Disaster Risk Reduction contribution to peacebuilding programmes

This thesis is submitted for obtaining the Joint Master’s Degree in International Humanitarian Action. By submitting the thesis, the author certifies that the text is from his own hand, does not include the work of someone else unless clearly indicated, and that the thesis has been produced in accordance with proper academic practices.

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Abstract

The aim of this thesis is to provide theoretical evidence that a disaster risk reduction perspective within peacebuilding programmes, particularly in countries where disasters and conflict overlap, can contribute positively to the transformation of conflict into sustainable peace.

An increasing number of disasters in fragile states and countries affected by armed conflict has brought the attention to know in which way disasters and conflicts collide when they come to occur in the same area, and how disasters can influence on-going peace processes.

In order to demonstrate that argument the thesis draws the evolution of the disaster risk management models and peacebuilding frameworks along the last decades and make use of a comprehensive theoretical background to support the subsequent analysis.

This thesis contributes to the academic literature and humanitarian reports of studies describing the relation between disasters and conflict but, more concretely, it aims to fill the gap in research studying the links between a disaster risk reduction strategy and peacebuilding programmes.

The conclusions of the thesis are that disaster risk reduction initiatives contribute positively in several ways to the different key areas of peacebuilding programmes either as concrete initiatives or as a crosscutting issue.
Preface

The main reason for writing this thesis is because of a growing interest on the issues addressed here: how to reduce the impact of disasters, why a conflict develops into armed extended violence, what can be done to stop and revert such violence or how to overcome evident inequalities. Violent conflict is a major obstacle to development and leads to important human rights abuses. Although peace processes can help societies become more equitable and resilient, many fail and this reduces the possibilities for peaceful conflict resolution.

The idea of looking into how Disaster Risk Reduction could positively influence peacebuilding and conflict resolution seems to me a very important and promising field, as the “number of high profile disasters in fragile and conflict-affected states have increased the attention being paid to how disasters and conflict collide, though systematic analysis is limited and sometimes contested” (Harries, Keen and Mitchell 2013, p.4)

Deciding to make this rather complex and challenging research question my thesis for the NOHA Master is actually linking both my professional experience and personal interest, giving me the opportunity to increase my own knowledge and understand better the underlying causes and propose some modest suggestions for practical implementation and areas for further studies.

When I became fire fighter in 1998, I learnt how emergency services work and how to respond to different types of emergencies but did not have much theoretical understanding on conflict or causes of disasters. Through my studies in sociology that I did in parallel to my work, I came to understand much more how society functions and how much behaviour and attitudes as well as governance influence emergencies as well as resilience. This brought me to the humanitarian sector, where I got the opportunity to provide my expertise to various NGOs in humanitarian emergencies.

A few humanitarian missions and especially one year in Peru after the earthquake in 2007, where the reconstruction brought up all the complexities and challenges from the civil war and the violence that country had suffered for decades, increased my interest to explore the links between conflict, peace and Disaster Risk Reduction. After
searching for post-graduate programs that could bring me the academic background and knowledge around this topic, I found that the NOHA Master on International Humanitarian Action at Uppsala University would precisely provide me with what I so far lacked. Its internationally renowned reputation on peace and conflict studies and combining this with humanitarian actions gave a perfect platform to embark on deepening my understanding on the links between conflicts and disaster in international interventions. Here I also realized that my experience as firefighter and humanitarian worker was crucial for integrating the concepts and methods studied and enabled me to feel secure to take on this thesis.
Acknowledgements

Being an expression of thanks, I find it quite difficult from when or where to start. This particular act of writing a thesis, at least in my case, is built on many decisions taken in the last years leading to study finally the NOHA Master at Uppsala university.

Being a statement to recognize the use of works of other authors is clearly shown in the bibliography, but there are many other influences which cannot be included in any list of books but in memories striking my mind when writing the thesis.

How to acknowledge in this section all the caring moments shared with friends and relatives; professional and academic experiences through diverse organizations or institutions; supportive conversations from where I learnt about different topics; thoughts brought by several lectures and teachers. But all of them reflected in one way or another, more or less obvious, in this thesis.

The following graphic is an attempt to collect all those people who are part of this work, some of them under the acronyms of an organization, some others probably not included by mistake, my mistake only, however I can still notice their influence within the margins of this randomized graphic.
# Acronyms and abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DG ECHO</td>
<td>European Commission Directorate-General for Humanitarian Aid and Civil Protection</td>
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<tr>
<td>DDR</td>
<td>Disarmament, Demobilization, and Reintegration</td>
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<td>DRM</td>
<td>Disaster Risk Management</td>
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<td>DRR</td>
<td>Disaster Risk Reduction</td>
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<tr>
<td>EU</td>
<td>European Union</td>
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<tr>
<td>IECAH</td>
<td>Instituto de Estudios sobre Conflictos y Acción Humanitaria</td>
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<td>IASC</td>
<td>Inter-Agency Standing Committee</td>
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<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labour Office</td>
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<tr>
<td>MDG</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goals</td>
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<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>SSR</td>
<td>Security Sector Reform</td>
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<td>SDG</td>
<td>Sustainable Development Goals</td>
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<tr>
<td>MSB</td>
<td>Swedish Civil Contingencies Agency</td>
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<tr>
<td>UN</td>
<td>United Nations</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNISDR</td>
<td>United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction</td>
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<tr>
<td>OCHA</td>
<td>United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs</td>
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<td>UCDP</td>
<td>Uppsala Conflict Data Program</td>
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1. Introduction

The number of natural disasters¹, and its consequences, has incessantly increased during the last decades. That is particularly evident with those hydro-meteorological disasters associated to climate change as it has been published by the United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction (UNISDR)². The human impact, number of deaths and people affected, and overall losses caused by natural disasters are as high as in armed conflicts (Guha-Sapir, D. and Leaning, J. 2013, p.1836)

![Number of climate-related disasters around the world 1980-2011.](source: From UNISDR [www.unisdr.org/we/inform/disaster-statistics](http://www.unisdr.org/we/inform/disaster-statistics))

According to the Global Climate Risk Index 2013, most affected countries in 2011 were Thailand, Cambodia, Pakistan, El Salvador and the Philippines. But if taking in consideration the whole period between 1992 and 2011, then Honduras, Myanmar and Nicaragua rank highest. The index reconfirms that developing countries are more affected than developed ones, and we will see along the thesis the reason is not simply the geographical location of those countries but their vulnerability to risks. Lack of major efforts to revert vulnerability will add on top of past vulnerability and increase the probability of more suffering and losses in case of a new disaster.

¹ Following clarification applies to the entire thesis: “It is worth noting that the ‘natural’ part of natural disasters is a misnomer. Experts link the cause of disasters to vulnerable people living in locations exposed to natural hazards. Yet the ‘natural’ label remains in disasters discourse hence we have chosen to include the ‘natural’ element here so as to clarify the distinction between disasters associated with natural hazards and disasters associated with conflict” (Harries, Keen and Mitchell 2013, p.2).

Some drivers of vulnerability in a society are rapid urbanization, rural poverty, ecosystem deterioration, weak economies, population growth, or poor governance among others. Nowadays, there is no sign indicating these drivers to be reduced but rather the opposite. The number of natural hazards is growing and extreme events due to climate change will become more frequent and more severe, hitting the same already vulnerable countries. There are endeavors to change this trend but, on a global perspective, they need wider engagement and awareness from different key actors.

On the other hand, armed conflicts have always had, and will continue to have, an effect on the lives of millions of people around the world. According to the Uppsala Conflict Data Program (UCDP)\(^3\), the number of ongoing armed conflicts along 2012 was 32. However, the number of fragile states is higher than the conflict-affected ones and the public mismanagement of weak governments contributes to political unrest and, in some cases, to conflict which in turn increases the vulnerability of those populations. The threat of inter-state armed conflict reminds real after the Cold War period, even though the incidence of this type of conflict has decreased considerably, nevertheless, terrorism and internal conflicts (intra-state) have increased in the last four decades.

![Armed conflicts in the world 2012](http://www.ucdp.uu.se/gpdatabase/search.php)

Figure 2 Armed conflicts in the world 2012


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Deaths, displacement and/or different types of vulnerability are not the only features in common between natural disasters and armed conflicts. Their complex nature, dominated by chaos and uncertainty, or the spectrum of management actions\(^4\) in both circumstances are shared by natural disasters and armed conflicts contexts. Both have common drivers to explain the causal factors and significance of the consequences once they strike, like poor governance or environmental degradation or expansion of disorganised urbanisation. Particular attention needs to be paid to climate change, as a growing stress shaping both disasters and conflicts’ future trends\(^5\), and the expectation that disasters and conflict will collide more in the future in the same geographical regions or countries.

The reasons described above suggest that common conceptual frameworks and analytical tools are a logical outcome of the process to obtain a more integrated risk modelling for the humanitarian response towards these complex emergencies. However, generally speaking, as argued by Harries, Keen and Mitchell (2013, p.8) “in both policy and practice, conflict prevention and disaster risk management are treated as discrete issues, with limited crossover of expertise or joint working. Misconceptions, different ‘languages’, and low levels of coordinated analysis and programming inhibit

\(^4\) Preparedness, prevention and/or mitigation, response, recovery and development. Similar phases in conflict contexts are named different depending on the authors: conflict containment, war limitation, conflict settlement and conflict transformation; or conflict prevention, peacekeeping, peacemaking and peacebuilding (sometimes divided between structural peacebuilding and cultural peacebuilding). In both cases, disasters and conflicts, the phases are not implemented sequentially following each other, but coordinated, continuously and nested, and interventions are flexible and fluid.

\(^5\) There are also other studies showing the opposite relation between climate change and conflicts: “[…] the relation is opposite to common perceptions: Countries that are affected by climate-related natural disasters face a lower risk of civil war. One worrying facet of the claims that environmental factors cause conflict is that they may contribute to directing attention away from more important conflict-promoting factors, such as poor governance and poverty” (Slettebak 2012, p.163). Anyway, even if there were no direct statistical correlation between climate change and conflict, the United Nations report, *Climate Change 2014: Impacts, Adaptation, and Vulnerability*, from Working Group II of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), refers to an indirect connection between the two factors, especially in the long-term, and “evidence suggests that climatic events over a large range of time and spatial scales contribute to the likelihood of violence through multiple pathways”. And it is not only how populations in the last decades respond to changes in climate, but how future populations will respond to climate change consequences if global annual temperatures rise from 2 to 4 degrees as it is expected. Only social, economic, technological, and political changes might exacerbate or mitigate global patterns of personal violence, group conflict and social instability in the future. That is the reason why adaptation and mitigation are the two key concepts encompassed in the United Nations report mentioned above.
the potential for stronger collaboration”. But different studies actually show that extended factors in developing countries like poverty, inequalities or poor governance enhance the risk of both vulnerability to natural disasters and development of armed conflicts (Warnecke and Franke 2010; Slettebak 2012).

Literature on natural disasters suggests that such kind of chaotic events aggravate existing conflicts or may even spark latent ones. Only in few cases has a natural disaster led to resolution of conflicts, like after the 2004 tsunami in Indonesia where disaster accelerated the peace process initiated before for a, so far, lasting peace. On the other hand, the impact of armed conflicts contributes to an increase of the negative consequences of natural disasters on the population, increasing its vulnerability and leading to institutional weakness (López-Carresí, Fordham, Wisner, Kelman and Gaillard 2014, p.253). In summary, the main argument for this thesis is that Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR) and Disaster Risk Management (DRM) should be part of both conflict prevention efforts and peace building frameworks.

DRR is used in this thesis as an umbrella concept that incorporates proper DRR activities (mitigation, prevention and preparedness for risk reduction) at community and institutional level and DRM, which is more operational and comprises relief and recovery operations as well. DRR is the term used by national and international frameworks and organizations as the idea of reducing underlying risks and the impact and likelihood of disasters as a developmental concept, addressing all types of vulnerabilities and building resilience.

1.1 Problem formulation

The background information described in the previous section shows a relation between the consequences or effects from disasters and armed conflicts, and many of those shocks are distributed in the same regions of the world and affecting even the same countries, for instance Haiti, Indonesia, Kenya, Nigeria, Sri Lanka or Sudan.

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Other studies conclude that disaster-related activities or DRR programmes could help to prevent an armed conflict in fragile states or may have a multiplying effect on diplomatic efforts (Harries, Keen and Mitchell 2013; Ker-Lindsay 2000; Kelman 2003). This thesis pretends to demonstrate that the rationale behind the DRR initiatives will facilitate peacebuilding processes in post-conflict contexts as well.

