

BETTER WAYS TO PREPARE FOR EMERGENCIES



By Bryan Walker

This manual is intended to be a simple introduction and guide:

- ≡ **in preparing for emergencies at agency and community levels**
- ≡ **to make it easier to understand the larger reference books, for those new to this field**
- ≡ **to ensure uniform terminology and consistent language for all those working towards a safer world**
- ≡ **in providing ideas, information and tools for those wishing to organise an introductory workshop on emergency preparedness**

Feel free to copy all or part of it for training purposes.



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INTRODUCTION

The tsunami of 26 December 2004 in Asia and East Africa followed on the heels of earthquakes in Turkey and India. Within the following year there were floods in India and the USA, and earthquakes in Indonesia, Pakistan and India. A series of cyclones in the Gulf of Mexico and the Bay of Bengal destroyed New Orleans and thousands of lives, leaving millions homeless, tens of thousands missing, and thousands of acres of land damaged ecologically by sea water swamping. Then there was the Japanese tsunami. As I write, the news is reporting on the devastation caused by super storm Sandy in the Caribbean and US East Coast. Concurrently in Burma 4,600 homes are destroyed and 26,000 people are displaced. The DR Congo is still in a bad way along with many other countries.

In living memory there has not been a decade to match the last. In global terms Asia is consistently hit the hardest by natural emergencies and disasters. Now the whole world is taking emergency preparedness and the development of early warning systems seriously.

There is much evidence to show that emergency preparedness prevents or mitigates the impact and cost of disasters, while the road to recovery is travelled faster. This booklet is intended to help that process by offering simple guidelines for those individuals or groups with responsibilities for drafting emergency preparedness plans. The activities can be done individually by the readers, or in small groups within the context of emergency preparedness planning workshops.

The ideas and suggestions presented by the author have been gained from working in natural and conflict-related disaster areas and from many workshops backed by hundreds of collective years of experiences from workshop participants. These people are remembered fondly and thanked profusely for their contributions to make the world a safer place.

Sadly, there is always more enthusiasm for preparedness after an emergency than before it. We must learn the lessons from the awful events of the last decade and move into a new era of preparedness. Although unlikely that tsunamis, earthquakes and volcanoes can be prevented from emerging, we can become better warned of and better prepared for future emergencies than we were for the earlier ones. The Chinese symbols for 'disaster' are shared in the symbols for 'danger' and 'new beginning'. So even in the worst situation there is a glimmer of optimism and the opportunity to make a fresh start.

1 BACKGROUND

1.1 Global Information

Emergencies may be natural or human-made.

Natural emergencies include:

- floods, droughts, fires, landslides, earth tremors/earthquakes, storm surges, coastal erosion, cyclones, epidemics of diseases or pests.

Human-made emergencies may arise from:

- industrial explosions or other accidents that release industrial toxins into the environment, fires, transport accidents, or from ethnic, national or international conflicts.

Any of these causes may lead to mass migrations of people who are struggling to survive by escaping from a hazard or an actual emergency.

Both natural and human-related disasters are dwarfed by avoidable health disasters. In 1999 between 70,000 and 100,000 people were killed by natural disasters, but around 13 million died of infectious diseases. AIDS was first identified in the 1980s since when about 25 million have died of the infection. During 2004, about 40 million people globally were living with HIV/AIDS and 3 million died. Daily, over 6,000 people become infected with HIV: half of them are under 25 years old.

- ≡ Over 40% of the world lives in malaria prone areas. Between 1 and 3 million people die from malaria annually and three-quarters of these are children.
- ≡ Three million people die annually of tobacco effects and numbers are increasing.
- ≡ The World Health Organization records that one million people die from suicide annually – a mortality rate of 16 per 100,000, or one death every 40 seconds.

This information provides a perspective against which other disasters can be examined.

Worldwide there are currently about 15 million refugees and over 26 million internally displaced persons (IDPs). Many are the victims of war or conflict. The Asia Pacific Region, with 55% of the world's population, is subject to the greatest impact of natural and human-made disasters.

DISASTER DATA: KEY TRENDS AND STATISTICS

The following analysis has been made by Jonathan Walter, editor of the World Disasters Report (2004), and by CRED team members Philippe Hoyois, senior research fellow; Regina Below, EM-DAT disaster database manager; and Debarati Guha-Sapir, director.

Over the past decade, the number of 'natural' and technological disasters has risen.

From 1994 to 1998, reported disasters averaged 428 per year; from 1999 to 2003, this figure shot up by two-thirds – to an average 707 disasters each year. The biggest rise was in countries of low human development, which suffered an increase of 142%. Transport accidents registered the biggest rise, climbing 75% during the second half of the decade.

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Both hydro-meteorological and geophysical disasters have become more common, becoming respectively 68% and 62% more frequent over the past decade. This reflects longer-term trends. However, weather-related disasters still outnumber geophysical disasters by 9:1 in the same period. Among natural disasters, floods are the most reported events in Africa, Asia and Europe, while windstorms are most frequent in the Americas and Oceania.

The 2003 death toll of nearly 77,000 was triple the total for 2002 – with countries of medium and high development hit hardest. Disasters cost around 31,000 lives in Europe, mainly due to the August heat wave. This figure was eight times higher than the average annual death toll from disasters in Europe over the previous nine years. The earthquake which devastated the Iranian city of Bam claimed at least 26,000 lives. Deaths in countries of low human development last year fell to their lowest level for nine years. However, over the decade, more than half of those killed by natural disasters lived in low human development countries.

Drought and famine have proved the deadliest disaster of the decade worldwide, accounting for at least 275,000 deaths since 1994 – nearly half the total for all natural disasters. Over the past 10 years, drought and famine claimed over 1,000 lives per reported disaster, earthquakes killed an average of 370 people per disaster, while extreme temperatures claimed over 300 lives per disaster.

Despite the increased number of disasters, **average annual death tolls have dropped** from over 75,000 per year (1994 to 1998) to 59,000 per year (1999 to 2003). However, over the same period, the **numbers affected continued to climb**. For the first five years of the decade, an average of 213 million people were affected. The second half of the decade saw this figure rise by over 40%, to an average of 303 million per year.

The reason **less people are dying from hydro-meteorological disasters**, in particular, may be partly explained by **better satellite forecasting and early warning systems**. Equally, systematic disaster preparedness at community level has helped reduce death tolls.

The fact that more people are being affected by disasters reflects a combination of factors: rising numbers of reported

disasters; rapid population increase in poorer parts of the world; and rapid, unplanned development (particularly in urban areas).



Impacts vary enormously according to the level of human development achieved in the country where disaster strikes. Over the past decade, disasters in countries of high human development killed an average of 44 people per event, while disasters in countries of low human development killed an average of 300 people each.

GLOBAL TRENDS REPORT: 800,000 NEW REFUGEES IN 2011, HIGHEST THIS CENTURY

News Stories, 18 June 2012

GENEVA, June 18 (UNHCR) – A report released today by the UN High Commissioner for Refugees shows 2011 to have been a record year for forced displacement across borders, with more people becoming refugees than at any time since 2000.

UNHCR's "Global Trends 2011" report details for the first time the extent of forced displacement from a string of major humanitarian crises that began in late 2010 in Côte d'Ivoire, and was quickly followed by others in Libya, Somalia, Sudan and elsewhere. In all, 4.3 million people were newly displaced, with a full 800,000 of these fleeing their countries and becoming refugees.

"2011 saw suffering on an epic scale. For so many lives to have been thrown into turmoil over so short a space of time means enormous personal cost for all who were affected," said the UN High Commissioner for Refugees António Guterres. "We can be grateful only that the international system for protecting such people held firm for the most part and that borders stayed open. These are testing times."

Worldwide, 42.5 million people ended 2011 either as refugees (15.2 million), internally displaced (26.4 million) or in the process of seeking asylum (895,000). Despite the high number of new refugees, the overall figure was lower than the 2010 total of 43.7 million people, due mainly to the offsetting effect of large numbers of internally displaced people (IDPs) returning home: 3.2 million, the highest rate of returns of IDPs in more than a decade. Among refugees, and notwithstanding an increase in voluntary repatriation over 2010 levels, 2011 was the third lowest year for returns (532,000) in a decade.

Viewed on a 10-year basis, the report shows several worrying trends: One is that forced displacement is affecting larger numbers of people globally, with the annual level exceeding 42 million people for each of the last five years. Another is that a person who becomes a refugee is likely to remain as one for many years – often stuck in a camp or living precariously in an urban location. Of the 10.4 million refugees under UNHCR's mandate, almost three quarters (7.1 million) have been in exile for at least five years awaiting a solution.

Overall, Afghanistan remains the biggest producer of refugees (2.7 million) followed by Iraq (1.4 million), Somalia (1.1 million), Sudan (500,000) and the Democratic Republic of the Congo (491,000).

Around four-fifths of the world's refugees flee to their neighbouring countries, reflected in the large refugee populations seen, for example, in Pakistan (1.7 million people), Iran (886,500), Kenya (566,500) and Chad (366,500).

Among industrialized countries, Germany ranks as the largest hosting country with 571,700 refugees. South Africa, meanwhile, was the largest recipient of individual asylum applications (107,000), a status it has held for the past four years.

UNHCR's original mandate was to help refugees, but in the six decades since the agency was established in 1950 its work has grown to include helping many of the world's internally displaced people and those who are stateless (those lacking recognized citizenship and the human rights that accompany this).

The Global Trends 2011 report notes that only 64 governments provided data on stateless people, meaning that UNHCR was able to capture numbers for only around a quarter of the estimated 12 million stateless people worldwide.

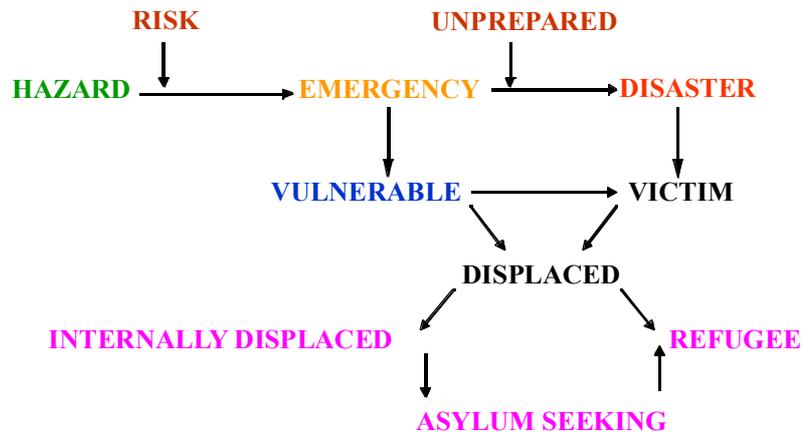
Of the 42.5 million people who were in a state of forced displacement as of the end of last year, not all fall under UNHCR's care: Some 4.8 million refugees, for example, are registered with the UN Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees. Among the 26.4 million internally displaced, 15.5 million receive UNHCR assistance and protection. Overall, UNHCR's refugee and IDP caseload of 25.9 million people grew by 700,000 people in 2011.

The Global Trends report is UNHCR's main annual report on the state of forced displacement. Additional data is published annually in the agency's *Statistical Yearbooks*, and in twice-yearly reports on asylum applications in industrialized nations.

1.2 Glossary of Terms

There is no universally accepted or established vocabulary of key words and terms used in the field of the management of emergency preparedness and response although standardisation is highly desirable. The following terms are in general use but they are not used consistently between aid organisations or within countries. The following definitions are recommended in

order to help communication between the various organizations and individuals in government and non-government agencies concerned with Emergency Preparedness and Disaster Mitigation and Management.



The United Nations has defined “Refugees” and “Internally Displaced Persons” (IDPs) in order to help communication between the various organizations and individuals in Government and Non-government Organizations concerned.

Internally Displaced Persons are people who have been forced to flee their homes, but who have not reached a neighbouring country. Refugees are those who, forced to flee from their homes, have crossed a national or state border.
Refugees are protected by international law and they are eligible to receive many types of aid.

Capacity is the ability to cope with an emergency. It reflects material wealth, social skills and knowledge, and attitudinal bravery and coping strategies.

Contingency plans are prepared for dealing with an emergency when it arises. They follow assessments and evaluations of potential threats, emergency impacts, optimum responses to emergencies, and identification of existing resources, and may include capacity building of vulnerable communities. They include all the activities between the initiation of the plan and post-emergency events.

Development is an attempt to achieve long-term improvement in a community and its environment, as determined by the community members, and should include the development of emergency preparedness plans.

