme of Action for the Implementation of the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030 in Africa. Available in:
http://www.preventionweb.net/files/49455_poaforsendaiimplementationinafrica.pdf

Catholic Organization for Relief and Development Aid. 2017. Uganda: Improved water resources management for resilience building in Karamoja.
Available in: http://www.preventionweb.net/news/view/53976

Church World Service. 2017. Cash for work in Tana River-Kenya, three months after. Available in: http://www.preventionweb.net/news/view/54020

Fysh, A. 2016. Southern African countries set to track disaster losses.
Available in: http://www.desinventar.net/news/Apr-25-2016.html

Global Assessment Report on Disaster Risk Reduction. 2015.
Available in: http://www.preventionweb.net/english/hyogo/gar/2015/en/gar-pdf/GAR2015_EN.pdf

Goering, L. 2017. From floods to disease, disaster risk rising in surging African cities. Available in: http://www.preventionweb.net/news/view/54021

Otto, F. van Aalst, M. 2017. Droughts in East Africa: some headway in unpacking what's causing them.
Available in: http://www.preventionweb.net/news/view/54216

UN-Habitat (2010) State of the World's Cit- ies 2010/11 -Cities for All: Bridging the Urban Divide London and Sterling, VA: Earthscan Retrieved from
http://mir- rorunhabitat org/pmss/listItemDetailsaspx?publicationID=2917

UN-Habitat (2013) Global Urban IndicatorsDatabase Nairobi, Kenya
United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction. 2015. Disaster Risk Reduction in Africa. Status Report -2015. Executive summary.
Available in: http://www.preventionweb.net/files/51078_drrinafricaexecsummary2015.pdf

Wisner, B, & Pelling, M (2009) African Cities of Hope and Risk In M.Pelling & B.Wisner (Eds), Disaster Risk Reduction – Cases from Urban Africa London, UK: Earthscan

Ethiopia

Central Statistical Agency, Government of Ethiopia (2015) National Statistical Abstract of Ethiopia 2015 http://www.csa.gov.et/index.php/national-statistics-abstract-2003-15

United Nations Development Programme (2015), National Human Development Report 2014

Accelerating Inclusive growth for sustainable development in Ethiopia. Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

United Nations Development Programme (2016), Human Development Report 2016. Human Development for Everyone. United Nations Development Programme, 1 UN Plaza, New YORK, N.Y.

Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (2016), Growth and Transformation Plan II (GTP II) (2015/16-2019/20). Volume: Main Text. National Planning Commission. May 2016. Addis Ababa

Judith Sandford and Matt Hobson (2011), Leaving no-one behind: Ethiopia's Productive Safety Net & Household Asset Building Programmes. World Bank. http://s3images.coroflot.com/user_files/individual_files/44533_gvckNK1ndXixg822ZFX9cI9M5.pdf

Lavers, Tom (2016), "Social protection in an aspiring 'developmental state': The political drivers of Ethiopia's PSNP". Effective States and Inclusive Development Research Centre (ESID) Global Development Institute, School of Environment, Education and Development, The University of Manchester, Oxford Road, Manchester M13 9PL, UK. ISBN: 978-1-908749-74-1 http://www.effective-states.org/wp-content/uploads/working_papers/final-pdfs/esid_wp_73_lavers.pdf

Kenya

Government of the Republic of Kenya (2016), The Disaster Risk Management Bill.