Peacebuilding is a complex process including lots of different efforts and actors to consolidate peace and transform conflict into durable peace. Among the actions taken to consolidate peace is, for example, the process of Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration (DDR) of ex-combatants as part of the reconstruction of the social fabric and for sustainable peace and development. But, reintegration where? And how? Many of the ex-combatants have no place to go back, miss the education period while immersed in the conflict and have no professional background after years of combating. Communities are not ready in general to accept the reintegration of the ex-combatants and reconciliation is not easy. There is no simple solution; a wide spectrum of measures is required to support resettlement and to house the ex-combatants back into society. In general, demobilizations are conducted as part of a broader Security Sector Reform (SSR), while this thesis intends to make a distinction between security and safety in order, for instance, to consider the possibility of including DRR initiatives within DDR programs. As such, DRR would be part of the reintegration process, bringing together ex-combatants and communities.

Governments and international organizations providing humanitarian support in an emergency context primarily focus on the most immediate and direct effects of disasters or violence to the communities, and initiate the rebuilding of socio-political institutions, mainly security and justice sectors. Safety becomes part of, or melts into, security sector reforms while emergency response is being forgotten or becomes a minor task for police and/or military bodies. In parallel, some international donor agencies’ narrow political and security objectives have been intensified in humanitarian and development aid, particularly since 2002 with “poorly conceived aid projects aimed at winning ‘hearts and minds’ [that] have proved ineffective, costly,
and have sometimes turned beneficiary communities and aid workers into targets of attack” (Oxfam 2011, p.2). This thesis proposes that community based disaster risk management and consolidated governance structures for disaster management, or in other words a civil protection system, could have a complementary and relevant role within humanitarian programmes in post-conflict contexts for reaching sustainable peace.

According to the European Commission Directorate-General for Humanitarian Aid and Civil Protection (DG ECHO), an estimated 97% of natural disaster-related deaths occur in developing countries and these countries bear the heaviest burden in terms of livelihoods lost. On the other hand, during armed conflicts the target of violence has shifted from soldiers to civilians. While in the First World War 5% of the deaths were civilians, and about 50% in the Second World War, more than 90% of the victims of today’s armed conflict are civilians (Martín Beristain 1999, p.27). Destroying the social fabric has become a tool for reaching control over the population pretending to get a clear advantage in the conflict.

However, number of protracted conflicts slowly grows with sprinkled peaks of hostility onto longer periods of low intensity violence. Complex emergencies in such contexts, where disaster and conflict feed each other and increase vulnerability of the population affected, the need for reconstruction of the social fabric is high. Sustainable peace in post-conflict environments requires a structural and cultural transformation

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7 In this thesis, Civil Protection, or in some countries Civil Defense, is considered an institutional based disaster risk management body. This institution that coordinates emergency and crisis management comprises both specialized emergency services and community based management.

8 In the meeting of the United Nations General Assembly Open Working Group on Sustainable Development Goals held in New York during 6-10 January 2014, the European Union and its Member States introduced the presentation “Climate Change and Disaster Risk Reduction” (delivered by Mr. Ian Clark, Head of Unit "Policy and Implementation Frameworks", DG ECHO, European Commission) emphasizing three key messages. The third key message affirms “through engagement with all actors (recognizing notably the role of women), governance structures for disaster management need to be enhanced and stakeholders’ capacity strengthened at all levels. Strong local structures in particular are essential to mitigate risks and ensure the effectiveness of prevention, preparedness and response operations”...http://www.eu-un.europa.eu/articles/en/article_14456_en.htm (Accessed 2014-05-28).

of reinforced institutions to protect civilians and, in a longer term, pursuing deeper changes in behaviours and attitudes to stop looking at the ‘other’, at the neighbour, as an enemy. The development of a Civil Protection system, with community and institutional components, may be a good tool to start building trust among the different actors.

Nowadays, civil protection systems and disaster management initiatives are efforts to protect the communities from any kind of emergency and disasters in general. The aim is safety and protection of the lives and physical integrity of people and their properties\(^\text{10}\). Such initiatives could move the focus from general distrust and insecurity that is found in post-conflict contexts, towards safety where people might look at the ‘other’ as an equal who is in danger and needs protection. Then the question is: may DRR programmes, including community and institutional based DRM, contribute to assist the people during peacebuilding processes getting back the perception of having control on their lives? Might DRR support, together with other psychosocial oriented initiatives, the rehabilitation of the social fabric?

1.2 Research question and main argument

In summary, with the problem formulation stated in the previous section, the main research question is as follows:

How can DRR efforts contribute to build sustainable peace in post-conflict contexts?

Along the thesis will be described the significant attempts carried by UN to ensure peace by matching appropriate conflict resolution strategies and linkage between security and development. In the words of the United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) “peacebuilding encompasses a non-linear blend of conflict prevention, political, security, humanitarian and development activities, tailored to a particular context” (OCHA 2011, p.3). However, among the traditional five key areas of peacebuilding to support national capacities and return

stability (safety and security; political processes; basic services; core government functions; and economic revitalization) there is no concrete mention to DRR.

DRR and peacebuilding share part of their conceptualization, like addressing vulnerabilities, building capacities, bringing stability, enhancing development, reducing risks, reconstruction of the social fabric and resettlement of displaced people. Apart from that, common ground between DRR and peacebuilding, there are other characteristics of the DRR approach which could be complementary to peacebuilding in post-conflict contexts. For instance, a community-based participatory research and involvement of all actors in risks assessments; linking relief, recovery and development in order to improve sustainability; or having a community/local/national capacity of risk reduction to make available the same protection for everybody. There is no single peacebuilding solution for all conflicts, but a context driven DRR programme could provide specific support to those initiatives predominantly in, but not only, disaster-prone regions.

DRR can incorporate both a disaster and conflict-sensitivity approach into the capacity building programmes, within peacebuilding strategies, to improve sustainability by offering another field, apart from the security sector reform, where ex-combatants may be reintegrated. At the same time, these two types of initiatives, among others, can reinforce each other and might break cycles of violence by reestablishing trust and promoting reconciliation in the community prioritizing its own coping strategies in case of disaster to deal with social conflict-wounds.

The main argument (hypothesis) of this paper linked to the research questions is affirmative. Yes, DRR efforts can contribute to build sustainable peace in post-conflict contexts and, along the text, the way it can have an added value to peacebuilding will be drawn. There are also limitations and constrains to such contribution presented in the final chapter. However, this attempt to link DRR and peacebuilding could be considered a practical contribution, actually a quite flexible and adaptable input to

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peacebuilding processes in different post-conflict contexts that, together with other initiatives like Transitional Justice, could add alternatives, for instance, to reconstruction of the social fabric or reintegration of ex-combatants strategies. Neither all conflicts influence in the same way Disaster Risk Management initiatives nor all conflicts irrupt under similar pre-existing societal conditions or institutional development. As Lederach suggests: “What we need are practical mechanisms by which our vision of a desired future can be used to define our response to the crisis, otherwise, the crisis and its dynamics will define the future” (Lederach 1997, p. 79).

1.3 Methodology

This is a research synthesis based on secondary data with the aim to identify and analyse available academic research and studies linking the two main variables of the research question, DRR and peacebuilding, to propose ways of practical integration among the two in specific contexts. Due to limited availability of pertinent academic research or field experiences describing or analysing the link between DRR and peacebuilding, the review was extended to find other studies with relevant descriptions of each of the variables which could allow a better understanding of the structure and management of DRR and peacebuilding processes. The literature review also includes searching for the main concepts and theories that have been applied to the variables in order to compare them, recognize mutual connections, and see how they could be integrated.

The databases for the literature search have been the library of Uppsala University, JSTOR digital library and Google Scholar. Other sources like the United Nations Dag Hammarskjöld Library and the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development iLibrary have been also consulted; besides some journals in the SAGE journals database, like the Journal of Peace Research, and other specialised websites, like the Working Group on Peace and Development (FriEnt) or Berghof Foundation. The key words used were peacebuilding, disaster, war, conflict, and disaster risk reduction or management, and the different combinations among them to refine the
search. Another important source for finding appropriate literature for this thesis has been the bibliography references included in the studies read.

The literature search for studies proving potential relationships between DRR initiatives and peacebuilding strategies did not give any result among academic databases and just few documents have dealt with this issue among reports from humanitarian organizations, for instance Walch (2010), or Harries, Keen and Mitchell (2013). However, the search found a number of studies illustrating the linkages between peacebuilding and development in general, and others about more concrete areas within peacebuilding like, for example, DDR processes and the Security Sector Reform (SSR).

Similar limitation were found when searching for academic studies on DRR with conflict sensitivity. One may find some studies connecting disasters and conflicts and the relation of cause-effect between the two of them, such as in López-Carresi, Fordham, Wisner, Kelman and Gaillard (2014). Disaster diplomacy theory explores how and why disaster-related activities do and do not influence conflict and cooperation. Therefore, the methodology to analyse the information and draw the main argument of the thesis (hypothesis) is a descriptive analysis of the studies identified in the literature review to examine the main theories underlying DRR and peacebuilding processes, from key authors like Galtung and Lederach, and how those processes are structured in practice. Afterwards, a deductive analysis has been applied in order to contrast and combine the information obtained from the analysis of the theory and deduct the possible elements of common ground between peacebuilding and DRR (Bryman 2012).

Furthermore, as it has been mentioned earlier, DRR and peacebuilding share part of their conceptualization. For that reason, a comparative analysis of the data obtained from the previous deductive analysis has been applied to get, now through inductive methods, rather innovative and descriptive conclusions based on the evidence given. It

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is important to mention though that because of the lack of academic studies and experience-based evidence, the conclusions drawn from this research synthesis would need further research, especially because experiences in the field suggest that there are potential connections among peace building and DRR programmes (Walch 2010).

1.4 Relevance of the thesis for peacebuilding processes
An increase in the number of natural disasters in the last decades and the on-going conflicts in Syria, South Sudan, Afghanistan, Iraq or Democratic Republic of Congo show how currently present are those issues today and, in multiple cases, disasters and conflict collide. There are expectations that disasters and conflicts will interact more in the future due to climate change, rapid urbanization and other stressing factors.

Searching in the specialised literature discloses the difficulties to find evidence on how disasters and conflicts overlap and the lack of existing programming, and policies, which considers the mutual contributions between DRR and peacebuilding approaches. The implementation of programmes dealing with these two types of hazards is separate from each other.

There are several factors leading to that separation of programmes applied in the event of natural disaster and conflict rather based on conceptual and operational reasons. Delimited expertise in each of those areas of the humanitarian field and the specific mandates of the international agencies or organizations also constrains the possibility of linking DRR and peacebuilding and explore possible mutual contributions between both strategies.

In order to address that gap, this thesis shows the contributions that DRR efforts can bring within peacebuilding programmes to avoid the relapse of violence and support the transformation of conflict into sustainable peace. Moreover the analysis will present some options on how peacebuilding programmes may integrate a DRR perspective and DRR activities can incorporate a conflict sensitive approach.
1.5 Limitations of the research

One of the main limitations of this research has been already largely introduced in the methodology section, how the links between DRR and peacebuilding remains under researched. There is no solid theoretical foundation relating the two variables in order to conclude strong arguments.

The few experience-based results from linking DRR and peacebuilding in practice in post-conflict contexts is also a limitation to obtain field data to contrast the results of the theoretical analysis. Having the possibility of using a case study or interviewing humanitarian workers could have tested the main argument of the thesis by applying an analytical tool (for instance, the Sustainable Conflict Transformation model that is described later on in the theoretical background of this thesis) to assess the value of its contribution for building peace. But there were no resources available to study a particular case in the field within the frame of the thesis, which limits the access to primary data and reduces the number of qualitative methods to be applied.

That is why the thesis scope is broad and based on the general frameworks of DRR and peacebuilding instead of concrete case studies or specific contributions from DRR to peacebuilding. Actually, those could be subjects for further research.

1.6 Outline: a brief explanation of the chapters’ content

After the introduction to the problem statement and research question in chapter 1, a description of the background of DRR and peacebuilding frameworks is illustrated in chapter 2. It offers an overview of the last decades evolution of the different existing DRM models and the development of peacebuilding understanding in UN missions to finalize describing what a complex emergency is.