Disasters are the occurrence of widespread severe damage to the environment, injury, loss of life and property with which a community cannot cope and during which the affected society undergoes severe disruption. They may involve displacement, destruction, adverse environmental effects causing disruption of daily routines, damage to agriculture, and disturbance of local and national economies.

Disaster Management involves activities that prevent or stop the situation becoming worse, and helps life to return to normal.

Emergency is any situation (which emerges or becomes apparent), human-made or natural, which may require unusual intervention. It is a *threat* to people or the environment of a

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magnitude with which the population may not be able to cope without intervention from others. Emergencies are often rapid in onset, but not always e.g. drought. An emergency can lead to loss of life, loss of the quality of life, damage to property or the environment. Many emergencies cause people to become displaced from their homes. If unmanaged an emergency can develop into a disaster (a catastrophe or a calamity).

Emergency Preparedness requires the anticipation of an emergency, analysis of possible scenarios; and actions that prevent it, minimise its possible impact, and/or reduce the vulnerability of the community of people who might be affected. It is concerned with understanding the threat, identifying sizes and locations of vulnerable communities, forecasting and warning, educating and training officials and the population, establishing organisations for and management of emergency situations including preparation of operational plans, training and education, stock-piling, and ear-marking necessary funds. Essential is the identification of leaders and co-ordinators to assist with the emergency response.

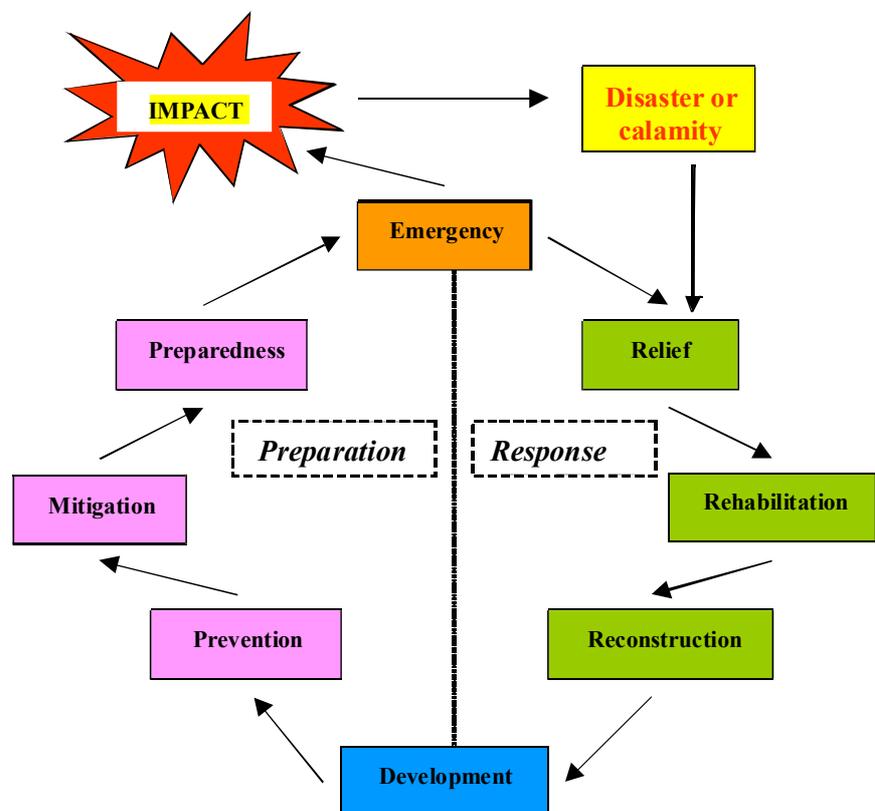
Hazard is a potential emergency. It may not be apparent as a possible danger. A hazard may be constant or short-lived such as a 'quiet' volcano or storm clouds. Hazard assessment identifies types, degrees and geographical locations of natural or human-made phenomena.

Impact is the effect of an emergency on an area or community. The impact may vary in intensity or degree (e.g. depth of flood), geographical spread, duration, and the vulnerability or capacity of the target population.

$$\text{IMPACT} = \frac{\text{EMERGENCY} \times \text{VULNERABILITY}}{\text{CAPACITY}}$$

Intervention is an action(s) intended to change the course of events. Disaster intervention is intended to improve the circumstances of disaster victims.

Mitigation involves long-term measures, formulated during the pre-emergency period, taken to reduce the impact of an emergency. E.g. In the case of floods, mitigation could be achieved by flood plain zoning and control, tree planting, land terracing, sand dune stabilisation, and the construction of shelter-belts or windbreaks.



THE EMERGENCY CYCLE

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Preparedness is action designed to minimise loss of life and damage, and to organise (before an emergency arises) timely and effective rescue, relief and rehabilitation operations.

Prevention measures are designed to preclude natural or human-made phenomena from causing or resulting in emergency or disaster situations. Prevention concerns the formulation and implementation of long-range policies and programmes to eliminate the occurrence of emergencies and therefore of disasters. It includes legislation and regulatory measures, principally in the fields of physical and urban planning, public works and building.

Relief is the initial aid response provided by external helpers to those affected by an emergency. It includes search and rescue activities.

Rehabilitation is the phase of activity following a disaster, which includes people returning to work, the permanent repair of infrastructures, communications and damaged buildings, and other actions necessary to help the community to return to normal life as soon as possible. This phase coincides with the period in which emotional recovery normally begins, and allows the population to function at near pre-emergency level. (Some prefer the term 'habilitation' as the aim may be to improve the standard and quality of life to a level better than that previously experienced by the affected community).

Resource analysis or inventory is a list of personnel and materials available to managers at the time of an emergency.

The **Risk** of a hazard becoming an emergency is the *probability* of the potential event emerging and becoming a reality. The risk may be permanent (e.g. the possibility of an earthquake in the proximity of a fault line in the earth's crust) or occasional (e.g. the movement of a single lorry load of inflammable material which could explode). Risk analysis involves a retrospective study to determine the frequency of the emergency occurrence. E.g. annual flooding will be a higher risk than an event that occurs once in a decade.

Search and Rescue is normally the first activity following a disaster, the aim being to locate disaster victims and to ensure their safety. It includes removing victims from hazardous locations, or evacuating families and whole communities from areas subject to secondary effects of disasters. Search and rescue may have to be preceded by establishment of communications and infrastructures, and followed by clearance of rubble, co-ordination of humanitarian assistance, provision of shelter, lifelines and medical care. So the order of events in the emergency cycle may depend on the nature of the emergency.

A **Threat** is an indicator of a hazard that has been identified and assessed to be on the point of becoming an emergency e.g. a leak being observed in the bund of a tank.

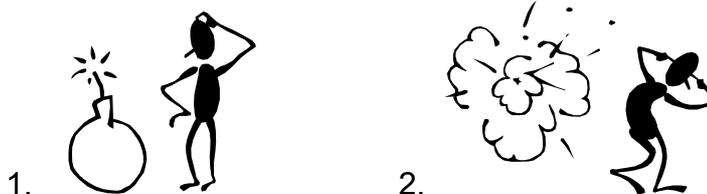
Vulnerable countries, areas, communities, environments or structures are those that might be damaged or affected by an emergency.

Victims are the people affected by a disaster. They are usually capable of making choices and should be consulted about their needs, or provided with counselling to help coping with personal losses.

Warnings are communications to vulnerable people and emergency managers about conditions that are likely to result in emergencies. Meteorology, seismology, volcanology and biology play an important role in determining the need for warnings and the prevention of disasters.

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Consider the following cartoons:



In the first cartoon the bomb is a *hazard*. The burning fuse indicates a *threat*. If left alone the situation will *emerge* as an explosion. The *risk* of explosion is high and the person observing the bomb is clearly *vulnerable*. He is likely to become a *victim* and this would be a *disaster*. If it is not possible to deal with the bomb, at least the person can be evacuated from the scene so that the explosion will not lead to a disaster. Evacuation of the person before the explosion will reduce *vulnerability* and prevent the *emergency* from becoming a *disaster*.

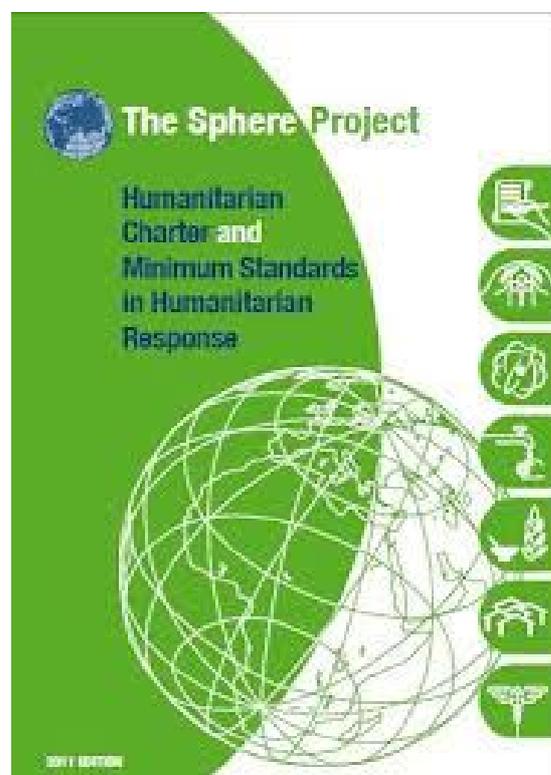
There are some aspects of this sequence of events that can be anticipated and readily managed (removing the *vulnerable* person from the scene) – even if other aspects (such as the placing of the bomb and its ignition device) cannot be *prevented* so easily. An awareness education programme can reduce the *vulnerability* and increase the *capacity* of the vulnerable person (or community) to cope with the situation.

1.3 The Sphere Project: Humanitarian Charter and Minimum Standards in Disaster Response

In the 1990s, following the Rwanda genocide, a group of humanitarian agents came together to examine the lessons to be learned from the way provision for the displaced had been made during the disaster. There had been gaps and duplications, and different standards had been applied by different organisations resulting in many unnecessary deaths. Out of these discussions arose the Sphere Project. It involved over 800 individuals from 400 organisations in over 80 countries north and south. The foundation of the guiding principles is the Humanitarian Charter which establishes the right to life with dignity, differentiates combatants and non-combatants, and does not insist on return of the displaced if dangerous. The Humanitarian Charter is based on the principles and provisions of International Humanitarian Law, Human Rights Law, and the Code of Conduct of the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies.

The purpose of the Humanitarian Charter and Minimum Standards

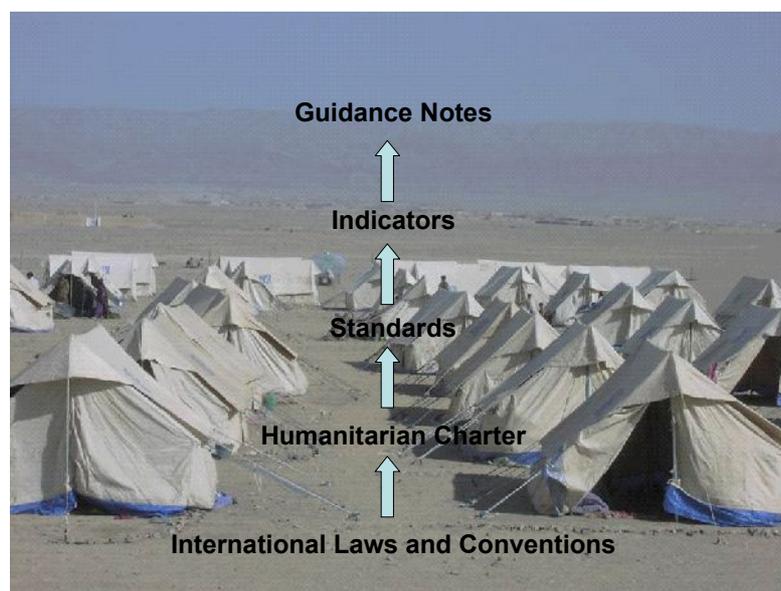
is to increase the effectiveness of humanitarian assistance, and to make humanitarian agencies more accountable. The Charter defines the legal responsibilities of states and parties to guarantee the right to assistance and protection. When states are unable to respond, they are obliged to allow the intervention of humanitarian organizations.



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There are five main chapters in the Handbook. These cover:

1. Minimum Standards Common to All Sectors
2. Water, Sanitation and Hygiene Promotion
3. Food Security, Nutrition and Food Aid
4. Shelter, Settlement and Non-Food Items
5. Health Services



Additionally eight cross-cutting issues are covered.

The Standards are qualitative in nature and are intended to be universal and applicable in any operating environment.