Government of the Republic of Kenya (2015a), "Unlocking Our Full Potential for Realization of the Kenya Vision 2030". National Policy for the Sustainable Development of Northern Kenya and other Arid Lands, Ministry of Devolution And Planning. http://www.devolutionplanning.go.ke/wp-content/uploads/2015/04/DRAFT%20ASAL%20POLICY.pdf

Government of the Republic of Kenya (16 February 2015b), Kenya National progress report on the implementation of the Hyogo Framework for Action (2013-2015) – Interim. http://www.preventionweb.net/english/hyogo/progress/reports/v.php?id=42432&pid:223

Government of the Republic of Kenya (2012), "National Policy for the Sustainable Development of Northern Kenya and other Arid Lands: Releasing Our Full Potential". Office of The Prime Minister Ministry of State for Development Of Northern Kenya And Other Arid Lands. Sessional Paper No. 8 of 2012. http://reliefweb.int/report/kenya/sessional-paper-no-12-national-policy-sustainable-development-northern-kenya-and-other

Government of the Republic of Kenya (2014), Sector Plan for Drought Risk Management And Ending Drought Emergencies Second Medium Term Plan | 2013 – 2017. http://ndma.go.ke/resource-center/policy-documents/category/44-policy-documents

Government of the Republic of Kenya (undated), "National Drought Management Authority Enhancing Drought Resilience by Promoting Strategies for Drought Risk Reduction And Climate Change Adaptation".

Ministry for the Development of Northern Kenya and other Arid Lands Ministry for the Development of Northern Kenya and other Arid Lands.
http://www.undp.org/content/dam/undp/library/Environment%20and%20Energy/sustainable%20land%20management/AADAF2/kenya.pdf

Inter Agency Working Group on Disaster Preparedness for East and Central Africa (IWAG) (2017), "Lessons Learned ?" https://www.nrc.no/globalassets/pdf/briefing-notes/hoa-drought-crisis-call-to-action---iawg---with-nrc-sign-on---20-1-2017.pdf

Mbogo, E., F. Inganga and J.M. Maina (2014) "Drought conditions and management strategies in Kenya", Ministry of Agriculture, livestock and Fisheries, Nairobi, Kenya
http://www.droughtmanagement.info/literature/UNW-DPC_NDMP_Country_Report_Kenya_2014.pdf

Mwangi, Z. (2017), Economic Survey 2017 Highlights. Kenya National Bureau of Statistics.
https://www.tralac.org/images/docs/11536/kenya-economic-survey-highlights-2017.pdf

Njoka, J.T. (2016), Kenya: Country situation assessment. Pathways to Resilience in Semi-arid Economies (PRISE) project. The Centre for sustainable Dry land Ecosystems and Societies. http://prise.odi.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/01/Low-Res_Kenya-CSA.pdf

Oxford Policy Management (2012), Evaluation of the Kenya Hunger Safety Net Programme (HSNP) Pilot Phase.
http://www.opml.co.uk/projects/evaluation-kenya-hunger-safety-net-programme-hsnp-pilot-phase

United Nations Development Programme (2016), Human Development Report 2016: Human Development for Everyone. 1 UN Plaza, New York, N.Y.

United Nations Development Programme (2013), Kenya National Human Development Report 2013: Climate Change and Human Development, Harnessing Emerging Opportunities.
http://hdr.undp.org/sites/default/files/knhd_report_2013.pdf

World Bank (2016), "Kenya Economic Update Kazinikazi". Edition no. 13
http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/888091467988907587/Kenya-Economic-update-kazi-ni-kazi-informal-should-not-be-normal

World Bank (2013), "Integrated Fiduciary Assessment of the Kenya National Safety Net Program for Results", World Bank, Washington D.C.
http://projects.worldbank.org/P131305/national-integrated-safety-net-program?lang=en

Malawi

Developing a Recovery Framework. (n.d.). Step by Step Guide.

Federal Emergency Management Agency – FEMA. (2017). National Disaster Recovery Framework. Malawi. https://www.fema.gov/national-disaster-recovery-framework

Global Facility for Disaster Reduction and Recovery. (2014, a). Recovery from Recurrent Floods 2000-2013. Recovery Framework Case Study.

Government of Malawi. (2015). Malawi 2015 Floods Post Disaster Need Assessment Report. PDNA Report.

Government of Malawi. (2015). National Disaster Risk Management Policy. Lilongwe, Malawi.