The third chapter approaches the theoretical framework and the theories which are used along the thesis to delimit the base of DRR and peacebuilding conceptualization. Galtung’s theory of violence and peace and Lederach’s conflict transformation theory are essential to understand the connections between DRR and peacebuilding together with Disaster Diplomacy theory.
Chapter 4 is the bulk of this thesis where all the information collected is analyzed in order to find the links and synergies between a DRR framework and the peacebuilding programmes implemented during humanitarian interventions in complex emergencies. Chapter 5 gathers the main findings of this thesis in the form of conclusions and possibilities of future research.

Finally, two appendices are part of the contents structure. One is a glossary with the main concepts underlying this thesis to facilitate a common understanding of the whole logical process (appendix 1). Two additional figures to better understand and compare the different phases in a timeline of DRM and peacebuilding programmes is available in appendix 2.
2. The background of DRR and peacebuilding

“The international humanitarian system, the subject of this book, is not a logical construct. It is the result of many, often competing, processes. Some driven by self-interest or national interest, some by ideology, some by altruism, but all about adaptation; adaptation to changing needs, as war shifts from predominantly international and between armies to predominantly civil and within populations; adaptation to improved knowledge and technology as we are better able to predict flooding, hurricane paths and extended periods of drought; adaptation to available resources as the political expediency of reacting to someone else’s tragedy waxes and wanes.”

Peter Walker and Daniel Maxwell
Shaping the Humanitarian World

The two central concepts used in this thesis, Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR) and Peacebuilding, are largely included today in the portfolios of most humanitarian organizations. In one way or another, these organizations adopt strategies, principles or programmes under global partnerships and policy frameworks like, for example, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)13 or Hyogo Framework for Action (HFA)14. Both conflicts and natural disasters are considered under those frameworks as causes for poverty in societies and factors reversing developmental efforts.

Nowadays, new post-2015 agendas for the MDGs and HFA15 are deliberated among United Nations member states and consultations promoted to include other major


15 The MDGs were defined in the year 2000 after adoption of the United Nations Millennium Declaration with the clear intention to reduce extreme poverty and with a deadline of 2015. Today, Beyond 2015 is a United Nations initiative, in partnership with many other developmental actors, to set new Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) building on the achievements and lessons learnt from the current MDGs framework. Conflict prevention, post-conflict peacebuilding and the promotion of durable peace are part of deliberations to define the SDGs, but also disaster risk reduction and climate change adaptation. http://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/index.php?page=view&type=9502&menu=1565&nr=23 (Accessed 2014-04-17).

HFA is a 10 year plan, from 2005 to 2015, lead by UNISDR and agreed on with governments, international institutions and many other actors to reduce disaster losses by building the resilience of nations and communities to disasters. The Post-2015 Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction consultation process for a new agenda includes in some of the discussions conflict as a risk factor increasing vulnerability among communities under conflict or political violence. Furthermore, conflict, together with vulnerability itself, poverty and other factors, is considered a driver of disaster risk. http://www.preventionweb.net/english/professional/news/v.php?id=29379&utm_source=pw_search&utm_medium=search&utm_campaign=search (Accessed 2014-04-18).
actors’ voices from Developmental and Humanitarian institutions. In the discussions held during the consultations for the new agendas, there is an increasing awareness to take into account of disaster resilience and peacebuilding among the new set of goals and policy frameworks. In that sense, conflicts and disasters are not only considered as causes for poverty but also reflected upon in terms of their interrelation.

At the same time, DRR and peacebuilding are two recent concepts in the evolution of the international humanitarian system to better address, in a more comprehensive approach, the acute suffering of people in humanitarian emergencies or crises. The first traces of humanitarian action go thousands of years back, while the present so-called humanitarian global system started its history around the middle of the nineteenth century, when the International Red Cross family was set-up, creating a new landmark. The fundamentals of those first humanitarian actors have continued to evolve until today, attempting to improve and widen the response towards the most vulnerable people. That is emphasised in Walker and Maxwell (2009, p.7), “a vulnerable population is impacted by a new hazard too heavy to bear and disaster ensues. This equation is at the heart of every crisis”.

Vulnerability is generated by physical, socio-economical, political and environmental factors such as poor governance, unfair distribution of resources, inequalities, and impact of climate change. This means vulnerability is actually socially constructed. According to the United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction (UNISDR) ‘2009 UNISDR Terminology on Disaster Risk Reduction’, vulnerability is “the characteristics and circumstances of a community, system or asset that make it susceptible to the damaging effects of a hazard” (UNISDR 2009, p. 30).

A wider definition of disaster should also include conflict, apart from natural hazards, as a particular shock disrupting the normal functioning of a community or

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16 Because of the central concepts in this thesis are DRR and Peacebuilding and each of them associated in practice to different type of disasters, the former to those ones provoked by natural hazards and the latter to conflicts, the following assumption is made in the text: ‘Natural disasters’ refers to those disasters originated by the so-call natural hazards, and not including conflict, while the term ‘Disaster’ includes both.
society. Equally to a disaster provoked by a natural hazard, conflicts change the social context and environment of the affected population bringing vulnerability and uncertainty. Conflict likewise increases vulnerability of communities in many ways: displacement, lack of services, loss of resources and assets, limited capacity of governmental and international agencies to respond to disasters, etcetera. Nevertheless, the humanitarian organizations’ capacity to work in natural disasters or conflicts changes from one context to the other, and as a study from DARA indicates “progress in the capacity to deliver assistance in response to natural disasters has not been matched in conflict situations, where the effectiveness of the humanitarian sector is being increasingly questioned” (DARA 2014, p. 1).

Communities though are not only vulnerable during a disaster, they do have capacity and mechanisms to confront the negative effects caused by a hazard, at least until a certain extent and depending on its resources and organization. This is what is called resilience, defined in the 2009 UNISDR Terminology on Disaster Risk Reduction as “the ability of a system, community or society exposed to hazards to resist, absorb, accommodate to 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” (UNISDR 2009, p. 24). It is further explained in the following pages that concepts of risk, vulnerability or resilience are commonly used both in DRR and peacebuilding approaches.

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17 As it has been mentioned in the introduction that natural disaster in this document refers to those caused by natural hazards, knowing the term natural disasters is a misnomer, but with the intention to simplify and make clear distinction between disasters associated with natural hazards and disasters associated with conflict.

18 Shock is understood in this paper as the manifestation of any kind of risk, which is not really equivalent to the definition of disaster, expressed in the next chapter that includes the individual and social consequences to a community when the risk materializes into a shock. While risk is accepted here according to the 2009 UNISDR Terminology on Disaster Risk Reduction, which defines risk as the combination of the probability of an event (possibility of occurrence) and its negative consequences (potential losses).
2.1 Evolution of Disaster Risk Management models

The way how disasters have been managed in the last hundred years has evolved parallel to the advancement of humanitarian aid and international development cooperation as well as how disasters and their impact are understood. At the same time, the disaster trends provided in the International Disaster Database (EM-DAT) by the Centre for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters (CRED) show a substantial increase in number of disasters, people affected by them and economical damages reported, which has brought gradually more attention to disaster management approaches.

From the turn of the XXth century until the 1950-decade, disasters were considered as natural phenomenon with a response basically centered in relief and reconstruction (rehabilitation) activities once the disaster had occurred. There was, however, a difference between how disasters affected developed and developing countries, with a significant lower impact of natural hazards on the former. During the following two decades, 50’s and 60’s, the approach to disasters was mainly influenced by their impact on economic growth, without reflection on individuals’ vulnerabilities or capabilities.

During these decades, poor countries were urged to develop themselves following the path of the richer ones, meaning adjusting their economies to growth economic policies, industrialization and other changes in economic structure that would bring, in theory, less dependency and stronger emergency response together with shorter reconstruction periods in case of disaster. The idea of disasters as natural phenomenon set in previous conceptualization of disaster management prevailed until

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the next decades, when a new dimension in the response to disasters, together with
the relief and reconstruction, appeared: preparedness.

New policies of economic development in the 1970’s and 1980’s considered economic
growth just one aspect of development in general, insisting that economic growth is
different from development. Economic development promotes the standard of living,
complementing economic health with other social, environmental and well-being
initiatives. Some authors at that moment, and particularly Amartya Sen with his
‘Entitlement theory’ 21, brought individuals into the focus and highlighted that natural
disasters are highly influenced by inequality (but also unequal economic relationships
among different national economies, which explains why disasters affects more
developing countries) and poverty within societies.

Those were the initial steps to come to the subsequent concept of vulnerability in the
later 1980’s, for better explaining why some parts of the population are more affected
by disasters than others, and this understanding paved way for a new phase in disaster
management: mitigation or prevention. At this stage of the XXth century, disaster
management comprises different temporal phases, and each of them with concrete
operational activities that involve: prevention, preparedness, response, recovery and
rehabilitation. This traditional disaster management approach was known as the Continuum
and it is represented with a temporal circle going through a sequence of
the five phases of action mentioned before 22.

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21 Amartya Sen contributed in 1980 to change the long prevalent paradigm of lack of availability of food
for a more comprehensive food security concept to explain why famines occurred, showing that is more
about food access than food supply. Some years later, Amartya Sen, in his book Development as
Freedom (2001), relates development to democratic processes focusing again on putting the individuals
in the centre of the discussion with two basic principles: participation in decision making processes and
opportunities for generation of individual capabilities. One main critic towards Sen’s theory is that, even
though his theory represents a break with dominant developmentalist thesis -particularly the neoliberal
position- it does not include the dynamics of power relations as cause of underdevelopment in the
analysis of Development (Navarro, 2000).

22 A quick overview to the scheme or figure of the Disaster management Continuum can be taken in the
‘Green Paper on Disaster Management’ website.
The introduction of the concept of vulnerability and the enlargement of the concept of hazard, in order to comprise not only natural phenomena but also social and man-made hazards, was the beginning of the Disaster Risk Management approach still being used today: the Contiguum model (also known as Expand-Contract model). Thus, the concept of vulnerability differs from poverty, only when those characteristics and relations affect negatively a person, a family or a community facing a particular hazard the risk becomes a disaster, independently from how poor they are. Actually, poverty is, of course, one of the main reasons for being vulnerable, not the only one though.\(^{23}\)

In that sense, disasters are not strictly natural processes but a result of certain characteristics of society and the relation among the different human groups that integrate it. If the Continuum model showed a sequence of actions where mitigation and preparedness precede a disaster while response, recovery and rehabilitation follow it, the humanitarian practice demonstrates that all those phases overlap each other in time. The Contiguum model evidences that all the activities, from mitigation to rehabilitation, run simultaneously but to a different extend according to the stage - before, during or after - of the disaster.\(^{24}\)

In the decade of 1990’s, once the concept of vulnerability was largely accepted for explaining the origin and consequences of disasters, a thought began to appear suggesting that no single human being should then have to suffer the effects of disasters. It is at that time when some international\(^{25}\) non-governmental organizations (INGOs) made popular the Rights-based approach, transforming into an obligation the right to development for all countries in the world. It is also in that decade, the International Decade for Natural Disaster Reduction (1990-1999), when the

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\(^{23}\) The main drivers of vulnerability from a DRR perspective are: rapid urbanization, rural poverty, ecosystem decline, weak economies, population growth and poor governance.

\(^{24}\) A quick overview to the scheme or figure of the Disaster management Contiguum can be taken in the ‘Green Paper on Disaster Management’ website.

\(^{25}\) Mainly British organizations like Amnesty International or Oxfam, among others.
International Strategy for Disaster Reduction moved forward definitely the emphasis on disaster response to disaster reduction, promoting a global culture of prevention.

The evolution of how to manage disaster risk since the 1990’s has centered then on DRR, which includes prevention, mitigation and preparedness, trying to minimize the vulnerabilities and promote coping capacities throughout society. On the other hand, response (relief) and recovery (reconstruction or rehabilitation) phases will take a major role in disaster management once the adverse impacts of hazard occur, meaning a disaster strikes. However, DRR actions also continue all along the response and recovery activities, playing a minor role, as they are part of the broad context of sustainable development.

In practice, nowadays, all those disaster risk management models described before are to a greater or lesser extent ‘living’ together, particularly the last three: the Continuum, Contiguum and the International Strategy for Disaster Reduction. But it is the latter that is being promoted by UNISDR, through its initiative the HFA, in collaboration with major donor agencies, national development agencies and INGOs. All these actors are now implicated both in the current deliberations on new
Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) after 2015 and the consultations for a new agenda, facilitated by UNISDR, to be in place once the HFA finishes its term by the end of 2015. The Hyogo Framework for Action 2 (HFA2) or post-2015 DRR framework will define the future of DRR and Resilience for the next decades and, therefore, the approach to disaster management.