The Indicators are quantitative or qualitative and function as tools to ensure that the Minimum Standards are achieved. (Some are listed in the simulation activity at the end of this manual).

Guidance Notes in each chapter provide additional information to aid the application of standards and indicators in different situations.

The Sphere Minimum Standards can be used in several ways: by donors to ensure money is used appropriately, in planning projects and proposal writing, in monitoring, evaluating and assessing project impact, for advocacy, and for indicating when intervention in an emergency is necessary.

“The Humanitarian Charter and Minimum Standards will not solve all the problems of humanitarian response, nor can they prevent all human suffering. What they offer is a tool for humanitarian agencies to enhance the effectiveness and quality of their assistance and thus to make a significant difference to the lives of people affected by disaster.”

1.4 The Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement

Introductory Note by the Representative of the Secretary-General on Internally Displaced Persons, Mr. Francis M. Deng, 1992:

“The international community is confronted with the monumental task of ensuring protection for persons forcibly uprooted from their homes by violent conflicts, gross violations of human rights and other traumatic events, but who remain within the borders of their own countries. Nearly always they suffer from severe deprivation, hardship and discrimination. It is to meet this challenge that the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement were developed.”

“The Principles identify the rights and guarantees relevant to the protection of the internally displaced in all phases of displacement. They provide protection against arbitrary displacement, offer a basis for protection and assistance during displacement, and set forth guarantees for safe return, resettlement and reintegration. Although they do not constitute a binding instrument, these Principles reflect and are consistent with international human rights and humanitarian law and analogous refugee law.”

“The Principles were developed over several years pursuant to the mandate given to me in 1992 by the Commission on Human Rights and reinforced by subsequent resolutions of both the Commission and the General Assembly. Initially I was asked to study the causes and consequences of internal displacement, the status of the internally displaced in international law, the extent to which their needs are being addressed under current institutional arrangements, and ways to improve protection and assistance for them.”

“The Guiding Principles should provide valuable practical guidance to Governments, other competent authorities, intergovernmental organizations and NGOs in their work with internally displaced persons. It is my hope that they will be widely circulated and given practical application in the field.”

Copies of the Guiding Principles are available in most UN offices and can be downloaded from the UNHCR website (www.unhcr.org). A summary follows:

GUIDING PRINCIPLES ON INTERNAL DISPLACEMENT

GENERAL PRINCIPLES

- ≡ Equal rights and equal obligations
- ≡ Universal application
- ≡ Right to seek and enjoy asylum
- ≡ Sovereignty means responsibility

PROTECTION FROM DISPLACEMENT

- ≡ Prevention of displacement
- ≡ Minimising displacement and adverse effects

PROTECTION OF PHYSICAL SECURITY AND FREEDOM OF MOVEMENT

- ≡ Right to life
- ≡ Right to dignity and integrity of person
- ≡ Protection against arbitrary arrest and detention
- ≡ Choice of residence
- ≡ Protection against forcible return
- ≡ Protection from forced military recruitment

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PROTECTION OF FAMILY AND COMMUNITY

- ≡ Family unity
- ≡ Family reunification
- ≡ Rights of children
- ≡ Sanctity of mortal remains and grave sites

PROTECTION OF ECONOMIC, SOCIAL AND CULTURAL RIGHTS

- ≡ Adequate standard of living
- ≡ Right to health and medical care
- ≡ Participation of women
- ≡ Right to work
- ≡ Property rights
- ≡ Right to education

PROTECTION OF BASIC FREEDOMS

- ≡ Recognition before the law
- ≡ Civil and political rights guaranteed

PROTECTION THROUGH HUMANITARIAN ASSISTANCE

- ≡ Primary responsibility of national authorities
- ≡ Right of international humanitarian actors to offer services
- ≡ Obligation of authorities to facilitate assistance of appropriate actors
- ≡ Obligation of humanitarian actors to fulfil protection role
- ≡ Security of humanitarian personnel ensured

PROTECTION DURING RETURN, RESETTLEMENT AND REINTEGRATION

- ≡ Right to return or resettle
- ≡ Protection from discriminatory treatment
- ≡ Right to return of property or compensation
- ≡ Responsibilities of national authorities and international actors to facilitate solutions

2 NOW

2.1 Where are we now?

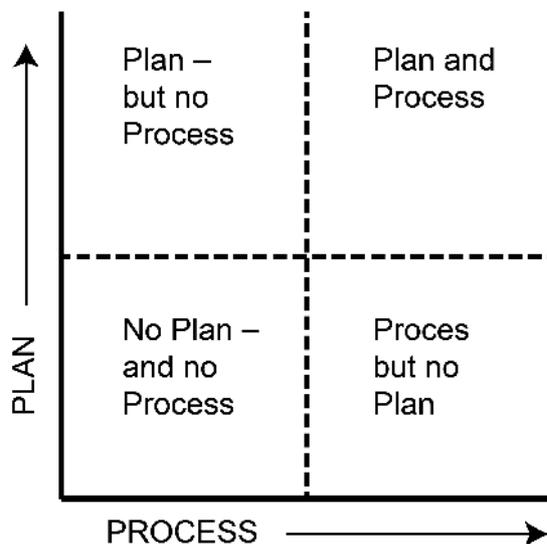
“If you fail to plan, you plan to fail” (Gooding)

“The plan is important, but the process of planning is most important” (Petersen)

Forward planning often takes more effort and perseverance than reactive action so planning is not always seen as a priority. There are several reasons given by aid workers for not planning:

- ≡ we have other more urgent priorities
- ≡ we know what to do when the time comes
- ≡ planning is an expensive luxury for an event that may not happen
- ≡ when we tried to relocate people last time, they returned home to find their homes ransacked. Now they prefer to accept the risk

The planner should ask, "Are we really prepared if an emergency erupts tomorrow? Where does our organisation stand in relation to Planning and Process?" Place a mark on the following graph to indicate where you are now. Then put another on the place where you ought to be. This manual will help you reach your target.



Emergency planning is best achieved through a cooperative and coordinated effort where all agencies should work together, in the same direction (shared objectives) and over a period of time. Emergencies hit geographical areas, not individual organizations, and no single agency can handle the whole event. Meeting once and producing a Plan is usually insufficient and the product usually inadequate. The process must include regular meetings and a feeling of plan ownership by the participants. Inputs into these meetings may include expertise, field visits, agency policy etc, while outputs include Plans, reports, budgets, actions, stockpiles etc.

It is likely that you find yourself in one of the situations below:

1. Emergency Planning is already taking place through inter-agency meetings.

There may be room for improvement. Are the meetings held frequently enough, are they sufficiently focused on the task, are the participating agencies the most relevant, and is the product adequate in the light of the possible emergencies? If so, have the Plans been sent to headquarters?

2. Emergency Planning is already taking place but not in the context of inter-agency meetings.

You may already have an Emergency Plan. Is it up to date? Who prepared it? Was it prepared in the context of an inter-agency forum? Does the Plan include practical measures or is it a list of intentions? It may well be that the Process needs to be revitalized and the Plan updated.

3. No Emergency Planning is taking place but there are inter-agency meetings.

Where inter-agency meetings already exist it is worthwhile deciding whether the composition of the group, the working methods and the meeting frequency can be adapted or extended to add emergency planning to the agenda. If so, will it lose its importance, and will there be the concerted energy needed for it to be effective? On the other hand, with skillful planning, existing inter-agency meetings could be used as a sounding board – and eventually a springboard – for new planning initiatives.

4. No Emergency Planning is taking place and there are no inter-agency meetings.

In some cases there is no existing inter-agency meeting structure yet there is considered to be a need for some form of emergency planning. In some countries the commencement of planning through the inter-agency process has brought agencies together for the first time. The planning has been the ignition for broader consultation.

2.2 Scenarios

The identification and analysis of scenarios is where Emergency Preparedness Planning starts. We must know what we are planning for, but we cannot plan for every possible eventuality. Nor can any one organisation provide the total emergency response: an inter-agency collaboration is fundamental to successful planning and responding.

Several questions in relation to possible scenarios must be asked:

- ≡ What are the likely scenarios? Which of these can be addressed?
- ≡ Which are the most difficult to manage?
- ≡ How many people might be affected?
- ≡ With which agencies are we going to collaborate?
- ≡ What is our collective capacity to respond?
- ≡ In responding, how many people can we care for?

In any scenario the impact on different individuals or communities will vary with their capacity to cope. Probably about 50% will find a haven with friends or relatives. The remainder may require humanitarian assistance.

Scenario complexity in many countries makes it difficult to identify the few scenarios upon which to base the planning. The existence of numerous political, racial and tribal groups or

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the varying geographic locations, each of which manifests different planning problems, will complicate the process. Even without this level of complexity, finding agreement on the selection of a few scenarios may be tricky.

Where there are different geographic areas, separate planning processes may be desirable. This may be accomplished through different sub-groups, comprising regional or district agency representatives, who plan separately. The separate plans are then brought together at central level into one overall Plan with consistent elements. The separate plans will require coordination through the participation in the regional meetings of at least one representative from the central planning committee.

A good start is to **brainstorm** the possibilities for a particular district or area (this must include local people). A typical result of this exercise might read:

RISKS:

1. tsunami
2. floods
3. storms and lightning
4. fire
5. drought
6. cyclone
7. landslides
8. bomb blasts
9. coastal erosion
10. epidemics
11. road/industrial accidents
12. local conflicts
13. war
14. earthquake
15. meteorite impact

Risk:

At the present time, many groups will start with tsunami, because that is fresh in the memory. However the list should be reordered according to the risk of occurrence. 'Risk' is the likelihood or statistical probability of occurrence. The risk can be determined by studying historical records (with possible input from Geological Surveys, Meteorological Departments etc.). Now the list will take on a different order: tsunamis will have a lower risk than floods, and may be placed almost at the bottom, just above meteorite impact.

Management difficulty:

Selection of a few scenarios for immediate preparedness planning can be related to risk of occurrence. Now rearrange the list according to difficulty of management. This will help focus on numbers of people affected.

Once the risk and management difficulty have been assessed, select a few scenarios to be covered by the plan.

Further analysis:

Each selected scenario can now be further analysed using the headings of the following table. The one below has been completed using floods as an example.

Flood Analysis

| Force | Warning Signs | Fore-warning | Speed of onset | Frequency | When | Duration |
|----------------|----------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|
| Heavy rainfall | Low air pressure | Few hours to few days | Few hours to few days | Seasonal | North-East and South-West Monsoon | Few hours to few days |
| Breach of dams | Rise in river water levels | | | | | |

2.3 Impact Analysis

Some refer to ‘impact’ as ‘risk’. But the latter term is better kept for the *probability* of a ‘hazard’ emerging). The **impact** (or effect) of an emergency on a community or an environment will depend on several factors. These may include:

- ≡ the geographical extent of the emergency
- ≡ the severity of the emergency (e.g. depth of flood)
- ≡ the duration of the emergency
- ≡ the vulnerability and capacity of the affected community

The relationship between these factors can be expressed as:

$$\text{IMPACT} = \frac{\text{EMERGENCY} \times \text{VULNERABILITY}}{\text{CAPACITY}}$$

This is not a precise mathematical formula because the factors cannot be quantified. But the relationships are significant. They show that the impact of an emergency can be reduced by **increasing the capacity** (resources, skills and knowledge, means and coping abilities), or **reducing the vulnerability** (conditions which adversely affect people’s ability to respond).

So aid agencies may have several roles in helping the community to prepare for emergencies:

1. Looking after the aid team is a priority
2. Helping to increase the capacity of the vulnerable community
3. Exploring and executing ways of mitigating, preventing, or preparing for emergencies
4. Preparing to deliver aid in emergency or disaster situations
5. Collaborating with the government, the beneficiaries and other agencies to achieve the above

Vulnerability analysis considers the physical (poverty makes escape more difficult), social (degree of organisation), and attitudinal aspects of the community.

Capacity analysis considers people’s skills, knowledge and coping ability.

Further analysis: This can be done by comparing risk and management difficulty in a tabular form. To the table is now added the nature of the impact on people, their property, livestock,

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dwelling and the ecological and economical systems. This helps to identify the number of people affected and the nature of aid that is required.