Government of Malawi. (2016). Malawi Drought 2015-2016 Post-Disaster Needs Assessment (PDNA). Lilongwe, Malawi.

International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies. (2015). International Disaster Response Law (IDRL) in Malawi. Geneva, Switzerland.

Kita, Stern. (2016). National Disaster Recovery Framework: Malawi. PowerPoint presentation to the International Recovery Forum, Kobe, Japan.

Misomali, Raymond. (n.d.). Emergency Management in Malawi: A work in progress with a strong foundation.

Mozambique

Conselho de Ministros, Governo de Moçambique. (2005). Plano Director para Prevenção e Mitigação de Calamidades Naturais. Maputo, Mozambique.

Government of Mozambique. (2014). Lei N. 15/2014. Disaster Risk Management Law.

Government of Mozambique. (2016). Contingent Emergency Response Implementation Plan (CERIP). Mozambique Drought Disaster, El Niño 2016.

Government of Mozambique. (2016). Mozambique 2015: Damage Assessment and Early Recovery / Sustainable Reconstruction Priorities. Joint Rapid Assessment following the January-February 2015. Hydro-Meteorological Events in the Central and Northern Regions.

GFDRR. (2014). Recovery from Recurrent Floods 2000-2013 MOZAMBIQUE August 2014 Recovery Framework Case Study. Guide for Disaster Recovery Frameworks. Country Case Study Series. Conference Version

KPMG Auditores e Consultores SA. (2012). Auditoria de Desempenho do Sector de Calamidades Naturais. Inspecção Geral de Finanças (IGF). Maputo, Moçambique.

Ministério para a Coordenação da Acção Ambiental. 2013. Estratégia Nacional de Adaptaçao e Mitigação de Mudanças Climáticas 2013-2025. Maputo, Mozambique.

Peter Wiles Kerry Selvester Lourdes Fidalgo. (2005). Learning Lessons from Disaster Recovery: The Case of Mozambique Working Paper Series No. 12 The World Bank Washington, D.C. April 2005

The Word Bank. 2016. Project Paper on a Proposed Additional Credit in The Amount Of SDR 14.8 Million (Us$20 Million Equivalent) In Crisis Response Window Resources to the Republic of Mozambique for an Emergency Resilient Recovery Project.

UNDP. (2016). Human Development Report 2016, Human Development for Everyone. Briefing note for countries on the 2016 Human Development Report. Maputo.
http://hdr.undp.org/sites/all/themes/hdr_theme/country-notes/MOZ.pdf

Nigeria

African Development Bank (2016), African Economic Outlook 2016.
www.africaneconomicoutlook.org/sites/default/files/2016-05/eBook_AEO2016.pd

ARUOFOR, Dr Rex (2001), Forestry Outlook Studies in Africa (FOSA). Federal Department of Forestry ftp://ftp.fao.org/docrep/fao/004/ab592e/ab592e00.pdf

Government of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (2015), Nigeria National Disaster Management Framework (http://www.preventionweb.net/files/21708_nigherianationaldisastermanagementf.pdf

Government of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (2016), Federal Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development. Agriculture Promotion Policy, Food and Strategic Reserve Department.
http://fmard.gov.ng/food-and- strategic-reserve-department/

Government of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (2009), Federal Ministry of the Environment. Establishment of Flood and Early Warning Systems in Nigeria
http://www.preventionweb.net/files/14632_establishmentoffewsnigeria.pdf

IDMC. (2016), Global Report Internal Displacement.
http://www.internal-displacement.org/assets/publications/2016/2016-global-report-internal-displacement-IDMC.pdf

IRIN (2008), "Dead baby trees by the millions as reforestation fails",
http://www.irinnews.org/news/2008/04/08/dead-baby-trees-millions-reforestation-fails

Oladokun, V.O. & D. Proverbs (2016), Flood Risk Management in Nigeria: A Review Of The Challenges And Opportunities.
https://www.researchgate.net/publication/311087612_Flood_risk_management_in_Nigeria_A_review_of_the_challenges_and_opportunities

