

COORDINATION to SAVE LIVES

History and Emerging Challenges

OCHA

Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs

Policy Development and Studies Branch

This study was made possible through funding provided by Australia, Germany and Qatar. The study was drafted by Julia Steets and Claudia Meier (Global Public Policy Institute – GPPI) with Daniel Christensen, Natasha Kindergan and Daniel Pfister (OCHA). Disclaimer: The contents of this study do not necessarily represent the views of the United Nations or its Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA). © United Nations 2012. This publication enjoys copyright under Protocol 2 of the Universal Copyright Convention. No portion of this publication may be reproduced for sale of mass publication without the express and written consent from the United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA)/Policy Development and Studies Branch (PDSB).
For more information, please contact: Policy Development and Studies Branch (PDSB) UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) E-mail: ochapolicy@un.org Tel: +1 917 367 4263

CONTENTS

Foreword by Valerie Amos	iii
Executive Summary	V
Setting the stage	1
Part 1 A history of international humanitarian coordination	1
1991-1998 – Expansion in search of commitment	2
1998-2005 – Creation of OCHA and mandate refocus	4
2005-2010 – Humanitarian reform and consolidation	6
2011 and beyond	8
PART 2 Emerging Challenges: Increasing needs and the changing operating environment for humanitarian action	10
Drivers of humanitarian need: conflict, natural disasters and global challenges	10
The changing context for humanitarian action	14
Concluding Remarks	19

Foreword

by Valerie Amos

Every year, disasters and conflict cause immense suffering for millions of people —usually the world's poorest, most marginalized and vulnerable. Our humanitarian aid system strives to provide much needed life-saving help and support. We are reminded every day of the importance of our work, and of our duty to make our system as effective as possible.

Effective coordination is the hidden force multiplier in emergency response. With coordination, one plus one plus one does not equal three; it equals five, or ten. It reduces duplication and competition, and allows different agencies and organizations to complement each other and give added value. UN General Assembly resolution 46/182 put today's global humanitarian coordination mechanism in place. Important examples of our work since then, from advocacy to fundraising, from policy development to information management, are detailed in this study. The study also sets out the ongoing and emerging challenges which face us and identifies the opportunities to be harnessed.

I would like to thank everyone who has made this study possible, particularly the Governments of Australia, Germany and Qatar, and my predecessors as Emergency Relief Coordinator. I hope you will find their accounts as fascinating and inspiring as I have. To shape our future, we must understand our past, and I hope this study makes a small contribution to us doing so.



Under-Secretary-General for Humanitarian Affairs and Emergency Relief Coordinator



Executive Summary

Over the two decades since General Assembly Resolution 46/182 was passed, the multilateral coordination system, including the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA), has adapted to rapidly changing circumstances.

The Emergency Relief Coordinator and the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC), the Consolidated Appeals Process (CAP) and the Central Emergency Response Fund (CERF) remain the cornerstones of humanitarian coordination. But the number of people in need of humanitarian assistance has grown significantly; the number of people targeted for humanitarian assistance through the CAP has almost doubled in the past decade.

Looking ahead, humanitarian needs are expected to continue to rise in the coming decades, because of an increase in the frequency and intensity of natural disasters, rapid population growth, urbanization, rising food prices and other global trends. The increase should be mitigated by continued economic growth in many of the countries most likely to be affected by disasters, making them better able to prepare and respond and to reduce their vulnerability to the impact of shocks. However, this study concludes that overall, additional needs will outweigh improved coping capacities.

Conflicts continue to be a key driver of humanitarian needs, and this is likely to continue. The trend of the militarization of aid will continue to present a challenge, and we will need to continue our strong advocacy to keep our work independent, impartial and neutral.

Advances in information technology are an important development that will help to improve the accuracy and timeliness of humanitarian assessments and response and provide new opportunities for creative advocacy.

The number of humanitarian actors is likely to increase as governments and NGOs from emerging economies become engaged in humanitarian work. This will represent a challenge for humanitarian coordination and an opportunity to bring additional engagement and resources to the humanitarian effort.

As humanitarian requirements escalate, there will be a need for governments and humanitarian organizations to anticipate, prepare for and respond to crises more successfully, and to improve their analytical capabilities to understand how global trends and challenges affect vulnerability and needs.

Our internal reforms over the years include the introduction of the Cluster approach in 2005, to make the system more effective. The next phase of the reform process, the IASC Transformative Agenda, aims to improve the leadership, coordination and accountability of the system. OCHA and its partners will need to continue to develop and adapt to meet the evolving challenges.