Scenario Analysis: Rate Management difficulty as low, medium or high

| Possible Scenario | Potential Impact | Risk (1 to 5) | Management difficulty |
|-------------------|--|---------------|-----------------------|
| Flood | <p>About 10,000 families will be affected</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Displacement ➤ Scarcity of drinking water and food ➤ Damage to crops ➤ Damage to homes and infrastructure ➤ Environmental degradation ➤ Spreading of diseases | | |
| Cyclone | <p>About 15,000 families will be affected</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Displacement ➤ Injuries and loss of life and property ➤ Damage to infrastructure ➤ Damage to plantation and crops ➤ Loss of animals ➤ Environmental degradation | | |
| Tsunami | <p>About 55,000 families were affected by Tsunami in December 2004 and 38,000 people died.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Mass displacement ➤ Scarcity of drinking water ➤ Scarcity for food ➤ Homeless people ➤ Injuries and loss of life and property ➤ Spreading of diseases ➤ Damage to infrastructure ➤ Damage to crops ➤ Environmental degradation | | |
| War | <p>At least 50,000 people will be affected in the District</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Mass displacement ➤ Injuries and loss of life and property ➤ Disruption of free movement ➤ Economic embargoes ➤ Travel restrictions ➤ Damage to infrastructure ➤ Reduction in foreign investment and donations for post-tsunami rebuilding. | | |

Risk rating:

1 – 5 (Low to High)

Management Difficulty rating:

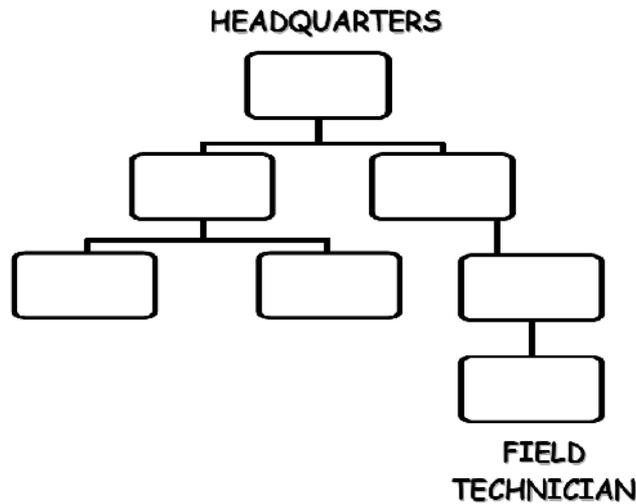
H-High; M-Medium; L-Low

2.4 Planning Tools

There are many aids to planning and responding to emergencies. The following four analytical tools are among the most useful, but others such as SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats), SMART (Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic, Time-bound) and VOSA (Vision, Obstacles, Strategy, Action) can all be used.

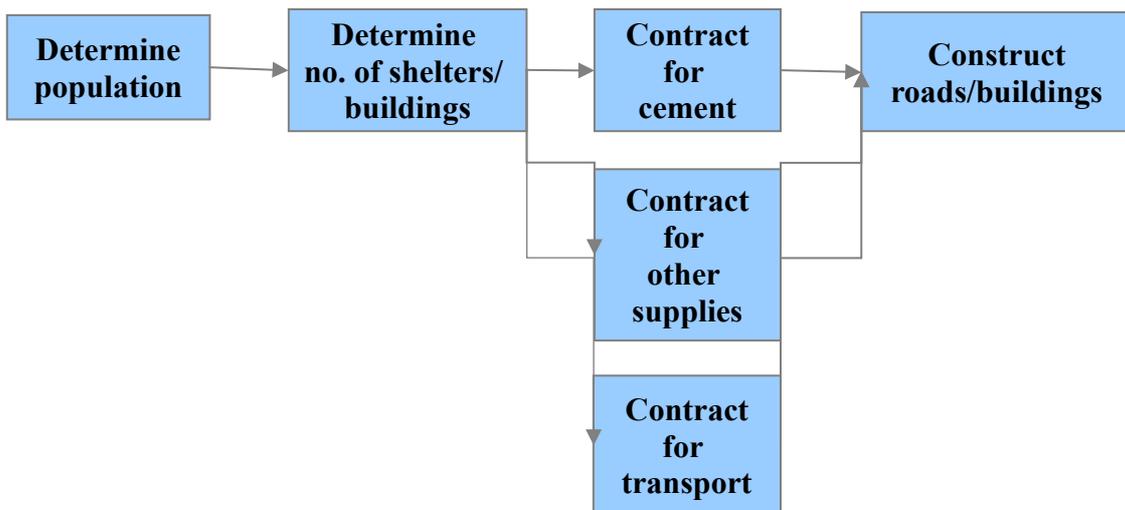
First, clearly defined management lines must be drawn to show lines of communication and responsibility within and between agencies

Organigram:



A precedence diagram can be useful in showing what tasks need to be completed in anticipation of further action.

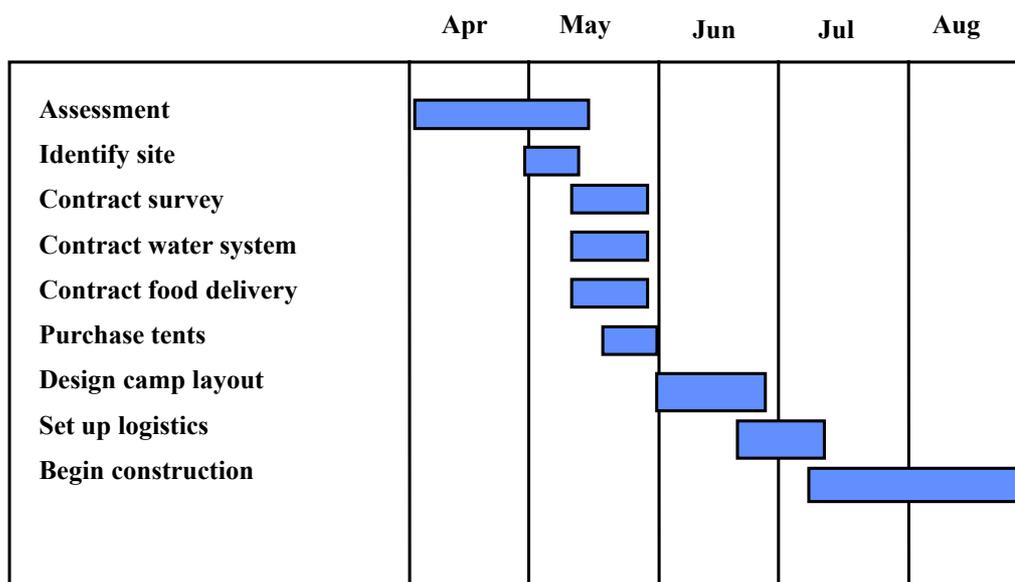
Precedence Diagram:



A similar tool is the bar chart. For emergency situations the time frame may need to be more compressed than that shown in the following example.

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Bar Chart:



In order to know the capacities of other organisations, “gaps and duplications analysis” is an essential tool.

Gaps and Duplications Chart:

| AGENCY | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | H |
|------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| FOOD | x | x | x | x | | x | | x |
| WATER | x | | | | | | x | x |
| SANITATION | x | | | | | | | x |
| SECURITY | x | | | | x | | | x |
| SHELTER | x | | | | | x | | x |
| LOGISTICS | | x | x | | | x | | x |
| EDUCATION | | | | | | | | |

You will notice from this table that:

- beneficiaries are involved in all sectors
- no agency is concerned with education
- and six agencies are involved with food provision.

For the ‘food agencies’ a further gaps and duplications diagram can be prepared, showing how responsibilities are divided – e.g. food procurement, food storage, food transport, food distribution, monitoring and evaluation, nutritional assessment etc.

The last two diagrams can be placed alongside each other to illustrate responsibilities and when they should be enacted.

2.5 An Example of the Structure of a Plan

General situation and scenarios

1. Country background and immediate decisions
2. Scenarios. Locations for IDPs/refugees
3. Objectives. Stocks – what, where, how much?
4. Protection, reception and registration. Needs assessment
5. Shelter and site planning
6. Food and nutrition
7. Domestic needs and household support
8. Water
9. Sanitation
10. Health and nutrition
11. Community services and psychosocial support. Religious provision
12. Logistics and transport
13. Education (for local authorities, international and national NGOs)

Communications

1. Contacts
2. Radio
3. Monitoring and follow-up analysis
4. Reporting and media

Annexes

1. Agency profiles – gaps and duplications analyses. Coordination
2. Activity matrix – geographical or sectoral? Needs Assessment Form
3. Budget matrix
4. Map and fall back location

The above is a simple outline for an Emergency Preparedness plan. It can be expanded with bullet points to provide the basis of a first draft. Fuller examples are in the UNHCR Handbook for Emergencies, and the UNHCR Contingency Planning Guidelines.

Most scenarios will result in mass migration. Assessing the possible number of affected people is fundamental in Emergency Preparedness Planning as it forms the basis for calculating the amount of utilities and aid required in emergencies and disasters.

2.6 Emergency Triggers and Decisions

EARLY WARNING INDICATORS

Triggering Events

- ≡ Natural disaster and a marked fall below Sphere Minimum Standards
- ≡ Problem spreading to new geographic region or population sector
- ≡ Significant increase in intensity of situation
- ≡ Changes in viability of flight (open border, new neighbouring government)
- ≡ Departure of key political figure, change in political party
- ≡ Increased peer group pressure, instruction of leader, 'band wagon'
- ≡ Mass demonstration or riot
- ≡ Seasonal factors (weather, harvest etc)

Factors Prompting Departure

- ≡ Ethnic/racial/social/religious tensions
- ≡ Human Rights abuses
- ≡ Political instability including opposition movements
- ≡ External factors e.g. influence of foreign groups and governments
- ≡ Relations with neighbouring area(s)
- ≡ Demographic factors – pressure of people on land
- ≡ Ecological devastation and other natural events
- ≡ Economic instability including labour disputes
- ≡ Corruption and drug trafficking
- ≡ Military intervention and interference

Intervening Factors

Alternatives to international flight:

- ≡ moving in with relatives
- ≡ moving to 'liberated' or safe areas
- ≡ moving to camps for the displaced
- ≡ International relief/protection in place of origin

Obstacles to flight:

- ≡ lack of knowledge of route
- ≡ lack of money (to pay guide, fare, exit fee)
- ≡ poor security along the route
- ≡ poor health status of family member
- ≡ adverse climatic conditions or terrain

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- ≡ Apprehensions about reception over the border; unfavourable asylum policy
- ≡ Closed borders
- ≡ Uncertain living conditions in asylum country

Many otherwise excellent plans lack the information about what to do immediately on receiving news of an emergency. **Immediate actions and contact details are best placed at the beginning of the Plan.** This avoids panic (including hiding!) and frantic searching for telephone numbers. Rumours spread like wildfire and can quickly start mass hysteria, especially in the period following a major disaster. **The first thing to be done is to obtain confirmation of the news.** Other actions are tabulated below:

N.B.: Actions required in response to an emergency may be divided into those that cover the first 24 hours, the following 48 hours, and the next few weeks.

| ACTION | PERSON RESPONSIBLE and contact details |
|--|---|
| Confirm the report of emergency <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ≡ How many people affected? ≡ Are more expected? ≡ Where? | |
| Alert HQ through Line Manger | |
| Dispatch colleague to scene for rapid needs assessment | |
| Inform authorities, e.g. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ≡ Government agent ≡ Military ≡ INGOs | |
| Meet with key actors, and some beneficiaries if possible. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ≡ Confirm responsibilities. ≡ Agree geographical or sectoral responsibilities. ≡ Receive report from colleague and initiate a further needs assessment if necessary ≡ Fix date, time and place of next meeting | |
| Act and deliver aid | |
| Monitor and evaluate | |
| Analyse (post emergency) successes and failures, and future remedial action | |

BE WARNED: the major and most frequent cause of problems in emergency planning and responding is inadequate coordination.

2.7 Cross-cutting Issues

This booklet cannot address all cross-cutting issues comprehensively, but their importance can be recognised. (The following is abstracted from the Sphere Manual, 2nd ed., pp. 10-13).

Children: Special measures must be taken to ensure children are protected from harm and have equal access to basic services. As children often form the larger part of an affected population, it is crucial that their views and experiences are gathered during emergency assessments and planning – and that they influence humanitarian service delivery and its

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monitoring and evaluation. Although specific vulnerabilities (e.g. malnutrition, exploitation, abduction and recruitment into fighting forces, sexual violence and lack of opportunity to participate in decision-making) can also apply to the wider population, the most harmful impact is felt by children and young people.

Older people: Older women and men are those aged over 60, according to the United Nations. However, cultural and social factors mean that this definition varies from one context to another. Older people make up a large proportion of the most vulnerable in disaster-affected populations, but they also have key contributions to make in survival and rehabilitation. Isolation is the most significant factor creating vulnerability for older people in disaster situations. If supported, they can play important roles as carers, resource managers and income generators – while using their knowledge and experience of community coping strategies to help preserve the community’s cultural and social identities and encourage conflict resolution.