Onafeso, Olumide David and Kayode, Julius Samuel (2012), "The Role of ICT in the Establishment of Flood Early Warning System in Nigeria". Paper presented at the Conference: Climate Change and ICT, Okuku, Nigeria, Volume: 1
https://www.researchgate.net/publication/309513433_The_Role_of_ICT_in_the_Establishment_of_Flood_Early_Warning_System_in_Nigeria

Premium Times (2013), "Nigeria approves N10bn for Great Green Wall Project"
http://www.premiumtimesng.com/news/136002-nigeria-approves-n10bn-for-great-green-wall-project.html

United Nations Development Programme (2016a), Human Development Report 2016: Human Development for Everyone. 1 UN Plaza, New York, N.Y.

United Nations Development Programme (2015), Nigeria: Human Development Report 2015 - Human Security and Human Development in Nigeria.
http://hdr.undp.org/sites/default/files/2016_ _human_development_report_for_nigeria.pdf

World Bank (2017) Nigeria Poverty DATA
http://povertydata.worldbank.org/poverty/country/NGA

Uganda

Atyang, A. (2014). Study on Early Warning Systems in Uganda. Report prepared for Office of the Prime Minister, Department for Disaster Preparedness and Management.

Department of Disaster Management. (s.f). The 2010–2011 Integrated Rainfall Variability Impacts, Needs Assessment and Drought Risk Management Strategy. Kampala, Uganda.

Department of Disaster Preparedness and Management. (2011). The National Policy for Disaster Preparedness and Management. Kampala, Uganda.

Food and Nutrition Bill.2009. Kampala, Uganda.
http://library.health.go.ug/publications/service-delivery-child-health/food-and-nutrition/food-and-nutrition-bill-2009

Government of Uganda. 2009. The Comprehensive National Development Planning Framework (CNDPF). Elaborated by The National Planning Authority (NPA), Kampala, Uganda.

Government of Uganda. 2010. Uganda Vision 2040. Kampala, Uganda
Government of Uganda. 2011. The National Policy for Disaster Preparedness and Management. Kampala, Uganda

Government of Uganda. 2015. Second National Development Plan (NDP II) 2015/16 – 2019/20. Kampala, Uganda.

Government of Uganda. 2016. District-level Contingency Planning Methodology (DCPM).

Government of Uganda. 2017. National Food Security Assessment.

Land Act, 19998. Kampala, Uganda.
http://www.ulii.org/ug/legislation/consolidated-act/227

Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Industry and Fisheries. 2013. National Agricultural Policy. Kampala, Uganda.
National Environment Act 1995. Kampala, Uganda.
http://www.ulii.org/ug/legislation/consolidated-act/153

Office of the Prime Minister. 2009. Second Northern Uganda Social Action Fund (NUSAF). Kampala.

Olushayo O, et al. 2013. Post-Conflict Recovery as an Impetus for Strengthening Health System Resilience in Africa: Experiences and Lessons from the Northern Ugandan Humanitarian Crisis. Input paper prepared for the Global Assessment Report on Disaster Risk Reduction 2015.

Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs. (2010). Emergency Response Fund Uganda. Annual Report.

Uganda Public Finance Management Act 2015.
http://library.health.go.ug/publications/health-system-financing-health-financing/budgets/uganda-public-finance-management-act

United Nations Development Programme. (2015, b). Governance of disaster risk reduction and management in Uganda: A literature review. Uganda.

United Nations System. (2016). United Nations Development Assistance Framework for Uganda, 2016-2020. Kampala, Uganda.

Wokadala, James. (2016). Country-specific guidance note to support PDNA Roll-Out in Uganda. Draft Report. Kampala, Uganda.