2.2 Development of the Peacebuilding approach
In 1956, the first United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF I) was deployed in Egypt after the attack launched firstly by Israel and followed by France and the United Kingdom military forces due to the nationalization of the Suez Canal Company by the Egyptian government. UNEF represented at that time a change within the UN approach to conflict, it was not the traditional peace-enforcement operation, but a peacekeeping one carried out with the consent of the parties involved in the conflict. Its mandate was “to secure and supervise the cessation of hostilities, including the withdrawal of the armed forces of France, Israel and the United Kingdom from Egyptian territory and, after the withdrawal, to serve as a buffer zone between the Egyptian and Israeli forces and to provide impartial supervision of the ceasefire”.

However, it was not until the next decade, in the 1960’s, when the concept of peacebuilding appears as a method for resolving conflict and securing sustainable peace (Warnecke and Franke 2010, p.76). Johan Galtung distinguished three complementary approaches to conflict resolution: peacekeeping, peacemaking and peacebuilding. Peacekeeping is an approach to reduce destructiveness, while peacemaking involves mediation and negotiation for reconciliation of parties and opposing goals that initially spurred the conflict. Peacebuilding is the implementation of a long term peaceful social change of structural conflict causes and patterns, in all societal sectors, through socio-economic development (Galtung 1975, cited in Warnecke and Franke 2010, pp.76-77; and in Miall, Ramsbotham and Woodhouse 2011, p.238).

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Peacebuilding was fully integrated in the UN strategy in 1992 under Secretary General Boutros Boutros-Ghali in his ‘Agenda for Peace’, which stated,

“When conflict breaks out, mutually reinforcing efforts at peacemaking and peace-keeping come into play. Once these have achieved their objectives, only sustained, cooperative work to deal with underlying economic, social, cultural and humanitarian problems can place an achieved peace on a durable foundation. Preventive diplomacy is to avoid a crisis; post-conflict peacebuilding is to prevent a recurrence.” (Boutros-Ghali 1992, Section VI, Art. 57).

In 1995, United Nations Secretary General Boutros Boutros-Ghali, in his ‘Supplement to an Agenda for Peace’, expanded the concept of peacebuilding further to include preventive action because of the similarities between conflict prevention and peacebuilding activities. If peacebuilding has as purpose to prevent recurrence, there is no substantial difference with preventing conflict in its early stages, but just the moment when preventive actions take place, as it is shown in the following figure:

![Figure 4 Preventive actions during conflict and peacebuilding using the hourglass model](source)

*Figure 4 Preventive actions during conflict and peacebuilding using the hourglass model*

*Source: The figure is adapted from "The hourglass model: conflict containment, conflict settlement and conflict transportation", in Miall, Rhamsbotham and Woodhouse (2011, p.14)*
The next step in the development of peacebuilding is the year 2000 and the publication of the Brahimi Report, when United Nations acknowledged deficiencies in the way peacebuilding was conceived until that moment. The concept is redefined in the report as:

“activities undertaken on the far side of conflict to reassemble the foundations of peace and provide the tools for building on those foundations something that is more than just the absence of war. Thus, peace-building includes but is not limited to reintegrating former combatants into civilian society, strengthening the rule of law (for example, through training and restructuring of local police, and judicial and penal reform); improving respect for human rights through the monitoring, education and investigation of past and existing abuses; providing technical assistance for democratic development (...); and promoting conflict resolution and reconciliation techniques” (UN 2000, p.2).

Beyond the UN’s work on peacebuilding, there have been many other attempts to characterize peacebuilding that might be reduced to two conceptualizations, one narrow and another one broader. A narrow concept argues that peacebuilding should just prevent a recurrence of armed conflict, while the broader concept promotes transformation of society by reducing the vulnerabilities, addressing the root causes of conflict, building the capacities of society, and developing institutions to manage conflict (Wyeth 2011, p.1). Such distinction in the peacebuilding conceptualization might be comparable to the distinction between statebuilding, from a conflict resolution perspective, and peacebuilding, from a conflict transformation approach. Statebuilding refers to the reconstruction of self-sufficient and self-sustaining institutions of governance delivering essential public services and goods.

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29 Eduard Azar (1990), and other researchers in the field of conflict resolution, conveyed building state bodies and practices in order to reinforce governance that meets the basic needs of people to be a key to overcome protracted social conflicts. Azar notes that in protracted social conflict contexts the state tends to be dominated by one powerful minority group diminishing the state’s ability to meet human basic needs and, therefore, exacerbating already existing conflictive situations.
Peacebuilding is a wider concept that addresses structural conflict transformation, including a statebuilding vision, and cultural conflict transformation that particularly focuses on the root causes of conflict.

In 2007, UN Secretary-General’s Policy Committee launched a more comprehensive definition in an effort to bring together the two different conceptions of peacebuilding described earlier. In this definition, peacebuilding involves measures to reduce the possibility of relapsing into conflict by reinforcing national institutional capacities and to lay the basis for sustainable peace and development by addressing the vulnerabilities and strengthening the capacities of the society affected by conflict. According to the UN Peacebuilding Commission: "Peacebuilding strategies must be coherent and tailored to specific needs of the country concerned, based on national ownership, and should comprise a carefully prioritized, sequenced, and therefore relatively narrow set of activities aimed at achieving the [above] objectives."30

The evolution of conflict resolution since the 1990s, briefly shown in this section of the thesis, has been oriented from a peacebuilding model from below, a bottom-up approach. However, recent research leads to the realization that this approach, with local empowerment and the role of civil society and cultural values, may bring similar problematic as a top-down one. Local communities also grow inside power asymmetries and patriarchal and privilege customs, as much as external actors may be accused of it in the international arena. In summary, “there are, therefore, potential contradictions between international norms and values and the role of the state, on the one hand, and the ‘authenticity’ of peacebuilding from below, on the other, and this is reflected in many other post-conflict peacebuilding environments” (Miall, Ramsbotham and Woodhouse 2011, p.236).

30 The Peacebuilding Commission was established in 2005 as a consequence of the institutional gaps indentified in prior and on-going peacekeeping missions during the first half of the 2000’s plus the perceived failure of UN after the 2003 unilateral action from US in Iraq. Together with the Peacebuilding Commission another two units within the UN were created for better coordination of peacebuilding efforts: The Peacebuilding Fund and the Peacebuilding Support Office. http://www.un.org/en/peacebuilding/pbso/pbun.shtml (Accessed 2014-05-06).
These debates though advances new approaches of the future of peacebuilding, moving forward from both the dominant liberal peace theory⁴¹ and a statebuilding standpoint, towards what is called a transformative cosmopolitan model. This model defends global governance set up on a broad-based human rights agenda consistent with a bottom-up approach, having peace education as a key component. It is a creative combination of institutional-building and peacebuilding from below—a mid-term statebuilding approach with a long-term goal of peacebuilding and reconciliation—under a human rights agenda that avoids prescriptive international demands. The future of peacebuilding is however linked to the current deliberations on sustainable development with the post-2015 SDGs where challenges over climate change and food security may define and foster the UN capability in post-conflict contexts.

2.3 Complex emergencies

In the two preceding sections, a brief introduction to the evolution of DRR and peacebuilding strategies has been presented, distinguishing the type of strategies according to the origin of the hazards, the so called natural hazards and armed conflicts, the latter as a particular case of human-made hazards. Of course, the origin is not the only reason to make a difference between the two types of strategies, but also its implications in the society affected. There are other crises where the combination of natural and human-made disasters make them even more complex, “chronic or

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⁴¹ Liberal peace theory (also known as Democratic peace theory) proposes that democratic states do not engage in armed conflicts with other democracies, but also that democracies are more peaceful than other forms of government and that democratic development reinforces stability. The main principle of this policy is market democracy, meaning liberal polity for domestic affairs and a market-oriented economy. However, democracies might engage in armed conflict with other types of states either to protect their own interests/security or under the idea of transplanting western models of socio-political and economic organization to other countries for pacification purposes. This is particular the case after 9/11 with the military actions of US administration, and allies, in Iraq and Afghanistan when liberal peace was dominated by neo-liberalism and neo-conservatism ideologies. (Miall, Ramsbotham and Woodhouse 2011, p.223).


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complex crises feature the interaction of economic, ecological and political crisis factors and the combination of hunger, violence and displacement, and they complicate adequate response options on the part of the international community as well as the aid organizations” (Lieser, Padberg, Runge and Schmitz 2006, p.4).

Nevertheless, in many occasions, disasters are the result of various shocks from different types of hazards, or rather a complex combination of natural and human-made hazards with a very negative impact on the community, increasing the vulnerability at both individual and social level and decrease communities’ coping capacities. Complex emergencies are characterized by poor governance; extensive violence; large number of displacements; social and economic widespread damage; vital security risks and limited access of humanitarian relief workers to certain areas; and a need for a large scale humanitarian assistance, including civil and military assets.

Despite the prior multi-causal definition of complex emergency some authors argue that complex emergencies are actually political in nature,

“So called complex emergencies are essentially political in nature: they are protracted political crises resulting from sectarian or predatory indigenous responses to socioeconomic stress and marginalization. Unlike natural disasters, complex emergencies have a singular ability to erode or destroy the cultural, civil, political and economic integrity of established societies. They attack social systems and networks” (Duffield 1994, p.20).

International humanitarian aid has taken significant steps to introduce conflict-sensitivity tools, particularly during disasters response, in complex political settings, such as assessments, humanitarian codes, guidelines and community inclusiveness in all stages of DRR. While conventional approaches to measure vulnerability to natural hazards are likely to focus on a single hazard, vulnerability in complex emergencies is a dynamic process where different vulnerabilities intersect (Harries, Keen and Mitchell 2013). Vulnerability assessments that include conflict-sensitivity would help to understand the role of natural hazards in the dynamics of violence.
Humanitarian interventions in complex emergencies settings may in some occasion need the coordination between civil and military personnel and assets. Increasing concerns about security in those complex situations, particularly for humanitarian workers and the delivery of aid material, started blurring the line division between civil and military humanitarianism. Humanitarian organizations claim that aid is driven by military and political cooperation due to strategic interests. The growing involvement in recent years of military forces in delivering humanitarian aid, including no-conflict settings, is in detriment of aid’s effectiveness and cost-effectiveness (Oxfam 2011).

According to the European consensus on humanitarian aid, a better dialogue with other actors in response to emergencies requires clarification on the use of civil protection and military assets. Civil protection assets should only be used as an exception in complex emergencies, while military assets should only be used as a last resort under specific conditions and in very limited circumstances. A humanitarian operation making use of military assets have to remain under the overall authority and control of humanitarians, and must retain its civilian nature34.

Once introducing the problem of the thesis and stating the research questions, the background for the thesis in this chapter has defined the evolution of DRR approach in the last decades and a parallel development of peacebuilding strategies along the same period of time. This description of DRR and peacebuilding initiatives aimed to distinguish the two strategies in relation to the hazard causing the crisis, the latter approach due to natural disasters and the former to armed conflicts.

Nevertheless, in practice, that division is blurred because of multiple factors underlying vulnerability that gave way to the definition of complex emergencies and the interaction of economic, ecological and political crisis factors. In the next chapter, the theoretical framework holding the thesis is explained and some key definitions provided to better understand the further analysis.

3. A theoretical framework to link DRR and peacebuilding

Complex emergencies imply the interaction of many different factors, as mentioned in chapter 2, and, hence, require a comprehensive and wide response to the crisis. Such response is context driven but both conflict and disaster sensitive; independently what type of shock triggers the humanitarian response both provoked by a natural hazard or political violence, as well as linking humanitarian and development efforts. Actually, discrete initiatives on DRR should include a peacebuilding point of view, and vice versa.

There is existing research available on integrating the two perspectives but still very limited, and there is no common framework, except for the efforts of the disaster diplomacy thesis (Yim, Callaway, Fares and Ciottone 2009), which is defined later on in this chapter. Multiple interactions exist between natural disasters and armed conflicts, regarding the effects they could incite to each other, and there is no single solution to reduce their consequences on human beings. Response will depend on many different factors. However, an integrated framework for responding to complex emergencies should focus on reconciliation and rebuilding the relationships with a time frame going from crisis intervention to a desired future (Lederach 1997, pp.79-84).