Disabled people: In any disaster, disabled people (people who have physical, sensory or emotional impairments, or learning difficulties that make it more difficult for them to use standard disaster support services) are particularly vulnerable. To survive a period of dislocation and displacement, they need standard facilities to be as accessible for their needs as possible. They also need an enabling social support network, which is usually provided by the family.

Gender: The equal rights of women and men are explicit in the human rights documents that form the basis of the Humanitarian Charter. Women and men (and girls and boys) have the same entitlement to humanitarian assistance; to respect for their human dignity; to acknowledgement of their equal human capacities, including the capacity to make choices; to the same opportunities to act on those choices; and to the same level of power to shape the outcome of their actions. Humanitarian responses are more effective when they are based on an understanding of the different needs, vulnerabilities, interests, capacities and coping strategies of men and women and the differing impacts of disaster upon them. The understanding of these differences – as well as of inequalities in women’s and men’s roles and workloads, access to and control of resources, decision-making power and opportunities for skills development – is achieved through gender analysis. Gender cuts across all the other cross-cutting issues. Humanitarian aims of proportionality and impartiality mean that attention must be paid to achieving fairness between women and men and ensuring equality of outcome.

Protection: Assistance and protection are the two indivisible pillars of humanitarian action. Humanitarian agencies are frequently faced with situations where human acts or obstruction threaten the fundamental well-being or security of whole communities or sections of a population, such as to constitute violations of the population’s rights as recognised by international law. This may take the form of direct threats to people’s well-being, or to their means of survival, or to their safety. In the context of armed conflict, the paramount humanitarian concern is to protect people against such threats. The form of relief assistance and the way in which it is provided can have a significant impact (positive or negative) on the affected population’s security.

HIV/AIDS: The coping mechanisms and resilience of communities are reduced when there is a high prevalence of HIV/AIDS and consequently the threshold for external stressors to cause a disaster may be lowered, while the amount of time a community needs to recover may be prolonged. People living with HIV/AIDS often suffer from discrimination, and therefore confidentiality must be strictly adhered to and protection made available when needed. This

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debilitating disease not only affects individuals but also their families and communities, as young people in their most productive years, especially women, are disproportionately affected – physically, psychologically and financially. These vulnerable groups require special attention.

Environment: The environment is understood as the physical, chemical and biological surroundings in which disaster-affected and local communities live and develop their livelihoods. It provides the natural resources that sustain individuals, and determines the quality of the surroundings in which they live. It needs protection if these essential functions are to be maintained.

2.8 Early Warning Systems

Once an Emergency Preparedness Plan has been prepared, the issue of early warning should be addressed. Warning should include both the possibility of increased risk on certain days (e.g. total fire-ban days where there is the risk of bush/forest fire), but also be an effective system to warn the public when a hazard is imminent (e.g. flood or cyclone). If a warning system is developed, this needs to be tested and fully understood, both by the community at risk and the various stakeholders who will give assistance.

Effective communication is a vital component of the Plan, particularly during the emergency response phase. This will include information relay using a variety of methods: radio, electronic messages, mobile phone, satphone, fax, messages carried by vehicle, bicycle, or hand. A ‘telephone tree’ of contacts can be helpful to spread news fast.



Links can be formed with geological and meteorological departments to provide warning information and – equally usefully – to confirm the absence of a threat when rumour has started a panic. If the existing communications network is considered weak, research into upgrading it should be carried out, funding identified, and new purchases made. The importance of the compatibility of various telecommunications systems as used by government and emergency services needs to be highlighted, and where necessary, addressed.

Establishing a Public Address System for the Community.

(Community Tsunami Early-warning Center, Peraliya, Thelwatte, Sri Lanka)

2.9 Geographical or Sectoral Response?

Many emergencies result in rapid mass migration of people who may become scattered over a wide area. They may be tired, frightened, wounded and desperately in need of aid. In the best situation, emergency locations will have been identified and the vulnerable people will know where to relocate, allowing an immediate aid response. However, if there is little warning, or an emergency plays out differently from that anticipated, people can become scattered over many hectares of jungle or terrain, making search and rescue difficult.

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Most aid agencies have a specialisation in terms of provision; not all can supply everything needed for the aid response. Agencies now face a choice in the conduct of a needs assessment and a subsequent delivery of utilities.

Either: all agencies can attempt to cover the whole affected area, searching for an outlet for their *sectoral* responsibility (food, shelter etc)

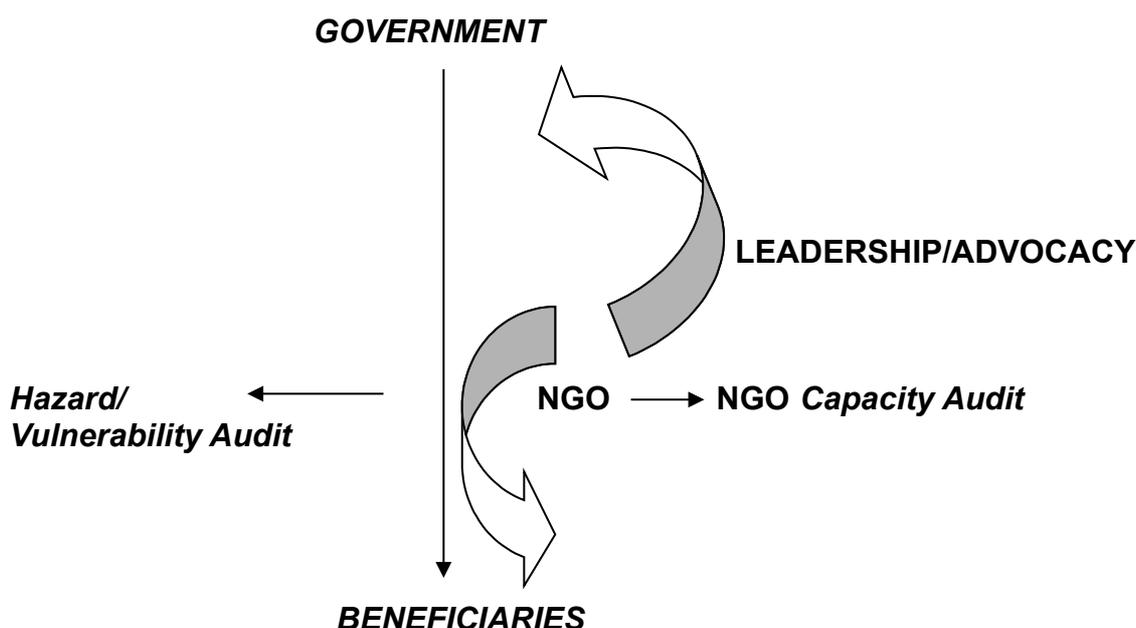
Or: by prior agreement, the area is divided *geographically* into sectors, which are allocated to different organisations.

The sectoral arrangement means that all agencies have to cover the whole area and some beneficiaries may be missed. If a part of the terrain is difficult to access, it may not be economical for all agencies to be making special transport arrangements; beneficiaries can become weary of several aid workers asking similar questions.

One appropriate method is for an initial geographical division to ensure good land cover: each agency adopts a general role for the purpose of making a needs assessment and the provision of immediate care. This can later be followed by a sectoral response in which agencies deal with their specialisations in locations of greatest need. However, the selected arrangement will depend on the number of agencies involved, the nature of the emergency, and the type of terrain and access involved.

2.10 Stocks and Logistics

The main responsibility for the care of IDPs and refugees rests with the official government. However, there are situations where the government is unable to access the people in need, does not hold the stocks required, or is too slow to respond. The role of the NGOs is to assist and support the government in fulfilling its obligations.



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NGOs can

- ≡ participate in all stages of the emergency cycle
- ≡ provide materials necessary for stock-piling and relief
- ≡ provide experts for advice, education and training
- ≡ help in the design and dissemination of education materials
- ≡ be assigned with specific roles prior to an emergency
- ≡ assist with the organisation and provisions for camps for the displaced

While it is tempting to plan assuming the availability of local stocks, even promised items may disappear from the local market in emergency. The following possible list of items is based on experience and discussions with different ethnic groups of IDPs in several locations in Sri Lanka. While the items are intended to cover the needs of the first 24 hours, many of the items will be useful for longer.

Contents of a Family Pack

| ITEM | AMOUNT |
|--|---------------|
| Bathing soap | 1 |
| Bed sheets, large | 2 |
| Candles, large (or one lantern and kerosene) | 6 |
| Cooking pots (graded set of three) | 1 |
| Cooking spoons | 2 |
| Cup or mug | 5 |
| Jerry can (wide neck) or bucket | 1 |
| Knife | 1 |
| Large bag with handles | 1 |
| Large plastic bowl | 1 |
| Matches (waterproof box) | 1 |
| Menstrual cloth packet | 1 |
| Mosquito net (family size) | 1 |
| Pitcher | 1 |
| Plastic sheet (4 X 5 m) | 1 |
| Plates | 5 |
| Sleeping mats | 2 |
| Tooth brushes and powder | 5 |
| Towels | 2 |
| Washing soap | 1 |
| Clothing appropriate for climatic conditions | As affordable |

The held stocks should include spades. Consideration should be given to other items e.g. coconut scrapers, ropes and axes.

This is not the place to list the extensive information required for adequate provision of **food**, nutrition, food security, distribution and monitoring. Generally the government has the responsibility to supply food to the displaced in emergency, but common experience shows that the displaced often remain for longer periods than initially expected. So careful thought is

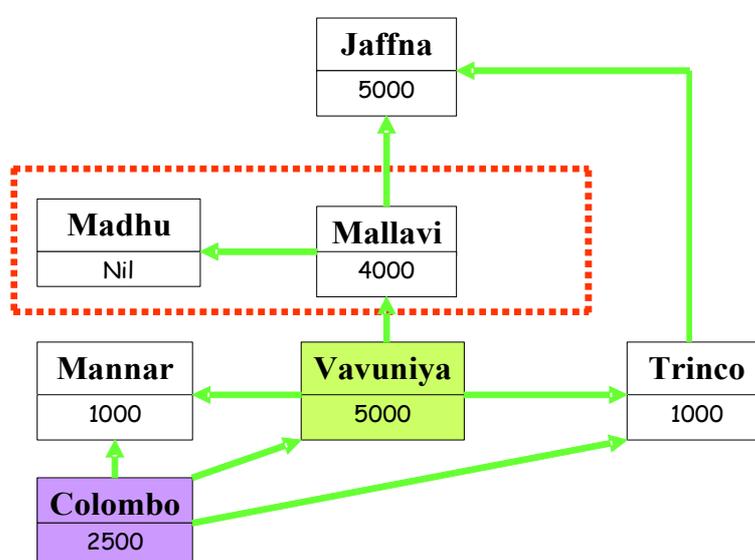
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required in the stocks and provision of food especially for pregnant/nursing mothers, babies, children, the elderly, the sick, those with special nutritional requirements (malnourished, diabetics etc), and those not mobile enough to reach food distribution points.

To provide flexibility in the logistics of emergency supplies, decisions need to be made concerning what stocks will be held, where they will be located, and what can be purchased locally at the time of emergency.

International and national agencies should consider the possibility of some emergencies having an impact that is widespread. While the holding of sufficient stocks for every eventuality in all possible geographical may be impossible economically, it is possible to design a flexible system that would allow fast movement of stocks to areas of need.

Family Pack Holdings



The above diagram is based on the family packs held by an international agency in Sri Lanka in 2001. At that time parts of the country were relatively inaccessible (within red dotted area) and the journey from Trincomalee to Jaffna could only be made by boat.

Special thought must be given to stocks that are perishable. It is possible to organise their distribution so that oldest utilities are used first.

NB. UNHCR, UNICEF, MSF and Sphere Manuals contain excellent and practical information about food and nutrition requirements as well as health and other sectoral requirements.

2.11 Care of the Response Team

The most important (and usually most costly) component of an organisation is the staff team. Their wellbeing is of paramount importance in the efficient execution of a project or programme and in preparing for and responding to emergencies. Emergencies place enormous burdens of responsibilities and stress on aid workers. Failure of their physical or psychological health can change them from bonus to burden in the community.

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Several organisations have recognised the importance of caring for personnel and have appropriate policies in place. One or two specifically provide support to agencies committed to improving human resource management. Such help is based on several principles.