World Bank. 2017. Third Northern Uganda Social Action Fund. NUSAF 3.
http://projects.worldbank.org/P149965?lang=en

Annex IV: Resources Persons

ETHIOPIA

Ms Rahel Asfaw
Director, Disaster Response and Rehabilitation Directorate
National Disaster Risk Management Commission

Ms Osuola
Director, Climate Change Division
Rural Economy and Agricultural Dept
African Union Commission

Mr Gathuoth Kai
Technical Coordinator
Disaster Risk Reduction
Rural Economy and Agricultural Dept
African Union Commission

Mr Aliou M. Dia
Regional Team Leader -Africa
UNDP Regional Services Center for Africa

Mr Dillip Kumar Bhanja
Technical Advisor, Disaster Risk Management and Livelihoods
Climate Resilient Green Growth Unit
United Nations Development Programme

KENYA

Sunya Orre
Director, technical Services
National Drought Management Authority

Joanathan K Kertich
Public Health Desk Officer
NDOC

Col (Rtd) Charles O. Owino, MBS
Director
NDOC

Col (Rats) Richard Kilele Kenduiwa
OPERATIONS officer
NDOC

Joseph Komu
Agricultural officer, Planning Unit
Strategic Planning
Ministry of Agriculture Livestock and Fisheries

Mr Amjad Abbashar
Head of regional office for Africa
UNISDR

Mr Animesh Kumar
Deputy Head Office Regional OFFICE FOR Africa
UNISDR

Mr Julius Kabubi
UNISDR

Dr Nicodemoous Nyandiko
Masindo Muhiro University of Science and Technology

Ms Evelyn Koech
UNDP Programme Officer

NIGERIA

National Emergency Management Agency
Alhassan Nuhu
Director -Disaster Risk Reduction

Benjamin Og Henah
Deputy Director

Abbani Imam Garki
Chief
DRR Officer

Victor Ninaubani
Chief DRR

MALAWI

Andrew Spezowka
Tapona Manjolo
Sothini Nyirenda
United Nations Development Programme

Mietek Maj
World Food Programme

Johannes Wedenig
United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund

Mia Seppo
Resident Coordinator
United Nations Resident Coordinator´s Office

James Chusiwa
Dept. of Disaster Management Affairs

Dr. Yusufu Mtende
Ministry of Health

Adwell Zembele
Director of Economic Planning
Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development

Nisile Mwaisunga
Environmental Affairs Department

Elfrida Gwanda
Save the Children

Owen Nalivaka
Ministry of Transport and Public Works

Florence Rolle
Food and Agriculture Organization

John Chome
United Nations Human Settlements Programme

Virginia Kachigunda
Ministry of Education, Science and Technology

Joseph Moyo
Malawi Red Cross

Francis Nkoka
World Bank

Jenny Brown
European Union

UGANDA

Steven Goldfinch
Alfred Ongom
United Nations Development Programme

Commissioner Martin Owor
Head of the Department
Department of Disaster Preparedness and Management

Tito Bonde
Ministry of Finance

Catherine A.
Captain David Liv Okumu
Office of the Prime Minister´s technical officer overseeing risk assessment and recovery

MOZAMBIQUE

Steven Goldfinch
Alfred Ongom

Tito Bonde
United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund

-**Visión Mundial**
-Save the children
- Mozambique Red Cross
Non-Governmental Organization

Eunice Mucache
World Bank

Dr. Xavier Chavana
Deputy Director and Technical Staff
Ministry of Economy and Finance

Márcia Freitas Castro (Resident Coordinator)
Titus Kuuyur
Manuela Muianga
UNDP

Denis Guiamba
Agnaldo Bila
Artemiza Chissano
Xavier Gulele
Arafat Zainadine
CENOE

Esselina Muzima
Feliciano Mataver
INGC

Anacleta Bota
Ministry of Agriculture

Armando Fonseca
National Road Authority

Inacio Tezoura
Urbanism and Housing Department

Isac Filimone
Hydric Resources General Directory

Annex V: Guide for in-depth interviews

Name of person being interviewed:

Title:

Agency/Organization:

Sector/Cluster:

1. Have you been involved in Post-Disaster Assessment or Recovery efforts following a Disaster Y N
2. If yes which event year
3. Kindly describe your role/responsibility

UNDERSTANDING OF RECOVERY[43]

- Can you please describe what disaster recovery means to you?
- Do you think the recovery process was guided by a clear vision, if not why not?
- What issues have posed the biggest challenges to recovery?
- If recovery process could be improved what do you think needs to be done to make recovery work better?