Building peace in such contexts brings us back to Galtung’s conceptualization of violence (direct, structural and cultural violence triangle) and peace: “this triangular syndrome of violence should then be contrasted in the mind with a triangular syndrome of peace” (Galtung 1990, p.302), with cultural, structural, and direct peace. Assuming that working or responding to one of the triangle corners will bring a change to the other ones is not enough. The response should look into all the three corners for reaching a stable peace: from the most immediate and direct effects of violence, through the institutionalised violence as well as the legitimization of violence. Galtung conceived negative peace as the absence of violence and positive peace as the integration of human society, the first one to cease violence while the second to prevent violence to occur.
The article by Davidson and Foa (1991) states that epidemiological research after catastrophes, extreme violence or war, shows an increase in psychological symptoms of among 25-40% of the people affected. The more intense the disaster or violence, the more symptoms appear among victims. It means, therefore, that the psychosocial impact of disasters and armed conflicts could be huge and destroy the social fabric of the communities affected by human and material losses, and distress. Building back the relationships and social fabric is challenging and a long term process, a ‘desired future’ difficult to reach, and it implies a variety of actions to be taken in order to repair the social trauma.

In summary, there is a causality relation between factors like poverty, inequality and poor governance as well as vulnerability to natural disasters and development of armed conflicts. A connection between disasters and conflicts exists, affecting mutually each other. Hence, this thesis focuses on how DRR efforts prove to become a contribution, not only in peacemaking but also considering a long perspective, in peacebuilding. The theoretical foundations to demonstrate the main argument of the thesis are the following: Lederach’s integrated framework and conflict sustainable transformation, Galtung’s conceptualization of violence and peace, disaster diplomacy thesis, and a psychosocial approach for rebuilding the social fabric.

A glossary with the definitions of the main concepts used in this thesis is in appendix 1, at the end of the document. Next sections of this chapter present a brief introduction to the basis of the theoretical background sustaining the subsequent analysis to be developed in next chapter.

3.1 Violence and peace

Johan Galtung suggests that conflict is the combination of three components which all have to be present in a conflict: contradiction (or incompatibility of goals between the

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3 Other authors criticize the psychological western approach to catastrophes for becoming an increasingly ‘medicalized’ humanitarian aid community, which abuses of Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) diagnosis while eclipsing local coping strategies. Western-based interventions do not take always into account that some of the psychological symptoms are normal in early stages of the disaster, considered even adaptation mechanisms, and that “the construction of populations as suffering from mass trauma is leading to their disqualification from self-government.” (Pupavac 2001, p.4)
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parties involved in the conflict), attitudes (parties’ perceptions of each other and lead by emotions of fear, anger and hatred), and behavior (which in conflicts is described by threats, coercion and destructiveness).

On top of that, in Galtung’s theory, violence is formed by three dimensions: direct (physical or psychological violence that hurts or cause direct damage), structural (when a social structure or institution prevents people from meeting their basic needs or developing their full potential, and it is linked to social injustice) and cultural (any aspect of a culture that can justify violence in its direct or structural form). Based on this conception of violence, conflict can end up changing the behavior (ending direct violence), removing structural contradictions or injustice (ending structural violence), and changing common attitudes that legitimize cultural violence.

The terms peace and violence are linked to each other. Galtung (1969) considered two aspects of peace: negative peace as the absence of direct violence and positive peace as the integration of human society overcoming the causes of structural and cultural violence. This conceptualization on conflict, violence and peace leads to different conflict resolution responses:

- **Peacemaking** enforces conflict settlement through negotiation or mediation among the parties of the conflict attempting to reach an acceptable agreement.
- **Peacekeeping** refers to conflict containment and limitation of direct violence.

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**Figure 5 Galtung’s models of conflict, violence and peace**

Source: Adapted from Miall, Ramsbotham and Woodhouse 2011, p.10
Peacebuilding is understood as conflict transformation addressing structural and cultural violence to create sustainable peace through peace management, peace education and conflict resolution.

### 3.2 Conflict Transformation

John Paul Lederach’s model of conflict resolution and conflict transformation emphasizes a bottom-up approach, giving to middle-level actors, between grassroots leaders and the elite (top leaders), a bridge-role to link the other two. Lederach further proposes to engage with grassroots actors such as local communities and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) as well as international actors and organizations in order to accomplish conflict transformation.

![Lederach's pyramid on leadership](image)

**Figure 6 Lederach’s pyramid on leadership**

Source: Lederach 1999 p.39

Lederach’s integrated framework for building peace also implies, apart from the involvement and recognition of middle-level leaders, a social change. Such social change is a long-term process to be designed in decades. Considering that the time frame for responding to humanitarian disasters is different than the one for building peace, any intervention should connect to the long term process of sustainable peace and social change.
There is a third element in an integrated peace-building framework, a conflict resolution approach must address the root causes of conflict, hence to tackle and heal the relationships and structures underlying the conflict. Lederach stresses the need to engage, in the process of sustainable peace, different levels of actors and provide a space for encounters to all of them, including the conflicting parties, to articulate the pain and share an interdependent future. In that sense, facilitating dialogue is very important just like mechanisms to improve coordination, communication and collaboration between all actors as part of peacebuilding programmes.

3.3 Disaster Diplomacy

Disaster Diplomacy examines the influence of disaster-related activities on reducing conflict and investigates how and why disaster-related activities do or do not induce cooperation amongst enemies (Kelman 2012). There is not yet sufficient evidence available on what is the weight of disasters and disaster activities in reducing conflict and inducing cooperation but some trends may start to be explicable.

However, new understanding based on case studies have allowed researchers to elaborate on those trends leading to a predictive model indicating in which way disaster diplomacy will manifest in a conflict context or will not. One leading information source on his topic is the Disaster Diplomacy website that identifies three outcomes of recent Disaster Diplomacy work:

- In a short-term, weeks or months, disaster-related activities can, but do not always, impact diplomacy.
- Over the long-term, years, non-disaster factors have a more significant impact on diplomacy than disaster-related activities.
- Disaster-related activities sometimes can exacerbate conflict and reduce diplomacy.

Another information from Disaster Diplomacy research is that, from a political perspective, disaster-related activities are not a priority in conflicts or in the aftermath

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36 Most of the research in the field of Disaster Diplomacy might be found in the following website: http://www.disasterdiplomacy.org/index.html (Accessed 2014-05-14).

37 Ibid.
of conflict. Yet other authors consider that disasters can produce a positive momentum for conflict resolution “because governments faced with the demand for effective disaster relief have incentives to offer concessions to separatist challengers” (Kreutz 2012, p.482). As it has been mentioned above, Disaster Diplomacy looks at how disaster-related activities affect diplomacy rather than how diplomacy in conflict or post-conflict environments may shape disaster-related activities.

Finally, concerning to connections between disasters and conflicts, Streich and Mislan (2013) found, after a review of literature on disasters and international cooperation three significant findings:

- Disasters generally do not lead to the initiation of conflict.
- Disasters generally do not lead to new cooperative processes between conflicting parties.
- Disasters can catalyze or reinforce existing rapprochement processes between conflict-prone dyads.

### 3.4 Differences between security, safety and protection

This section intends to distinguish three concepts that are quite often mentioned in both disasters and conflicts related studies but that could seem confusing as they have similar meaning and are used interchangeably. For example, safety is sometimes defined in terms of security and the reverse, or protection is included in both security and safety. Indeed, in some languages there is only one word to refer to safety and security, like ‘seguridad’ in Spanish.

However, nowadays, particularly since the 1990’s with several terrorist attacks in rich western countries and worldwide media coverage of disasters, security has become much more present in our society, somehow blurring and absorbing the other two: safety and protection. Because of a mix between morality and mass publicizing in the media, a death due to murder receives more attention than death for example due to
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an accident, or home and leisure-based accidents or suicide. Furthermore, due to what has been mentioned above, the more prominence is given to terrorist attacks and other violent-related news in the mass media leading to the adoption of diverse policies on security homeland by most governments in the world.

The confusion among the three concepts concerns the humanitarian sphere as well. There are several reports referring not only to the blurring lines between civil and military humanitarian aid, but also the increasing concentration of humanitarian and development aid on countries and regions where donors consider their own security interests threaten (Oxfam 2011, Ferreiro 2012, or Duffield 1994). Those reports raise concerns about the quality of the humanitarian aid delivered, the disproportionate role of the military forces, the safety of civilian humanitarian workers, and shift of funds from humanitarian and development aid towards national security interests (Streich and Mislan 2013, p.5).

The debate on civil military relations in complex emergencies includes a wide range of issues. Civil-military cooperation (CIMIC) has been described as referring “to any interface between the military and civilian actors to achieve military objectives. As such, it is broader than the precise interface between military and humanitarian actors. Furthermore, it suggests humanitarian action is subordinate to the military and has as a result been resisted by humanitarian actors” (Lilly 2002, p.6). Civil-Military cooperation has today different interpretations, one from the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) similar to the definition from Lilly, and another narrower one.

38 The worldwide average figures of mortality rates are much larger for home and leisure-based accidents than manslaughter and murder, or road traffic accidents, or by accidents at work, “there is a striking difference in the appreciation of human life depending on the development of the country in question. The most highly developed countries therefore set the highest social standards of personal safety.” (Analysis of accident mortality in Spain and worldwide (2) by Francisco Martinez Garcia in http://www.mapfre.com/fundacion/html/revistas/gerencia/n105/english_02.html (Accessed 2014-05-19). On the other hand, the number of suicide deaths in countries as for example in Spain 2007 was close to deaths due to road accidents. In 2012, the number of deaths linked to suicides was over ten times the number of homicides according to the Spanish National Statistics Institute.
from UN that considers CIMIC to be merely the interaction between military and humanitarian actors.\(^{39}\)

Coming back to the definition of the three concepts in question, and searching a variety of different sources and dictionaries\(^{40}\), one can conclude that the definitions are very similar, especially between security and safety. Protection refers to the act of protecting or the condition of being protected. In the humanitarian field this translates to protection being strongly linked to monitoring Human Rights including protection strategies of human rights activists and accompaniment of communities affected by human rights abuse, as well as providing legal advice to the same. While the public dimension of safety refers to the health, safety, and social stability of communities by making sure that services such as law enforcement, fire prevention, personal and facility security, disaster preparedness, and emergency medical assistance are available and provided.\(^{41}\)

As it has been shown, the primary definitions of safety and security are very similar: the condition or state of being free from harm, risk or danger, but when looking more into the meaning of the words, there are some differences which are important to detail.\(^{42}\)

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\(^{39}\) As it is reported in the Oslo Guidelines, the UN humanitarian civil-military coordination in natural disasters critical areas for coordination include security, logistics, medical, transportation, and communications.

\(^{40}\) The following search engines allows visitors to look for one term in several dictionaries at once.  

\(^{41}\) From ASIS International, Advancing Security Worldwide, an on-line glossary.  

\(^{42}\) Most of the academic research found regarding this issue is related to computer or industrial sectors and the transfer of those outcomes to the thesis is limited. Therefore, the information on how security and safety is understood in this thesis has been selected from various sources: Albrechtsen, E. (2003). Security vs safety. Notat skrevet for videreutdanningskurset Security - analyse og ledelse.
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- Safety is protection against hazards (risk towards health and lives, environment, properties and business), such as random or unwanted accidents. It entails the protection of people and environment and safety of facilities and activities against risks. The condition here is being protected. Safety science is related to the health and well being of people at work and in other activities. Hazards are part of the nature of the place where they shock. Safety incidents are related to death of people, damage of the environment and production loss. Safety is less relevant, popular or accepted than security among people. Lack of safety is seldom malicious, if ever.

- Security is protection against threats, intended or planned incidents which can always be tracked down to humans (criminal activities like terrorism, theft or espionage). The condition is being free from danger. Today the field of security stretches from the individual to national questions like financial crime, information protection, burglary and espionage among others. Threats can be external or internal. The concept of security introduces in society a high degree of uncertainty about threats. Insecurity is caused mostly by malicious acts (see the graphic below).

![Safety and Security Diagram](image)

In summary, the main differences between safety and security are the intent to do harm and the protection against hazards (safety) and threats (security). This can help to better understand the relationship between safety and security, "such that a weakness in security creates increased risk, which in turn creates a decrease in safety. So safety and security are directly proportional, but are both inversely proportional to

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Author: J. Alfonso Lozano Basanta
risk. While this may all seem elementary, understanding the relationship between safety and security is very important to understanding how to integrate the two” (Byres and Cusimano 2010, p.14).