The following can be used as a check-list for your agency:

1. My agency has a written strategic plan that accepts overall organizational responsibility for reducing the sources of stress, acting to prevent or mitigate the effects of stress, and responding to the unavoidable effects of stress
2. My agency systematically screens or assesses the suitability of staff members before hiring
3. My agency ensures that all employees have appropriate pre-employment briefings and training
4. My agency monitors the response to stress of its field staff on an ongoing basis
5. My agency provides support, on an ongoing basis, to help its staff deal with the expected stresses of humanitarian aid work
6. My agency provides staff with specific support (psychological first aid, psycho-education, evaluation, and referral to follow up support and care when appropriate) in the wake of critical incidents and other unusual and unexpected sources of stress
7. My agency provides all staff members with both a personal stress assessment and review and an operational debriefing at the end of their assignment or at the end of their contract
8. My agency provides both practical and emotional support for staff at the end of an assignment or contract

Organizations providing guidance on personnel support include:

| | |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| Antares Foundation | pietersom@antaresfoundation.org |
| Center for Psychology and Society | ehrenreichj@oldwestbury.edu |
| People in Aid | www.peopleinaid.org |

2.12 Site Planning

Effective site planning cannot be undertaken without a comprehensive site survey and full participation of those people to be resettled. Prior to considering the options for layout of a site, it is critical first to consider the water and sanitation requirements including proposals for longer term management and maintenance i.e. access, alternative arrangements, waste disposal etc. Site planning should take into account and indicate:

- ≡ **All natural and man-made features** including proposals for protection against identified hazards i.e. type of vegetation and natural resources, areas of open water, existing buildings, busy roads, unsafe buildings, disused septic tanks or refuse dumps etc.
- ≡ **Provisions for supply and protection of clean potable water** in line with Sphere Minimum Standards. This should be done in consultation with the WATSAN sector agencies.

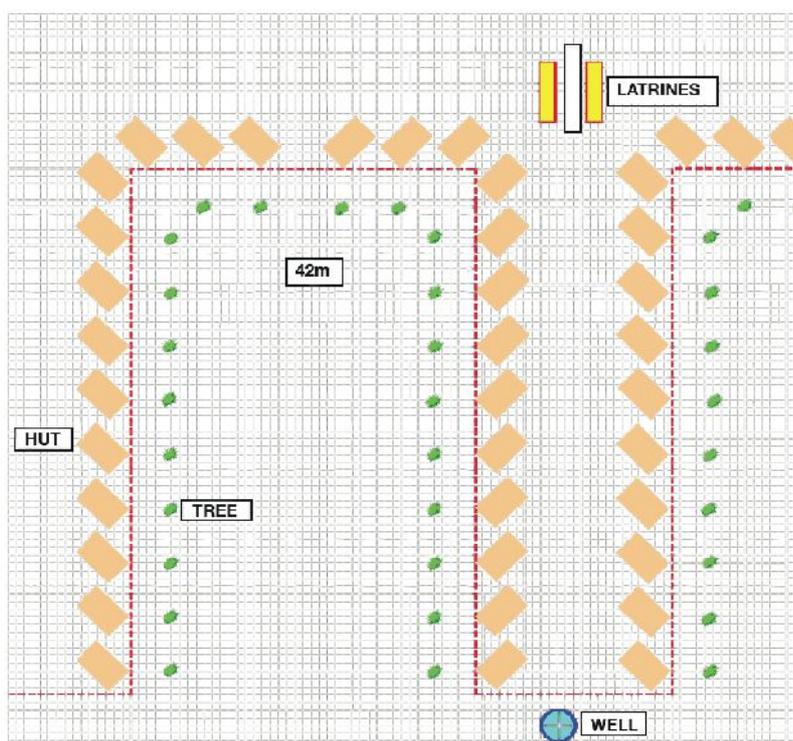
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- ≡ **Sanitation and washing facilities.** Rainwater harvesting may be considered as a source of water for washing. Sanitation facilities should be located down wind and must ensure protection for use by women and children at all times. The design of sanitation facilities needs to take into account the high water table in many areas.
- ≡ **Location of cooking areas / facilities**, taking into account the fire risks. Failure to provide a protected area may lead to families cooking indoors thereby increasing the risk of fire. Construction materials in cooking areas should be fire-resistant, and their location should minimise the risk of fire spread from one shelter to another. Consideration should be given to the availability and environmental impact of traditional cooking fuels – where possible the use of fuel-efficient stoves should be part of the project design. Consider the effects of smoke and fumes on family health and other families and the neighbouring communities.
- ≡ **Surface water drainage**, allowing for flooding hazards and local weather conditions. These can be assessed by looking at the vegetation and doing thorough research with local communities. The direction of water run-off from the site should inform the location of water supplies and sanitation facilities (which should be well above the water table at the top end of sloping ground). Shelters and communal areas need to be positioned such that they are not in the path of natural drainage. Natural drainage systems should be used where possible in channelling surface water. Where shelter designs with a partially open living area are proposed, an ample eaves overhang and adequate surface water drainage need to be provided to prevent water entry in heavy rain.
- ≡ **Shelters arranged in clusters to facilitate community activities and minimise the risk of conflict sensitivity.** Consider the position of doors and windows so that people are not directly overlooked. Allow for at least 2m between shelters where possible. The space around a shelter is a significant part of the 'living space' particularly in relation to livelihoods, social contact, cooking space etc.

Possible Arrangement of Shelters

The plan shown here has been used in Sri Lanka with Sphere Minimum Standards. Each shelter does not face the one opposite (to give privacy) and has a private area behind. The U-shape allows a safe area for play that can be observed by parents. Toilets and wells are located to offer maximum security.

- ≡ **Shelters positioned to minimise the clearance of trees and maximise shading and protection from prevailing high winds.** Generally, site clearance should only be needed on a localised basis



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as much of the natural vegetation on site may be used as an integral part of the site layout or used in construction. Shading is critical to community/play areas etc. and around shelters where possible. Shelters should be orientated to deflect wind forces over the pitched or mono-pitched roof, rather than the gable ends. Foundations must be heavy enough to resist lifting and the structural frame should be anchored into the foundation with a cross-member below ground. All joints to the shelter frame and roof structure/sheets should be bolted and tied rather than just nailed.

- ≡ **Delineation of major and minor routes across the site**, public communal areas (i.e. play and meeting areas) and private spaces around shelters. Consideration needs to be given to the safety of designated routes after dark, particularly routes to water sources and sanitation facilities.
- ≡ **Proposals for refuse and sewage removal and disposal**. Consideration must be given at the design stage, to the access requirements needed for emptying refuse dumps and sanitation pits in future. Similarly any likely site/population expansion needs to be built in – by allowing ‘future expansion space’ for these amenities.
- ≡ **Proposals for educational, health or recreational facilities** or areas. The current and future demographic profile of those being resettled will have a significant bearing on the quantity and type of facilities required.
- ≡ **Areas identified to support livelihood activities**. This may include area around individual shelters to support activities such as drying or preparing foodstuffs, small-scale handicrafts etc. or it may include larger areas of land i.e. for grazing of livestock, cultivation, storage of equipment, workshop/fabrication areas.
- ≡ **Areas of common land and natural resources** for use by resettled families and/or neighbouring communities. This might include grazing land or woodland for timber/firewood. Shared use can create the risk of conflict.
- ≡ **Disposal of the dead**. This requires cultural sensitivity. The crude mortality rate (CMR) is usually expressed as:

$$\frac{\text{Number of deaths} \times 10,000}{\text{Days counted} \times \text{Population}}$$

E.g. If 21 people have died in one week out of a total population of 5,000, then the death rate is 6, a situation demanding rapid intervention. (A healthy population should have a CMR <1). If a healthy camp population is 20,000, then about 1,500 deaths may be expected a year.

2.13 Key Messages

1. Good **coordination** and collaboration is the key to success. A single agency is not able to supply everything to everybody. An emergency response needs a combined effort. Failure to coordinate can lead to a delayed or even a failed response and unnecessary suffering.
2. Don't just talk to the beneficiaries: **listen** to them and involve them in every stage of emergency planning and response. They know what they need.
3. Emergency Planning must be an **inter-agency** process. Emergencies arise in villages, towns and areas, not by impacting on a single organization.
4. **The Process is more important than the Plan.** Emergencies rarely happen exactly as planned. It is important for all concerned to know the capabilities, strengths and weaknesses of the others. Knowledge should be shared, not hidden. Regular meetings are required to maintain inter-agency relationships, especially as staff turnover is usually high.
5. Many **decisions** should be taken in the quiet pre-emergency phase, e.g. which agency should take the lead role, agreement over the adoption of Sphere Minimum Standards, who holds what stocks where, which stocks can be obtained locally, fall-back positions, at what stage international help should be sought.
6. **The Plan** should be 'user friendly': short simple and readable. It should be dated clearly and indicate a date for review and who is responsible to initiate this. Involve as many people as possible in its construction so all feel a sense of ownership: the best plan is rarely written by a single author.

Motivating agencies to participate may be a challenge. Some may misrecognise the potential problem, see no need for the planning, or think that the consultative process is not necessary. They may feel satisfied with their own plan if they have one. The beauty of an ongoing process is that the composition of the planning partners can change over time. Begin with those prepared to participate and keep others informed. They may join the process as they note its efficacy.

3 FUTURE ACTIVITIES

3.1 ACTIVITY – News Flash

Introduction:

This exercise is intended to demonstrate the importance of agencies agreeing on standards. It makes an appropriate introduction to a session on the Sphere Project and Sphere Minimum Standards.

Action:

Without warning, flash on the screen, or display a notice with the following words:

PROBLEM: FOLLOWING AN EMERGENCY, 150 PEOPLE HAVE OCCUPIED A SCHOOL AND 170 FAMILIES ARE CAMPING IN THE SCHOOL GROUNDS. THERE ARE TWO TOILETS BUT NO WATER SUPPLY. ONE BABY HAS A RESPIRATORY INFECTION AND ANOTHER HAS DIARRHEA.

≡ HOW MANY TOILETS SHOULD BE CONSTRUCTED?

≡ HOW MUCH WATER IS NEEDED IN 24 HOURS?

Tell participants to answer the questions individually and quickly, and then collect the answers on the board or flipchart. Numbers may range widely.

Discussion:

1. Ask the group how to resolve the problem raised by different assumptions. (As with many emergency reports, some of the information is not relevant to the problem).
2. Emphasize the importance of calculating the total population before estimating needs.
3. The total population will be 150 people in the school, plus 5 X 170 families (estimating five persons per family) = 1000 people in total.
4. Sphere Minimum Standards suggest 15 litres per person = 1,500 litres. Twenty people for a toilet means 50 toilets are required. Two are already there, so 48 more are needed.

Conclusion:

Agreements about standards are essential for a coordinated response.

3.2 ACTIVITY – A Possible AGENDA for an Emergency Planning two-day Workshop (spread over three days)

This workshop structure has been used many times and it can be run with the information and activities contained in this booklet. The format allows travel/office work on the first and last days. If run as a residential course it makes two evenings available for homework or other activities. Starting with lunch means latecomers do not miss the commencement of the course – they just miss lunch! Several films are available to illustrate community preparedness. But the film can be replaced with a group activity.

The major outcome of the workshop is the production of a first draft of an Emergency Plan. Experience has shown this is best done within the workshop and not left as a follow-up activity.

The course progresses from a predominance of facilitator input sessions to a final group activity that practices all the included principles.