POST-DISASTER NEEDS ASSESSMENT (PDNA)

- How have PDNA been conducted after a disaster?
- How are the Assessments used in the development of the Recovery Framework if at all?
- Do you find the assessment process useful why or why not?

INSTITUTIONAL ARRANGEMENTS FOR DRR/RECOVERY

- Which institution(s) is (are) mandated to take the lead in DRM? How is recovery included in the mandate?
- Which institution is in charge of coordinating and managing recovery—do you think they are well suited to the task?
- How does the coordinating mechanism work in managing the recovery process?
- How does this institution fit into the Governmental decision-making process, especially in driving the development agenda?

RECOVERY POLICY AND GUIDELINES

1. Legal framework

- Are you satisfied that the existing DRM legislation adequately addresses disaster recovery?
- If not what is missing?

[43] "Recovery" is defined as the restoration, and where appropriate, improvement of facilities, livelihoods, and living conditions of disaster-affected communities, including efforts to reduce disaster risk factors while, "reconstruction" focuses primarily on the construction or replacement of damaged physical structures, and the restoration of local services and infrastructure. The term "recovery" in this document encompasses both "recovery" and "reconstruction".

2. Recovery Policy and Strategies
- How are recovery strategy and policies formulated / established?
- How does the policy include for the participation of civil society organizations, local level, communities, vulnerable groups such as women, elderly, etc. to the recovery process?
- How is the private sector engaged in the recovery process?
- Do these policies /strategies etcetera, influence the process of recovery - how and if not why not?

3. Recovery Strategies and Plans
- Do sectoral ministries have competencies to develop recovery plans/strategies for their sectors? (Rate perception from 1 to 5)
- How are decisions taken to prioritise programmes and projects for recovery?
- Do the Ministries do a good job at developing their plans, if not why not
- Are these plans implementable—if not, why not

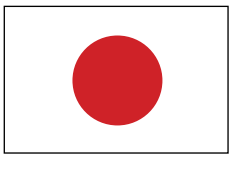
4. Practices and Actions
- Are there clear procedures, manuals or guides on managing recovery processes eg. Mechanisms to fast-track procurement in post-disaster phase?
- Why do these procedures work well or not so well?

FINANCIAL MECHANISMS FOR RECOVERY
- How does recovery normally get financed?
- Is there a strategy to mobilize additional resources after a disaster?
- How do the various institutions in charge of managing funds for recovery work?
- Is there a sense in the country of accountability for and fairness in the distribution of recovery expenditure?
- Is the private sector encouraged to participate in recovery and how?
- Do the procedures established by the government for financing for recovery work well or not so well?

MONITORING, EVALUATION AND REPORTING
- How does the monitoring of the recovery process occur?
- How does the reporting to donors occur?
- When gaps/quality issues are identified in the implementation of recovery activities, how are revisions/gaps/quality addressed?

INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATIONS
a) Has the Information-sharing during post-disaster recovery been successful?
b) If yes, what has contributed to its success and if not what may have caused its lack of success?
c) Do the various sectors of the affected population seem to understand/know of the recovery efforts?
d) How is stakeholder information-sharing managed?

This report was produced and designed with funding from the Government of Luxembourg and the Government of Japan.



From
the People of Japan

LUXEMBOURG
AID & DEVELOPMENT

Empowered lives.
Resilient nations.

United Nations Development Programme
Crisis Bureau
304, East 45th Street
New York, NY 10017
USA

For more information: www.undp.org