3.5 Psychosocial Approach: changing attitudes

Broadly seen, communities and individuals affected by natural disaster or armed conflict follow similar psychological and social patterns, during and immediately after the shock, while other aspects are contextually, culturally or ethnically oriented. Most of those patterns are considered normal symptoms or reactions in catastrophic circumstances, and only few severe individual cases may need early clinical treatment of acute stress reactions and psychiatric pathology. Looking to those reactions as a normal process, implementing a psychosocial or community based approach can actually strengthen the local initiatives and support the local knowledge for re-building or re-structuring the social fabric after a disaster, either natural or human-made.

Nevertheless, when a society makes common use of violence for solving not only serious problems but also ordinary difficulties, social relationships are then fully disrupted in that society. In such situation, implementing only a psychosocial program will certainly not be enough. Working for a new living conditions framework, a new social contract, is urgent in order to rebuild the relationships and promoting mutual complementarities to look for solutions towards common problems (Martín-Baró 1990). However, in such circumstances, a more comprehensive collective psychosocial strategy that includes also solidarity, sharing and caring should be part of daily resistance to violence, promoting that kind of activism, exploring the attitudes leading to violence and, therefore, the required social change.

43 Those patterns are critical after a catastrophe as they could influence negatively the following recovery both of individuals and community: fear; confusion; grief; loss of references; rupture of the social fabric; organizational disruptions; lack of means; physical and psychological tiredness; the institutional, society and international response; traumatising the people affected and the survivors-victims dyad (Pérez-Sales 2002, pp.11-12).

44 Pupavac (2001) criticizes international psychosocial responses that traumatise or victimise the population affected, especially refugees, by the armed conflict in Kosovo in the late 1990’s. At the same time, she suggests that such psychosocial intervention represents a new mode of external governance.
Both clinical -or therapeutic- and psychosocial -or community based- approaches are therefore considered complementary (Pérez-Sales 2002). As well as a top-down and bottom-up combined approach can complement each other, empowering public institutions, re-adapting policies to context needs, boosting mobilization and offering community support give individual and communal sense of control over one’s life (Rivera et al 2008). Different relevant international guidelines exist for planning and implementing psychosocial interventions during emergency response, among them, the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC) Guidelines on Mental Health and Psychosocial Support in Emergency Settings.

The IASC Guidelines promote a multi-layered supports model that meet the needs of different groups of the population (IASC 2007). A mental health and psychosocial response in emergencies encompasses four layers which are indicated in the next figure:

![Intervention pyramid for mental health and psychosocial support in emergencies](image)

- Re-establishment of security, adequate governance and addressing basic services;
- Access to community and family supports, including livelihood activities and the activation of social networks;
Focused individual, family or group interventions by trained and supervised workers and/or by primary health care workers;

Specialized services for a small percentage of the population who is suffering significant difficulties in basic daily functioning.

Reconstruction of the social fabric demands to pay attention to the dignity of the people affected by the natural disaster or armed conflict or any other political or economical violence. Such reconstruction needs all institutions to be involved reinforcing the process of building a sense of citizenship, the social contract. It implies the inclusion and participation of all parties without political or military manipulation of the process (Lozada 2001, p.16). Psychosocial interventions within the framework of a peacebuilding programme can provide the knowledge and skills for understanding conflict and bring the consciousness to push forward a social change.

3.6 Sustainable Conflict Transformation framework

In chapter two, in the description of the evolution of the peacebuilding approach, the importance of linking security and development in peacebuilding programmes for a sustainable peace was illustrated. Warnecke and Franke (2010) realize that, despite the importance of the link between security and development, “there has not been any systematic analysis of the contributions of development actors to post-conflict reconstruction and sustained peacebuilding” (Warnecke and Franke 2010, p.71). That is the reason why they suggest an analytical framework for assessing those contributions: Sustainable Conflict Transformation (SCT) model.

The primary focus of the UN peacebuilding engagement in post-conflict countries during the 1990’s was the establishment of democratic institutions and holding elections as soon as the environment allowed it. In many occasions a relapse into violence occurred because of the neglect of some social groups, which were not part of the conflicting parties, and a patent lack of local ownership in the peace process existed. The need for including a bottom-up approach and the application of a social
capital conception\textsuperscript{45} to peacebuilding became evident to ensure a wide support of the civil society. Therefore, the engagement of development interventions becomes important already in the early stages of the aftermath of the conflict, to avoid a relapse into violence. Such interventions should address structural conflict causes in the mid-term perspective. This would support the promotion of a sustainable peace, already at the beginning of a peacemaking process following an armed conflict.

The SCT model follows a conceptualization of sustainable peacebuilding based on building social capital through three dimensions: infrastructures, relationships, and identity/conflict attitudes. The implementation timeline is divided in three phases: initial response or short term stabilization (3-12 months), transformation (1-3 years), and sustainability (up to 10 years post-conflict). In addition, the SCT model considers peacebuilding as a comprehensive concept, “as the sum of all measures undertaken as part of the peace process in support of building local, social, political and economic capacities in order to create and maintain social and institutional structures that will help prevent the relapse into violent conflict” (Warnecke and Franke 2010, p.83). The model is then divided in four sectors according to the four capacity areas compiling the central measures or activities carried out as part of the peace process: security, governance, justice, and social and economic well-being.

According to Warnecke and Franke, the SCT framework facilitates to classify development activities and projects in relation to their relevance and contribution to a specific peacebuilding process. The model can equally be used to assess projects with regards to the four peacebuilding sectors, but also to identify possible gaps in a specific post-conflict setting.

3.7 Conclusion

This chapter has provided a wide theoretical background for the following analysis of the links between DRR and peacebuilding programmes. There is a first half of the chapter mainly dedicated to peace and conflict conceptualization, supported by the

\textsuperscript{45}Social capital is conceived here as “anything that facilitates individual or collective action, generated by networks of relationships, reciprocity, trust, and social norms” (Warnecke and Franke 2010, p.79).
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work of Galtung, Lederach and the Disaster Diplomacy theories. This part provided the foundation to understand the components of violence leading to conflict escalation and, at the same time, the mechanisms that can transform conflict into sustainable peace. The contributions and capacities of different sectors of a society, together with more development oriented initiatives, contribute to avoid a relapse into violence and open a window of opportunities to reinforce the peace process as well. Disaster Diplomacy looks into those opportunities, paying specific attention to the mutual links and relations between disasters and conflict.

The second part of the chapter offers a varied scope of theoretical background to justify why DRR has a role to play within the peacebuilding programmes. In that sense, a differentiation between the concepts of safety, security and protection indicates a path for DRR and DRM to find a place where to fit among the different initiatives and actors involved in building sustainable peace. However, there is no place for a strategy among the peacebuilding measures that is not at the same time building social capital and facilitating a change of attitudes. Social relationships are the basis not only for reaching a conflict but also for its long-term solution (Lederach 1997). The psychosocial and community based approaches must be cross-cutting issues to all peacebuilding initiatives and the SCT model can help to assess the future contributions of DRR to peacebuilding programmes.

A glossary with the main concepts underlying this thesis to facilitate a common understanding of the whole logical process is in appendix 1.

Based on the theoretical framework shown in this chapter, the next one is analyzing the possibilities and limitations of DRR contributions to peacebuilding processes. How DRM could contribute, at the community level as well as institutional level, for supporting governance and participation. It will also look at how DRR can contribute to security and public order but using a safety and protection lens. Following the SCT model criteria the analysis is further looking at, from a more theoretical aspect, the input that DRR can have for building social capital and support the re-construction of the social fabric through the infrastructure, relationship and attitude dimensions.
4. Linking Peacebuilding and Disaster Risk Reduction

The findings from the Disaster Diplomacy theory demonstrate that the relation between natural disasters and conflicts does not follow a simple and straightforward logic and that there are many other factors involved. Disaster Diplomacy theory has some limitations for this particular thesis as it mainly focuses on disaster-related response activities when a natural disaster strikes in an armed conflict area. A DRR approach is much wider than only direct response or relief and can be implemented in any kind of setting, even if a disaster did not occur.

Considering that conflict has an overall adverse impact on natural hazards’ shock or risk (UNDP 2011), another limitation is that Disaster Diplomacy theory does not take into consideration how diplomacy in conflict or post-conflict environments may shape disaster-related activities which is closer to the main argument of this thesis. The research question here is how DRR efforts can contribute to building sustainable peace in post-conflict contexts. It implies introducing a DRR approach in existing peacebuilding strategies, particularly in disaster-prone countries and preferably before a disaster occurs, not only once the disaster has hit the country in question.

However, there are other conclusions Disaster Diplomacy theory provides that are relevant for the purpose of the thesis:

- disaster-related activities are not a priority in conflicts or the aftermath of conflict,
- disasters can produce a positive momentum for conflict resolution,
- disasters can catalyze existing rapprochement between conflict parties.

When a natural disaster collides with an on-going conflict, experience shows exactly how complex and context driven the consequences are. For instance, the impact of the tsunami in Sri Lanka and Indonesia “demonstrates this strikingly. Both countries faced protracted conflicts, and were affected by the 2004 tsunami and the overwhelming international response to cope with it. In fact, the disaster response in Aceh contributed to resolving the long conflict between the Free Aceh Movement (GAM)
and the national Government. In Sri Lanka, the response made tensions worse between the Tamil Tigers and the national Government” (UNDP 2011, p.8).

In the definition of peacebuilding provided by the UN Secretary General’s Policy Committee included in appendix 1, there are few relevant elements for introducing a relationship between peacebuilding and DRR: to reduce the risk of relapsing into conflict; strengthening national capacities at all levels for conflict management; and peacebuilding strategies must be coherent and tailored to the specific needs of the country concerned with a strong focus on national ownership.

As previously discussed, many developing countries experience both natural disasters and armed conflict, even at the same time. Conflicts and disasters have a negative impact on development and increase vulnerability. The effects of that interaction “creates and perpetuates vulnerabilities that place communities at risk, further entrenching poverty and inequality” (UNDP 2011, p.7). For those reasons, this thesis argues that synergies between peacebuilding and DRR must receive greater attention for supporting the transformation of conflict into sustainable peace, strengthening the process of social change, and enhancing communities’ resilience, especially in complex emergencies facing both natural disasters and armed conflict.

The definition of DRR includes both community and institutional based components when considering prevention, mitigation and preparedness activities to avoid or limit the adverse impacts of hazards throughout a society, minimizing the vulnerabilities and disaster risks through administrative directives, policies, plans and strategies (governance). DRM is more operational but includes as well an institutional based component linked to technical knowledge and management to adverse the possibility of disaster, and specialized operational skills in response and recovery phases.

Many efforts have already been implemented to make progress in promoting the community to participate in DRR programmes, as they are often the first responders to a catastrophe, and, at national level, with introducing the participation of different actors in DRR policies design. However, an important institutional gap has been identified, even though some initiatives are on-going in the DRR field regarding the
central role of local governance in DRM, “a failure to strengthen local governments and make progress in community participation means that the gap between rhetoric and reality is widening” (UNISDR 2011, p.91).

The wide community component of DRR matches with the grassroots and relational components of peacebuilding, supporting local structures and relationships that will strengthen and consolidate peace. And the institutional component of DRR crosscuts the key areas of peacebuilding, offering protection to the general population as well as personal safety in the event of disaster. DRR is thus a cross-cutting issue for sustainable development, hence a relevant element for achieving sustainable peace in post-conflict settings, and even more in those countries where armed conflict and natural disaster might interact.

The importance of the type of context and level of national ownership for the success of peacebuilding initiatives is high and it characterizes the priority areas for UN’s support to peacebuilding efforts: basic security and safety; support to political processes; provision of basic services; restoring core government functions; and economic revitalization (Wyeth 2011, p.9). The activities involved in those five key areas are included in the four sectors of the UN peacebuilding programmes: Security and Public Order; Justice and Reconciliation; Governance and Participation; Social and Economic well-being.

The following are some examples on how DRR activities could crosscut and contribute specifically in each of the sectors of the UN peacebuilding programmes:

- In the Security and Public Order sector, making a distinction between security and safety as considered in the previous chapter. A DRR approach may prevent discontents brought about by the risk impact and insecurity conveyed by disasters, and improve people’s protection from a safety perspective, by creating or reinforcing emergency services with a civil vocation. Separating safety activities from the actions of military bodies or security forces could also support reducing the social tension.
In the Justice and Reconciliation sector, the reconstruction or reinforcement of an institutional and legislative system for DRR at the national level can facilitate local processes for reconciliation through the reconstruction of relationship networks and improving social integration in the resettlement of displaced people and ex-combatants through promoting solutions towards common risks. Another example is to include a DRR perspective in community and individual compensations or reparations to victims in the frame of a Transitional Justice process.