Aim

- ≡ to be better prepared, by working with others, for emergency situations

Objectives

- ≡ to share experiences about emergency preparedness
- ≡ to discuss scenarios, early warning, decision making, collaboration, stock piling, standards, communications, training beneficiaries, needs assessment, and other aspects of emergency planning
- ≡ to be aware of the impact of emergencies on vulnerable groups
- ≡ to design an emergency preparedness plan
- ≡ to develop a process for emergency planning
- ≡ to agree on future actions

Day 1

| | |
|-------|---|
| 12.30 | LUNCH |
| 13.30 | Introduction to the workshop Where are we now and where should we be? Emergency language and the emergency cycle Emergency scenarios – group discussions |
| 15.00 | BREAK Flash News – individual activity. |
| 15.30 | Sphere Minimum Standards and Humanitarian Principles |
| 17.00 | Emergency indicators and emergency planning |
| 18.00 | Course ends |
| | Evening work – prepare for Day 3 Sphere Simulation exercise |

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Day 2

- 09.00 Participant group work on Emergency Preparedness Plan outline
What decisions should be taken at the outset of emergencies?
- 10.00 BREAK
- 10.30 Film (15 minutes) on community preparedness
e.g. “We Are Not Afraid of Cyclones” (Oxfam Bangladesh).
Discussion on lessons learned
Early warning systems
- 12.30 LUNCH
- 13.30 Factors affecting vulnerable groups during emergency and disaster responses, and solutions in preparedness
- 15.00 BREAK
- 15.30 Site planning and planning tools
- 17.00 ‘Grab bag’ exercise
- 18.00 Course ends

Day 3

- 09.00 Sphere Simulation – Planning for mass migration
- 11.30 Presentation of plans by groups
- 12.30 What have we learned? Where do we go from here?
Final assessment and course end
- 13.00 LUNCH

3.3 ACTIVITY – Site planning exercise

Identify a local area close to the workshop venue then ask participants to consider the following:

| Planning feature | Yes/No | Action |
|--|--------|--------|
| All natural hazards, i.e. areas of open water, marshes, unstable ground (landslides) etc. | | |
| All man-made hazards, i.e. busy roads, unsafe buildings, disused septic tanks or refuse dumps etc. | | |
| Provision for supply and protection of clean potable water, taking into account height of the water table, location of sanitation facilities and above areas liable to flooding/waterlogging. Has rainwater harvesting been considered? | | |
| Sanitation and washing facilities (maximum of 20 people per latrine), located on higher well-drained land, with constant availability of water for washing and measures to protect ground water sources. Sanitation facilities should be located downwind and the location must ensure protection for use by women and children at all times. | | |
| Location of cooking areas/facilities which minimise fire risk and the effects of smoke and fumes on neighbouring communities. Provision of fuel-efficient stoves. | | |
| Surface water drainage, taking into account flooding hazards and local weather conditions. Utilising natural drainage systems where possible and protecting shelters and communal areas. | | |
| Shelters arranged in clusters to facilitate community activities and minimise the risk of conflict sensitivity. | | |
| Shelters positioned to minimise the clearance of trees and maximise shading and protection from prevailing high winds. Shelter orientated to enable air flow up the pitched roof. | | |
| Delineation of major and minor routes across the site, public communal areas (i.e. play, meeting areas) and private spaces around shelters. | | |
| Proposals for future refuse and sewage removal and disposal and/or expansion in services. | | |
| Proposals for educational, health or recreational facilities or areas | | |
| Areas identified to support livelihoods activities around the locality of individual shelters and as common areas i.e. grazing of livestock, cultivation, storage of equipment, workshop / fabrication areas | | |
| Areas of common land and natural resources for use by resettled families and/or neighbouring communities | | |
| Arrangements for disposal of the dead | | |

3.4 ACTIVITY – The Application of Sphere Minimum Standards in Camp Design: a simulation

NOTES FOR FACILITATORS

1. This exercise is suitable for the afternoon of a one-day Introduction to Sphere Workshop when the morning has been spent reviewing the Humanitarian Charter and the Technical Chapters of the Sphere Minimum Standards. (Such an arrangement provides a stimulating activity that is intended to combat post-lunch malaise!). It can also be used to reinforce key messages from a workshop on Emergency Preparedness.
2. Provide a flip-chart map for each team. This will be roughly to the scale of 1cm: 1 km.
3. Provide each team with a block of Post-its of a different colour. If the square Post-it size of 7.5 X 7.5 cm is selected, each note will represent a 75-meter square containing 320 people. This will facilitate fast layout planning and a distinctive plenary presentation. (The main purpose of the exercise is not to ascertain the maximum number that can be accommodated, but to consider the Key Indicators that need to be kept in mind while implementing Sphere Minimum Standards).
4. The data provided are intended to reflect a 'normal' situation, i.e. some are not relevant. Other information could be used to anticipate problems in the immigrant population.
5. The buildings are large and could have various uses depending on the creativity of the teams. This size has been utilised for the ease of scaling. Facilitators may prefer to reduce the size of the buildings for their own exercises.
6. Documentation has been kept to a minimum to allow the exercise to be constrained to three hours. There may be an advantage in circulating the document before the training day, or at the beginning of the workshop.
7. Participants can be allocated to teams or asked to sign up in teams of their choice.
8. The number of teams can be adjusted by combining some or adding others, but the more teams there are, the longer will be the feedback process. Ideally, teams should not contain more than five or six participants.
9. The facilitator can adopt several roles – Government Agent, donor representative, community leader, site owner. Sometimes, you may not be available!
10. At the end, check that participants have calculated numbers dying and a method/location for body disposal.

Aim

- ≡ to understand the importance and application of the Sphere Minimum Standards in camp planning and management

Objectives

- ≡ to consider the factors of significance in camp planning
- ≡ to understand how to apply Sphere Minimum Standards in camps
- ≡ to know and to practise the importance of coordination of emergency activities
- ≡ to appreciate the need for establishing longer term goals with the community

INTRODUCTION

Any humanitarian worker in Sri Lanka can be involved with the design, management and maintenance of camps for internally displaced persons (IDPs). Your role may be as a leader or team member. A common emergency scenario is for hundreds or thousands of people to arrive in a new location. They may be tired, frightened, hungry, thirsty, sick or wounded, in need of shelter... and unexpected. Sometimes there is enough warning to organize the camp (or Welfare Centre) in advance. More often, the initial situation is chaotic and the migrant population may need to be organized or relocated into transitional camps in the process of care and rehabilitation (as in this activity).

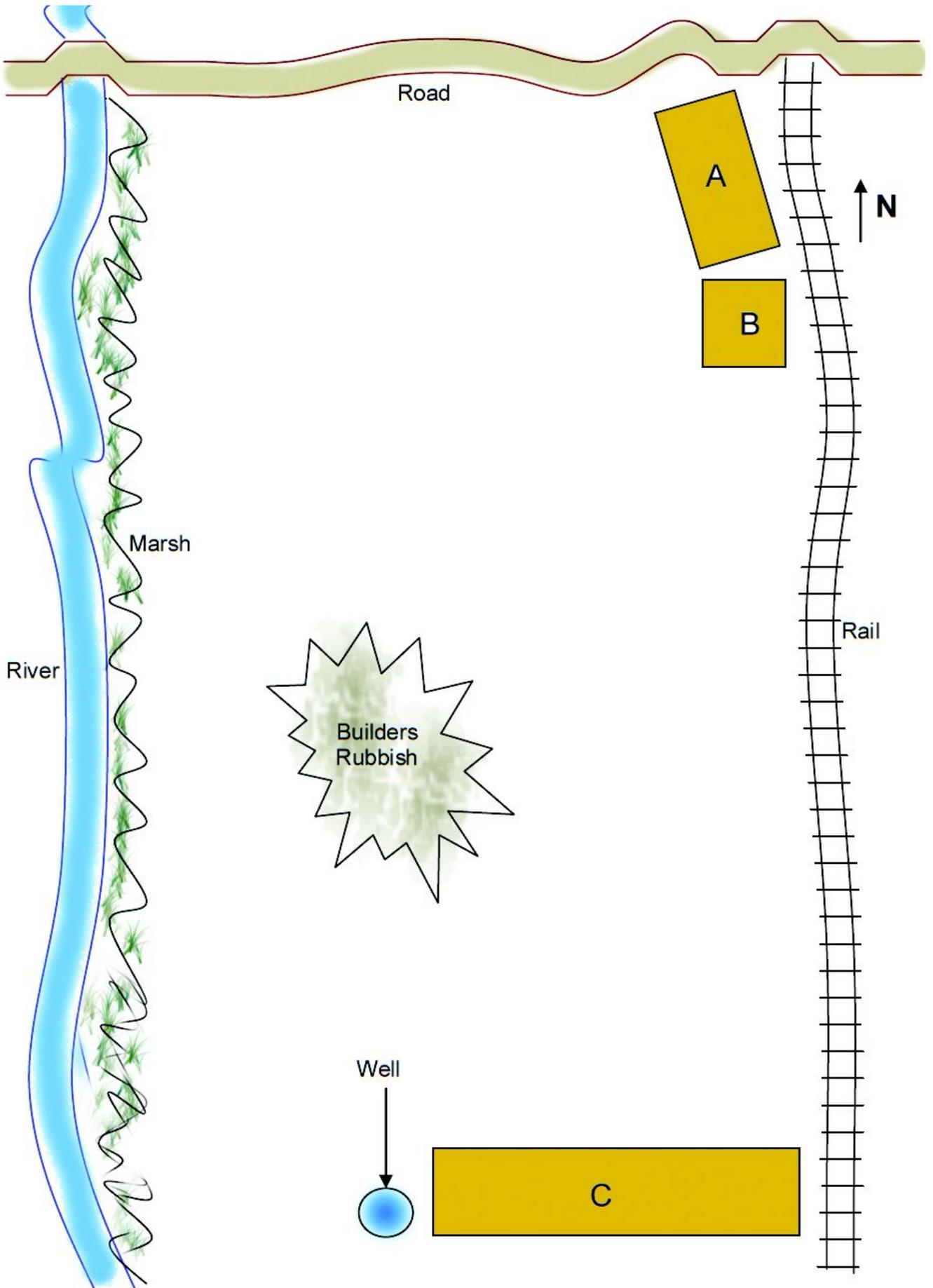
EXERCISE

In this exercise you will be involved in the relocation of IDPs from another site 50 km away. This original site to the north is becoming overcrowded and conditions are deteriorating. The government will arrange the selection of refugees for relocation and their transport to the new accommodation. As the situation is becoming urgent, the government has decided that the relocation will take place within four weeks from today.

SCENARIO

1. A farmer has offered a piece of land to assist the Government with the relocation of IDPs. He says he is poor and needs a donation of Rs 100 a square meter. The land is about 750 metres (north-south) by 500 metres (east-west).
2. The land offered by the farmer is rough and infertile. It is bordered on the west by a river and on the east by a used railway track. On the northern boundary is a road link, leading northwards, in a condition suitable for lorries. To the south of the proposed plot is a further piece of land of similar size that is densely forested. It is owned and managed badly by the local authority so the existing trees are scrubby, diseased and of little value. The proposed plot has a slope from east to west with an average of 3% fall but the marginal strip about 10 metres wide adjoining the river is marshy, especially in the rainy season. In the middle of the plot is a huge pile of builders' rubbish left from the remains of earlier buildings. The site contains three buildings left from a disused railway station:
A is located in the north-east corner and is in good condition (75 X 150 metres)
B is close to A and is also in good condition (75 X 75 metres)
C is located on the southern border. It is a derelict shed with open sides and a leaking roof but constructed on a concrete base (225 X 75 metres). Close to the western end of the shed is a well.

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3. Fifty km north of the proposed relocation site is the original camp with about 16,000 registered IDPs. Rumours suggest that there could be as many as 20,000 in total as others have moved into the area and joined the camp without registration. You have been given a summary report by a government official that includes the following information:

| Government Assessment Information on Existing IDP Camp | | | |
|--|---|--|---|
| Type of information | Qualitative Aspects | Quantitative Aspects | Source |
| Population | Adults and children appear healthy from windshield survey and brief tour around central administrative block and schools | Local office official population figures show 16,450 IDPs presently registered in the camp | UNHCR registration data – compiled from previous 10 years history in the camp |
| Population | IDP leaders seem to be well organised and capable | IDP leaders say that there are at least 20,000 IDPs currently in the camp due to new influxes | IDP leadership |
| Deaths | Some deaths in children reported to be due to measles/complications | 200 people have died in the last two months | Clinics, correlated with requests for burial shroud. |
| Illness | Measles outbreak reported last month | Local public health NGO reports 50% of all medical complaints relate to diarrhoeas | Local Public Health NGO doctor and staff |
| Water | Water source is combined from small local river and shallow wells. River source is not controlled, but wells are well made and protected with a concrete apron and hand-pump. There are always long lines at the hand pumps | Estimated 30,000 litres of water from hand-pumps available per day River source provides potential 500 cu. m. of water per hour, actual consumption from this source not measured | Local NGO hand-pump programme director |
| Sanitation | Site looks clean, although numerous public latrines stink badly | 650 public pit latrines have been constructed under a local programme | Sanitation/shelter NGO programme director and IDP sanitation team leader |
| Site area | Site looks very bare. Large areas of standing water are in and around the camp, especially near water taps and washing areas | One square kilometre provided by Government from National Park property. Roughly one half of this is unusable due to low lying swampy areas | Ministry of Interior and aerial photography |

BETTER WAYS TO PREPARE FOR EMERGENCIES

| | | | |
|------------------|---|---|---|
| Shelter | Most shelters are self-built with plastic sheeting used for additional protection on the roof | Analysis of aerial photography reveals approximately 4,000 separate shelters, each approximately 12 sq. m | Air photography, verified through on-site correlation of sample areas |
| Nutrition | People on the street look thin, but healthy | There has not been a recent nutritional survey, but the total food aid provided amounts to the equivalent of 1800 kcal/person/day | WFP logistician, distribution centre officials, warehouse records |

TEAMS

You will join one of the following 5 teams:

1. Public Health
2. Food/Nutrition
3. Water and Sanitation
4. Shelter, Buildings and Services
5. Site Planning

1. Public Health

Your team will need to monitor the health of the incoming refugees and, from available data, determine the health care procedures that need to be put in place to prevent deterioration and to improve health care.

2. Food/Nutrition

Food will have to be brought in from other locations. A distribution system will need to be put in place for the refugees in the transit camp.

3. Water and Sanitation

Water is available at the warehouse from a well located at one end of the block, and from the river. You will need to design and manage the wat/san system. Two days ago an outbreak of cholera was reported at the camp to the north. The Ministry of Health is unable to help. Your team must plan for the wat/san needs of the IDPs.

4. Shelter, Buildings and Services

The site where the IDPs will be housed is located in the middle of your country. During an earlier period the shed contained large stores of munitions. More recently the military has been leasing it to a private petro-chemical firm for storage of industrial solvents. The Red Cross/Red Crescent has agreed to make available to the relocation effort a supply of ridge tents if needed.

5. Site Planning

Your goal is to make sure all planning activities taking place are well coordinated. You will assemble the information provided by the other groups and facilitate the regular sharing of information between the groups.

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TASKS

1. Chose a facilitator who agrees to manage the discussion in your group and keep it on track
2. Choose a reporter who will record the discussion
3. Decide who will make the report to the plenary group
4. Determine how many IDPs can be relocated on your proposed site with the adoption of the Sphere Minimum Standards
5. Prepare a plan and a time frame to achieve the objectives of establishing Sphere Minimum Standards to accommodate the influx of IDPs
6. If you have time, consider the longer-term community goals. What other issues might need to be important for the longer term?
7. Coordinate with the other teams as necessary
8. **There are no rules – everything is negotiable**

Some Sphere Minimum Standards and Indicators

| TOPIC/AREA/ISSUE | SPHERE INDICATOR |
|--|---|
| WATER | |
| Quantity | 15 litres per person per day collected |
| Delivery | Taps provide flow rate of at least 0.125 litres per second |
| | At least one water point per 250 people |
| Quality | No faecal coliforms per 100 ml at point of delivery |
| | For piped systems – residual free chlorine at tap is 0.2-0.5 mg per litre and turbidity is less than 5 national turbidity units (NTU) |
| | Dissolved solids no more than 1,000 mg per litre |
| HYGIENE | |
| Soap | 250 g soap per person per month |
| Laundry | 1 washing basin per 100 people |
| Toilets/latrines | Maximum 20 people per toilet |
| Refuse bins | 100 l container per 10 families |
| Refuse pits | No shelter farther than 15 m from container or 100 m from communal refuse pit |
| CAMP SITE | |
| Gross area | 45 m ² per person (inclusive of all uses except agriculture or garden) |
| Dimensions/distances | Maximum distance between shelter and toilets is 50 metres |
| Firebreaks | 2m between shelters, 6m between clusters of shelters, 15 m between blocks of clusters |
| Distance between wells/springs and latrines | Latrines farther than 30m from ground water sources and 1.5 metres above water table |
| | Maximum distance from any shelter to water point is 500 metres |
| Elevation/drainage | 3 metres above high water table |
| | 2-4% gradient (ideal) and not more than 7% without extensive site engineering |

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| SHELTER | |
|---|---|
| Shelter Area | 3.5-4.5 m ² covered area per person |
| Plastic sheeting for temporary shelter | 4m x 6m sheet per household of 5 people. |
| FOOD/NUTRITION | |
| Calories | 2,100 kcals per day (initial planning figure to be modified based on thorough demographic analysis of population) |
| Makeup | 10-12% total energy from protein 17% total energy from fat |
| NON-FOOD ITEMS (DOMESTIC NEEDS) | |
| Water containers | 2 vessels 10-20 l for collecting plus 1 X 20 l vessel for water storage, narrow necks and covers |
| Eating Utensils | 1 cooking pot with lid 1 basin 1 kitchen knife 2 wooden spoons 1 plate per person 1 spoon per person 1 mug per person |
| Location | 50 km from threat (border?) |

3.5 ACTIVITY – Knots

This game can be introduced to a workshop or meeting to demonstrate that beneficiaries actually know the solutions to their own problems. This can be added as a diversion or energiser into what might otherwise be a long session on site planning.

A dozen or more young people are invited from the participants to form a circle and hold hands. They must not let go as they represent a closely-knit community. One 'cooperative' member of the group is asked to wait outside the area/room for a few minutes. The group in the circle is then asked to tangle themselves, still holding hands, by climbing over or under the arms of others. The 'community' now has a problem. The 'consultant' is invited back into the group and told that culturally it is not acceptable to touch the members, so s/he should give instructions to resolve (untangle) the community problem. After a few minutes, it becomes evident that the 'consultant' is not able to help. However, when the participants are asked to untangle themselves they can do so within seconds!



Comment

This activity needs to be handled sensitively as some groups may not be comfortable with the close proximity of other genders in public. This can also be a topic for valuable discussion.

Conclusion

Beneficiaries should be consulted at all stages of emergency planning, response and recovery. They know what they need.

3.6 ACTIVITY – The Firearms line

Introduction

It is a sad reality that, as humanitarians often work in conflict and dangerous areas, they are occasionally subject to kidnapping or death as they try to maintain their neutrality between two or more opposing factions. They are there to help the innocent people caught in the cross-fire but they may get caught up themselves.



Aim

This exercise helps workshop participants to formulate and argue their stance in relation to the ethical issue of whether or not they should be provided with armed protection in the field.

Method

Fix a string or adhesive tape in a straight line across the floor just long enough to accommodate all participants. One end represents 'No firearms protection' and the other end 'armed security protection'. Ask all participants to arrange themselves along the line in a place that represents their opinion. Each will need to exchange views with the person on either side to ensure that they are standing in the appropriate place.

Once the line is stabilised, people can return to their places to continue or debate their ideas under the guidance of the facilitator.

Time required

About thirty minutes.

3.7 ACTIVITY – ‘Grab Bag’ Exercise

Introduction

The main target of an emergency response is the group of beneficiaries who are vulnerable to becoming victims as an unprepared-for emergency turns into a disaster. Aid workers, however, are frequently found in hazard and conflict zones. They also need to be adequately prepared for the eventuality of running from the area to a fall-back location. This exercise focuses on what needs to be kept at hand in a ‘grab bag’ if sudden evacuation is a possibility.

Activity

Place a small rucksack in front of the participants and explain that it contains items essential for a three-day survival after fleeing an emergency situation. Give the participants three minutes to list the unseen contents of the bag and offer a prize to the winner.

Contents

Items can include passport/ID, first aid kit, Swiss army knife kit, spare clothes, map, water bottle, mobile phone, torch, snack bar/chocolate, string, money (local currency or US dollars), traveling tooth brush/paste, plastic rubbish bag (doubles as waterproof), insect repellent, pen/paper, spectacles, matches, balloons (to be used as a warning sign, or to make friends of village children) and a phrase book for non-native speakers.

Other Possible Items

A member of the group is asked to come to the front to unpack and describe the contained items, the value/appropriateness of which are then discussed. The participants may suggest in addition a head covering, radio, field glasses, satphone and other items. The value or otherwise can be discussed. The use of items will depend on climate, conflict and other situations. The winners receive the chocolate/snack bar (which the group may insist on sharing!)

Conclusion

Aid workers must protect themselves from emergencies otherwise they will become a further burden on the community they are trying to assist.

Note: This can be used as a ‘fun’ exercise (20 minutes) at the end of a long workshop day.

4 HELPFUL REFERENCES AND WEBSITES

Abarquez, I and Murshed, Z (2004) Field Practitioners Handbook (ADPC, Bangkok).

ADPC (2007) Community Based Disaster Risk Management. Participants handbook (CBDRM-15, Bangkok)

Davis, J and Lambert, R (2002). Engineering in Emergencies. A practical guide for relief workers 2nd Ed. (ITDG Publishing). ISBN: 1-85339-521-8.

De Silva, H (2003) Power Games in War and Peace. The tragic impact of corruption, violence and impunity on the Sri Lankan child. (Sharp Graphic House). ISBN: 955-95257-1-9.

Médecins Sans Frontières (1997). Refugee Health. An approach to emergency situations. (Macmillan Education, London and Oxford). ISBN: 0-333-722210-8.

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UNHCR (2000). Handbook for Emergencies. (UNHCR, Geneva).

Van Westen, C (2007) Multi Hazard Risk Assessment (ITC course, Netherlands)

Werner, D (1999). Disabled Village Children: a guide for community health workers, rehabilitation workers and families. (Hesperion Foundation). ISBN: 0-942364-06-6.

WHO (1996). Mental Health of Refugees. (WHO, Geneva). ISBN: 92-4-154486-4.

www.adpc.net. The Asian Disaster Preparedness Center (ADPC) is a non-profit organization supporting the advancement of safer communities and sustainable development, through implementing courses, programs and projects that reduce the impact of disasters upon countries and communities in Asia and the Pacific.

www.adrc.or.jp. The Asian Disaster Reduction Center has been established to facilitate exchange of disaster reduction experts, accumulate and provide disaster reduction information, and to carry out research into multinational disaster reduction.

www.aidworkers.net. This is a free site with about 6000 members. It contains news of humanitarian issues, and a valuable forum where questions can be posed eliciting practical answers.

www.ausaid. The site is big but time invested is well spent in order to find manuals on proposal writing and other areas.

www.developmentgateway.com.au. TorqAid (see website below) produces the Australian Aid Resource and Training Guide [Advice for those seeking to apply their skills in overseas aid projects](#), wanting [useful Australian and international contacts in the aid field](#), and [the main aid-related training courses on offer in Australia](#).

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www.fme-online.org. Financial management for emergencies is a web-based survival guide for humanitarian programme managers. The aim of the guide is to help you manage the financial resources in the critical first stages of an emergency.

www.networklearning.org. The purpose of this site is to make resources available, free, to NGOs working in the development or humanitarian fields. To help NGOs build skills, suggestions for other websites with good resources are given together with free manuals that include a distance learning module on “Refugees and Internally Displaced Persons” and a “Distance Learning Study Guide”.

www.redr.org/training. RedR-IHE runs a comprehensive programme of training courses for aid workers world-wide.

www.reliefweb.int. Provides emergency news, a full address list of organisations providing training activities, and a job vacancy advertising service.

www.sphereproject.org. This is the site of the Sphere Humanitarian Charter and Minimum Standards. It contains extensive information and training tools.

www.the-ecentre.net. The eCentre is the UNHCR Regional Centre for Emergency Training. It offers training, distance learning and internet programmes for emergency managers and other humanitarian workers.

www.torqaid.com. An Australian overseas aid consultancy specialising in Disaster Management, Training, Project Management, and Human Resource Management. For more information contact Chris Piper, TorqAid's Director/CEO, on piperbcm@iprimus.com.au.

www.worldbank.org. The Learning Section contains useful information about distance learning, communities of learning, and course catalogues, global development learning network and e-learning.

About the Author

Bryan Walker BSc MSc PhD CBiol FIBiol has followed careers in industry, hospitals, academia, the civil service and humanitarian work. After being Head of a University Department of Pharmacology for fifteen years he was appointed as one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Higher Education. Led by his late wife, he engaged part-time in voluntary work for Oxfam. His two sons, who have contributed much to this series of booklets, are also humanitarian workers with experience in Africa, Asia and Europe.

At the age of 50 Bryan Walker moved into full-time humanitarian employment working with the Voluntary Service Overseas, Oxfam, UNHCR, UNICEF, RedR-IHE, as a freelance consultant in Asia and Europe, and in Africa where he has recently been working for people with disabilities.

Bryan was in Sri Lanka at the time of the 2004 tsunami. He left UNICEF to join RedR UK for whom this booklet was originally written. The next two years were spent organising and running workshops in emergency management for government and non government agencies. These activities were extended to Afghanistan, Bangladesh and Pakistan. Such experiences have come together in this booklet.

Please contact the author through helmhelp@gmail.com with your views and comments. We are particularly interested to hear of changes or additions to website addresses.

Also available from Networklearning by the same author :

[An Introduction to Refugees and Internally Displaced Persons](#)

[A Guide to Voluntary and Humanitarian Work](#)

[Better Ways to Manage Meetings](#)

[Distance Learning: Study Guide](#)

[Having Healthy Babies: an Educational "Snakes and Ladders" Game](#)

[Better Ways to Stay Healthy in Asian Tropics](#)

[How to Succeed in Your Work](#)