In the Governance and Participation sector, building the capacity of staff at national and local governments on defining and implementing policies and plans with a DRR approach can support to reduce vulnerabilities and increase resilience. Furthermore, inclusive participation in urban planning or food security programmes will support to decrease the risk of disaster and, in parallel, to create early warning systems and local civil protection institutions with special training to alert and support communities in case of disaster are ways of promoting both resilience and safety and strengthen community relations.

In the Social and Economic Well-Being sector, making public buildings like schools and hospitals safer by new construction or retrofitting existing buildings with a DRR perspective enhances resilience and can improve service delivery at the same time. Programs and support to expanding income generating options in rural areas based on disaster risk assessments to reduce dependence on single crops or raising awareness and introducing education programmes with local knowledge to change perceptions of risk and vulnerability, and re-building the social fabric and trust through community-based risk analysis are ways of using a DRR perspective for improving well-being before and after disasters and conflicts.

Those are just few examples of how DRR could establish linkages and encourage common synergies with peacebuilding programmes. As also shown in these examples, both DRR and peacebuilding keep strong bonds with development initiatives, in that

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As an example, the transfer of land to veterans from the civil war, both ex-combatants from the guerrilla and the army, in El Salvador as the result of the peace accords in 1992. The Bajo Lempa is a flood-prone area, mostly inhabited until that moment, high potentially productive but where people live still today in poor environmental, economic and social conditions.
way development could be seen as a bridge between building peace and reducing the impact of disasters. Development interventions, implemented with DRR and conflict sensitivity, could connect with the prevention of disaster and conflict initiatives, and reduce risks and, therefore, social tensions. In short, sponsoring the coordination between DRR and peacebuilding initiatives and create synergies to address better the common causes of their onset such as poor governance, inequalities, displacement, environmental mismanagement, or livelihood degradation would improve a sustainable development.

4.1 Other synergies between DRR and Peacebuilding

There are other synergies between DRR and Peacebuilding due to their preventive components, the former to lessen or mitigate disaster risks and the latter to avoid relapsing into violence again. Those synergies are due to, on one side, the psychosocial component of DRR and, on the other, the differences between safety and security articulated in the previous chapter. The interrelation between DRR and Peacebuilding is a step taken towards the implementation of human security.47

In different preceding sections of this thesis the participatory and community-based components of DRR during risks assessments; contingency planning and distribution of roles in the community for implementation of DRR measures have been mentioned. Those actions need to be complemented with a training or capacity building element, jointly with awareness of and education in DRR. All those activities contain of course specific goals on DRR but they are also, at the same time building social capital capacity and relationships.


“We know that lasting peace requires a broader vision encompassing areas such as education and health, democracy and human rights, protection against environmental degradation, and the proliferation of deadly weapons. We know that we cannot be secure amidst starvation, that we cannot build peace without alleviating poverty, and that we cannot build freedom on foundations of injustice. These pillars of what we now understand as the people-centered concept of ‘human security’ are interrelated and mutually reinforcing.”
In that sense, DRR is a dynamic process bringing people to come together and start a dialogue around issues that all of them have in common in the community. Such relationships and networks are framed into emotional and psychological aspects of disasters but not specifically of conflict. But the logic of saving lives and assets by combined and coordinated action inherent to the DRR approach can be a powerful motivation to discuss other issues related to the conflict. Nevertheless the change in focus from violence to protection modifies the concept introduced by Lederach of ‘reconciliation-as-encounter’ to become a complementary one of ‘encounter-as-reconciliation’.

Sensitization on DRR and awareness raising will bring people together to discuss about the risks they face, “first, meeting others and building relationships is an important step in the individual healing process. Second, sustained dialogue processes help reduce tension, stereotyping, out group discrimination and negative attribution” (Hamber, Gallagher and Ventevogel 2014, p.10-11). That is an essential part of reconciliation, building trust and regenerating the social fabric, and the initial steps towards sustainable peace because “foster cooperative interaction that helps previously antagonistic groups build relationships [...] to gain a better understanding of the past, and in turn build a better understanding of the other” (Hamber, Gallagher and Ventevogel 2014, p.11).

Introducing a difference between safety and security, emphasising the civilian factor of safety, initiates a shift in the use of armed bodies like the army or police for emergency services providing specialised support to communities and instead promoting civil protection. This approach underlines a team building element with a civilian basis in the community and at local institutional level. The team approach and linking community with local institutions are other elements to achieve reconciliation and trust building. It can lead to a change in attitudes towards security and governance institutions added by introducing DRR in Peacebuilding programmes.

DRR focus on protecting communities and individuals from risks and responds to their needs through empowerment in dealing with natural hazards, and addressing their
vulnerabilities in any context, including complex emergencies. The concepts of safety and protection under DRR involve many actors, not only governments and security forces like in a more traditional security approach.

Personal safety is essential for sustainable development and peace “and must be at the forefront of all protection work. Prioritizing personal safety in violent conflict and disaster gives very clear protection goals in any humanitarian programming and allows us to measure progress against them” (Slim and Bonwick 2005, p.30). The contribution of DRR to Peacebuilding gets closer to the concept of human security bringing a people-centered approach to the traditional state-centered one more common in Peacebuilding programmes.

But due to lack of evidence about initiatives linking DRR to peacebuilding programmes or how development measures contribute to peacebuilding efforts of transforming conflict, making use of a comprehensive analysis of the contribution of DRR initiatives to the overall peacebuilding efforts is required. The SCT model described in the previous chapter and created by Warnecke and Franke (2010) is a good framework to measure the possible effect of DRR activities within a peacebuilding strategy. Then, in theory, a SCT analysis of the DRR activities into specific peacebuilding missions, concretely in those countries where disasters and conflicts collide, will show the relevance of such strategy and fulfillment of the gaps from a ‘security-only’ approach, as it has been defined security in this thesis. As Warnecke and Franke indicate, and in line with this thesis argument, this would be “an innovative and integrative strategy bringing together a wide range of actors [...] for promoting peace and improving the living conditions for the most vulnerable groups” (2010, p.88).

Finally, to mention that a DRR contribution to peacebuilding is not only because of the perspective of reducing disaster risks and enhancing resilience, but also its operational and managerial aspects included in DRM.
4.2 The key areas of Peacebuilding and Disaster Risk Management

A comprehensive DRM programme includes structural (i.e. public works) and non-structural (i.e. public safety) practices for reducing risks. In the aftermath of armed conflicts large part of the infrastructure is normally destroyed and communities became more vulnerable. In those countries where conflict and disaster overlap, introduction of DRM within the peacebuilding sectors provides an opportunity for ‘Building Back Better’, that is to take into account existing risks and preventing new risks during the reconstruction (‘Do not harm’) making use of both structural and non-structural measures.

Another characteristic in common for DRM and peacebuilding programmes, which may facilitate the connection between the two of them, is the temporal phases they comprised during operations. The following table shows the correspondence between peacebuilding operations and DRM phases.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Peacebuilding operations</th>
<th>DRM (after disaster)</th>
<th>Timing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stabilization phase</td>
<td>Relief</td>
<td>3 to 12 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transition phase</td>
<td>Recovery</td>
<td>1 to 3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consolidation phase</td>
<td>Development (DRR)</td>
<td>Up to 10 years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table The correspondence between peacebuilding operations and Disaster Risk Management phases

The phases are not sequential but nested, tasks are initiated at the same time having a view on to the long term and sustainability of the actions targeting in parallel institutional (national and local) and community levels.

4.2.1 Community-based Disaster Risk Management

The effects of armed conflict on a country are devastating for the society as a whole, including public structures, the economy and political institutions. Natural disasters interacting with armed conflict worsen even more the situation. Some of those effects are not tangible like the destruction of the social capital and relationship networks, the fear and distrust. Slow-onset disasters with not big damages, but recurrent occurrence, intensify in a mid-term already existing vulnerabilities as much as do destructive rapid-onset disasters.
Communities\textsuperscript{48} are directly affected by natural disasters and armed conflict, and they are, on one hand, the first responders when a disaster occurs and, on the other, have to build coping mechanisms to deal with violence and insecurity. However, armed conflicts deeply destroy the communities’ social fabric and bring distrust among their members, who often stay in the middle of the conflicting parties’ sides with reduced options to take a stand, apart from migrating. State structures are fragile, with no will or capacity to cover the basic needs neither the provision of minimum services nor the preservation of security and human rights of the people, which creates mistrust between communities and the government as well.

Anyhow, communities also preserve the local knowledge necessary for managing risks. Even in overwhelming circumstances with wide-ranging needs and growing vulnerabilities that weaken them, communities prove to be resilient and finally re-emerge. Strengthening the local institutions and individuals capacities by addressing their needs and giving them back the control through inclusive participation and management over decisions is best addressed through community based programs and actions.

Community-based approach has been adopted in peacebuilding programmes as well for transforming conflictive relationships into sustainable peace. Possible activities at community level in peacebuilding programmes might be related to socioeconomic recovery, traditional justice and reconciliation or security, among others (Haider 2009). A community-based DRM can contribute to peacebuilding initiatives with its participatory nature for designing risks assessments and community contingency planning.

There is a psychosocial component implicit in DRM providing a safe space for discussion and interaction around issues affecting the whole community and where each member has a role to play. The focus moves from previous distrust during conflict to trust towards the other members for reducing the risks faced by the community as a whole. It promotes a change in perceptions of risk and vulnerability, through

\textsuperscript{48} Community is referred in this thesis as rural and peri-urban villages, and urban slums.
participatory assessment and capacity building on DRR, which can also result in behavior and, afterwards, attitudinal changes, as perceptions can hinder or favour communities from embracing poverty reduction strategies.

While some topics might be difficult to tackle in the aftermath of conflict, DRM is a common ground for the community with less negative connotations. It opens the dialogue to disaster behaviors, which are in some aspects close to conflict behaviors guided by fear and insecurity, and promotes the understanding about safety and common solving problems. It promotes cooperation and team working activities, which can reduce stereotypes and prejudice “and set a precedent for peaceful and constructive management of local disputes” (Haider 2009, p.5)

Among the types of community-based approaches for peacebuilding where community-based DRM gives and added value is security. One common activity in peacebuilding is bringing together police, civil society and local authorities for developing jointly solutions to safety and security (Haider 2009). Community-based DRM in turn brings synergies and added value to that community-based peacebuilding activity if safety and security are considered as how they have been defined in the previous chapter. Where disasters-conflict interface increases insecurity and threatens peace (Walch 2010, UNDP 2011), DRM activities can be actively used to reduce conflicts and make possible improvements in security conditions.

Besides that, community-based DRM supports local institutional development with the creation, not only of police, but also local emergency services, and generates relationships in post-conflict environments based on a more ‘neutral’ risk-safety dyad than ‘sensitive’ or ‘bias’ violence-security one. Linking community-based DRM with local institutions and authorities makes the initiative more comprehensive and sustainable.

4.2.2 Institutional Disaster Risk Management (Civil Protection)

Governance implies the functioning of public institutions, making public policy and enforcement of norms and standards regulating different sectors that affect the well-being and opportunities of the population. Among the key activities of peacebuilding is
governance with the establishment of legitimate and democratic institutions, promotion of political parties and democratic dispute of interests through general elections. Governance accommodation develops as well general frameworks for regulating public life and responding to the needs of the population.

Institutional DRM is then associated to the institutional legal system with the adoption of policies more supportive of the reduction of risks and prevention of disasters. However DRM is not only about administrative directives but also organizational and operational capacities for the implementation of strategies and policies. Institutional DRM intends to lessen the adverse effects of hazards and the likelihood of disaster happening, and therefore is a good initiative in favor of transforming conflict into sustainable peace in complex emergencies where conflict and disaster overlap.

There is an important need of capacity building, both for planning (or policymaking) and responding levels, implicit in the development of institutional DRM, reinforcing governance and participation, the two of them equally pillars of a peacebuilding process. Creation of emergency management and emergency services bodies promotes links between national and local governments and supports community-based DRM with specialized resources to better protect the population.

Connecting community-based DRR initiatives, specialized emergency services and DRR policy frameworks at national and local level avoid usual gaps between planning and responding to crises and make sustainable the community involvement in DRR, which is usually based on volunteer work. Such system is similar to what is known as civil protection (or contingencies agency) in many countries, an official body investing in DRR for preventing major disaster and responding during shocks, with other complementary functions, to speed up recovery in case of disaster.

In summary, the previous paragraphs show how institutional DRM (i.e. civil protection) enhances peacebuilding programmes adding relevant initiatives in the Governance and Participation and Security and Public Order sectors. Yet it brings other substantial value to the Social and Economic Well-being sector because of two significant characteristics of bodies like civil protection: psychosocial aspects of a civilian body
making people feel more in control of their destiny and prevention of millions of losses in the mid and long-term.

Even though civil protection, and particularly emergency services, is not part of mental health services they integrate some kind of psychosocial activities. The functioning of civil protection in the frame of DRR follows somehow the psychosocial support model of the IASC intervention pyramid in emergency response: tackling the re-establishment of safety, addressing certain basic needs, supporting community organization and social networks, training to community workers, and emergency specialized services.

In that sense institutional DRM contributes to build social capital and, again, provides a civilian perspective to security and conflict transformation.

4.3 Conclusion

This chapter analyses the links between DRR and peacebuilding based on the theoretical framework provided in chapter 3. The evolution of both DRR and peacebuilding strategies during the last decades has followed a parallel development with continuous adaptations to changes at political, socio-economic, environmental and technological levels worldwide and the influence on the humanitarian sphere. However, the programming approach of international agencies and organizations in natural disasters and conflicts has been different and separated due to conceptual and operational factors (Feinstein International Center, Kenya Red Cross Society and Nairobi Peace Initiative – Africa 2013, p.18). The analysis done in this thesis proposes that, conceptually and operationally, there are important reasons to link DRR and peacebuilding programmes.

DRR could be another key area in peacebuilding or a crosscutting issue in peacebuilding. In principle, both possibilities are feasible as a comprehensive approach to security and development. But how to make it operational is out of the scope of this thesis and needs further research. Next chapter contains the main conclusions and limitations of the thesis.
5. Conclusions

The problem formulated in this thesis describes different aspects related to natural disasters and armed conflicts. In complex emergencies, natural disasters and conflicts often overlap, however, in the literature search for academic research or field experience on the type of response provided by the humanitarian sector, DRR and peacebuilding are dealt with as separate approaches. How DRR interventions interact or are linked to peacebuilding and the reconstruction of the social fabric that might occur remains under theorized and under researched. Therefore, the attempt of theorizing on the contribution of DRR to peacebuilding entails that limitation but, on the other hand, such limitation makes any analytical effort in that direction an innovative input into this topic.

As described in the limitations of this thesis using a case study could have tested the main argument of the thesis by applying the SCT model to that case study and value its contribution to build peace. However, theoretically, the analysis proves a DRR strategy to be positively influential in the spectrum of sectorial (security and public order, justice and reconciliation, governance and participation, and social and economic well-being) and socio-dimensional (infrastructures, relationships, and conflict attitudes) activities provided by the SCT model.

Due to the focus on prevention, mitigation and preparedness, DRR has lot of potential to link relief and development, but also to build a bridge for moving from vulnerability towards resilience, what is at the foundations of social change and addressing the requirements for sustainable conflict transformation initiatives.

DRR strengthens institutional capacities at local and national levels and facilitates the creation of social networks at community level that is one of the basic aspects to reduce the risk of relapsing into violence in a post-conflict context. Besides this, a DRR strategy within peacebuilding programmes and frameworks can support building relationships not only in the community but also between the community and local
structures through participatory methods, which will consolidate peace in the mid and long term.

In the post-conflict dilemma of security-first or development-first, the current UN approach to peacebuilding programmes indicates a need of active engagement between development and security. This question is also reflected in the consultations for a post-2015 Sustainable Development framework as much as it is the inclusion of a DRR strategy in the same framework as well. Whether DRR is a relevant contribution to achieve sustainable development, it means a DRR perspective must be appropriate in peacebuilding programmes too, particularly where disaster and conflict interface.

There are several DRR activities which could be relevant for each of the four main sectors of peacebuilding programmes due to the psychosocial and participatory components implicit in the DRR approach towards preventive measures for reducing risks. It has a strong potential for encounters, team spirit, reconciliation, sponsoring community organization, mobilization and offering a sense of control over the development of the community.

The differences between safety and security, and the civilian element linked to the former, enlarge the scope of protection in post-conflict contexts and helps breaking the security mindset dominating the peacebuilding process. This does not mean, of course, that the security focus is not valid but that a security and safety approach can assist better those affected by conflict and disaster. DRR provides a people-centered approach, characteristic of the human security concept, to the traditional state-centered one of peacebuilding initiatives. By addressing both safety and security from the beginning, there would be improvements and efficiencies for peacebuilding programmes promoting the social and economic well-being of the whole society affected by armed conflict.

DRM adds a complementary value to improvements in governance through the capacity building of local and national institutions and reconstruction of infrastructure destroyed under the lens of preventing disasters. The establishment of emergency management and services creates connections between communities, local and
national levels regarding disaster behaviors and response initiatives in case of disaster as well as preventive attitudes by raising awareness and making education on DRR available.

The findings of this thesis can be transformed into practical actions to be implemented by humanitarian agencies and organizations if combining conflict and disaster sensitivity in their programmes, overcoming the factors keeping separate DRR and peacebuilding strategies. Some examples of introducing a DRR perspective into the peacebuilding sectors have been provided in the previous chapter. An additional advantage for the implementation of conflict and disaster sensitive programmes is the existing correspondence in time frames between peacebuilding operations and DRM phases after a disaster strikes.

This thesis has shown how DRR efforts can contribute to build sustainable peace in post-conflict contexts but more research is needed to bring more evidence based knowledge on this question. The rationale behind the thesis might suggest a wider field of study of the Disaster Diplomacy theory in two ways: considering other disaster-related activities apart from response, like prevention, mitigation or preparedness; and looking into how traditional diplomacy may introduce a DRR perspective for making and building peace. Both ways still bear the relation between disasters and conflicts. Further research is recommended on more concrete contributions of the DRR approach to existing sectors of peacebuilding programmes (especially security and public order, governance and participation, and social and economic well-being) and particular peacebuilding activities, looking at how DRR could open a new window of opportunities in Disarmament Demobilization and Reintegration processes. Finally, as peacebuilding is context-driven and a complex process of social and political transformation, this thesis acknowledges that the DRR approach is just another contribution to add to the already existing efforts supporting the transition from war to peace.
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Appendix 1. Glossary of terms

Definition of concepts

There are several definitions, depending on the source and perspective, for each of the concepts addressed in this section of the thesis. The criteria to select the definitions depend on finding a source widely known and accepted by the humanitarian organizations and the academic community. For that reason, the decision is to include UN definitions of the concepts described in the following paragraphs. Of course, such definitions are also contested both by the humanitarian and academic communities but they are still a reference for the humanitarian organizations and continuously consulted upon and evolving according to academic research and experience based. In few cases, some of the definitions are complemented with relevant academic references to specify the relationship with concepts managed in next chapters.

- **Capacity:** “The combination of all the strengths, attributes and resources available within a community, society or organization that can be used to achieve agreed goals” (UNISDR 2009, p.5).

- **Capacity development:** “The process by which people, organizations and society systematically stimulate and develop their capacities over time to achieve social and economic goals, including through improvement of knowledge, skills, systems, and institutions” (UNISDR 2009, p.6).

- **Coping capacity:** “The ability of people, organizations and systems, using available skills and resources, to face and adverse conditions, emergencies or disasters” (UNISDR 2009, p.8).

- **Conflict Prevention:** “Conflict prevention addresses the structural sources of conflict in order to build a solid foundation for peace. Where those foundations are crumbling, conflict prevention attempts to reinforce them, usually in the form of a diplomatic initiative. Such preventive action is, by definition, a low-profile activity” (United Nations 2000, p.2). A complementary definition is provided by the International Labour Office (ILO): “Conflict prevention is an effort which includes all the measures and actions aimed at reducing the risk of appearance or
Disaster Risk Reduction contribution to peacebuilding programmes

The reappearance of armed conflicts and violent confrontations within a society by removing the tensions which exist between the adversaries” (ILO 2010, p.5).

- Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration: “The disarmament, demobilization and reintegration of former combatants - key to immediate post-conflict stability and reduced likelihood of conflict recurrence - is an area in which peacebuilding makes a direct contribution to public security and law and order. But the basic objective of disarmament, demobilization and reintegration is not met unless all three elements of the programme are implemented” (United Nations 2000, p.7). The United Nations Peacekeeping Operations defines one by one each of the three elements. In this sense: “Disarmament is the collection, documentation, control and disposal of small arms, ammunition, explosives and light and heavy weapons from combatants and often from the civilian population. Demobilization is the formal and controlled discharge of active combatants from armed forces and groups, including a phase of ‘reinsertion’ which provides short-term assistance to ex-combatants. Reintegration is the process by which ex-combatants acquire civilian status and gain sustainable employment and income. It is a political, social and economic process with an open time-frame, primarily taking place in communities at the local level”.

- Disaster: “A serious disruption of the functioning of a community or a society involving widespread human, material, economic or environmental losses and impacts, which exceeds the ability of the affected community or society to cope using its own resources” (UNISDR 2009, p.9).

- Disaster Risk: “The potential disaster losses, in lives, health status, livelihoods, assets and services, which could occur to a particular community or a society over some specified future time period” (UNISDR 2009, p.9-10).

- Disaster Risk Management: “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” (UNISDR 2009, p.10).

Disaster Risk Reduction: “The concept and practice of reducing disaster risks through systematic efforts to analyze and manage the causal factors of disasters, including through reduced exposure to hazards, lessened vulnerability of people and property, wise management of land and the environment, and improved preparedness for adverse events” (UNISDR 2009, p.10-11).

Emergency Management: “The organization and management of resources and responsibilities for addressing all aspects of emergencies, in particular preparedness, response and initial recovery steps” (UNISDR 2009, p.13). The definition of Civil Protection encloses two components and the concept of emergency management corresponds to one of them, a strategic and institutional component, “Civil Protection is a term used in several countries to indicate the institution that coordinates emergency and crisis management” (Menoni and Pugliano 2013, p.69).

Emergency Services: “The set of specialized agencies that have specific responsibilities and objectives in serving and protecting people and property in emergency situations” (UNISDR 2009, p.14). This definition relates to the second component of the Civil Protection concept, more operational and a mix of institutional and community based assets, “The term Civil Protection is sometimes used also to indicate in a general, comprehensive way the entire set of organizations, agencies, and forces intervening in a disaster. Following this philosophy, the public itself is part of civil protection for a number of reasons” (Menoni and Pugliano 2013, p.70).

Peacebuilding: “[...] activities undertaken on the far side of conflict to reassemble the foundations of peace and provide the tools for building on those foundations something that is more than just the absence of war. Thus, peacebuilding includes but is not limited to reintegrating former combatants into civilian society, strengthening the rule of law (for example, through training and restructuring of local police, and judicial and penal reform); improving respect for human rights through the monitoring, education and investigation of past and existing abuses; providing technical assistance for democratic development (including electoral
assistance and support for free media); and promoting conflict resolution and reconciliation techniques” (United Nations 2000, p.3). The UN Secretary General’s Policy Committee⁵⁰ defines this concept as follows: “a range of measures targeted to reduce the risk of lapsing or relapsing into conflict by strengthening national capacities at all levels for conflict management, and to lay the foundation for sustainable peace and development. Peacebuilding strategies must be coherent and tailored to the specific needs of the country concerned, based on national ownership, and should comprise a carefully prioritized, sequenced, and relatively narrow set of activities aimed at achieving the above objectives.”

- **Peacekeeping**: “[...] a complex model of many elements, military and civilian, working together to build peace in the dangerous aftermath of civil wars” (United Nations 2000, p.2-3). This definition may be complemented by United Nations Peacekeeping Operations⁵¹ “today’s multidimensional peacekeeping operations are called upon not only to maintain peace and security, but also to facilitate the political process, protect civilians, assist in the disarmament, demobilization and reintegration of former combatants; support the organization of elections, protect and promote human rights and assist in restoring the rule of law”.

- **Resilience**: “The ability of a system, community or society exposed to hazards to resist, absorb, accommodate to 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” (UNISDR 2009, p.24).

- **Vulnerability**: “The characteristics and circumstances of a community, system or asset that make it susceptible to the damaging effects of a hazard” (UNISDR 2009, p.30).


Appendix 2. DRM and postwar reconstruction phases

Figure 9 Conflict management

Figure 10 Disaster management