PART 1

A history of international humanitarian coordination

Humanitarian coordination has evolved significantly. This first part of the report traces the forces, tensions, opportunities and shocks that have shaped its development over the past decades.

Setting the stage

An actor entirely dedicated to coordinating international humanitarian action is a relatively recent development. Before the Second World War, only a small number of organizations were dedicated to humanitarian assistance, and the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) led the way. Noticeable early coordination attempts were either short lived or concentrated in immediate post-Second World War Europe. With the founding of the United Nations (UN) in 1945, humanitarian coordination received more universal attention, as the first article of the UN's charter calls for international cooperation for solving "problems of a humanitarian character." However, in the early days of the UN there was no formal push to establish a single coordinating body.

Over the following decades, an increasing number of specialized UN and non-UN organizations joined the humanitarian community. However, the large-scale emergencies of the 1960s and 1970s—the Biafra crisis, the earthquake in Peru, the cyclone in East Pakistan and the Indo-Pakistani war—highlighted the need for a dedicated coordination capacity. In 1971, with General Assembly resolution 2816, UN Member States created the Disaster Relief Coordinator position and established the UN Disaster Relief Organization (UNDRO). It had a strong mandate to mobilize, direct and coordinate UN humanitarian assistance to natural disasters, and to coordinate UN assistance with the activities of non-UN actors.³

UNDRO had limited financial and personnel capacities to fulfil and translate its mandate into robust coordination mechanisms. As a result, the organization tended to be overshadowed by parallel, separate coordination arrangements established for specific humanitarian situations, such as the Office of Emergency Operations in Africa (OEOA), or the UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian and Economic Assistance Programmes relating to Afghanistan (UNOCA).⁴ The "lead agency" concept—the practice of designating the operationally best-placed UN agency as lead for a specific response—was increasingly used and eventually formalized by the General Assembly in 1981.⁵ The UN often discussed rationalizing these diverse coordination models, but major decisions in this area were taken only in the 1970s and 1980s.⁶

Humanitarian Principles

Humanity

Human suffering must be addressed wherever it is found. The purpose of humanitarian action is to protect life and health and ensure respect for human beings.

Impartiality

Humanitarian action must be carried out on the basis of need alone, giving priority to the most urgent cases of distress and making no distinctions on the basis of nationality, race, gender, religious belief, class or political opinions.

Neutrality

Humanitarian actors must not take sides in hostilities or engage in controversies of political, racial, religious or ideological nature.

Independence (added in 2004 through General Assembly Resolution 58/114)
Humanitarian action must be autonomous from the political, economic, military or other objectives that any actor may hold with regard to areas where humanitarian action is being implemented.

The Gulf War of 1990-1991 and the Kurdish refugee crisis at the Iraq-Turkey border towards the end of the war highlighted the need for a dedicated and more empowered humanitarian coordination entity. As the latter crisis unfolded, a large number of Kurds became trapped within Iraq and many were left without assistance. Technically, UNDRO was in charge of coordination, but mandates for assistance to internally displaced persons (IDPs) were unclear. In addition, military forces were actively engaged in relief, which required humanitarians to coordinate with them.⁷ In this context, UNDRO did not manage to effectively coordinate humanitarian response, and subsequently UNHCR was designated as lead agency in early 1991. However, the coordinated response came too late to avert a high and rising death toll and suffering among IDPs. In the aftermath of the crisis, Member States and humanitarian organizations called for the placing of humanitarian coordination and leadership higher on the political agenda. The 1991 G7 summit in London suggested the appointment of a highlevel humanitarian official answerable only to the UN Secretary-General to "strengthen the coordination, and to accelerate the effective delivery, of all UN relief for major disasters."8 The end of the cold war opened the door to reform. While the previous super-power stalemate had effectively paralysed some of the UN decision-making bodies, by 1991 the organization was revitalized and the General Assembly was ready to take on the strengthening of humanitarian assistance and coordination.

1991-1998 - Expansion in search of commitment

However, reaching agreement still required serious political bargaining among Member States. In October 1991, the Secretary-General's report9 on reviewing coordination arrangements for humanitarian assistance set out ideas for reform. Member States subsequently developed a draft resolution under the leadership of Swedish Ambassador Jan Eliasson. Almost all accepted the need for stronger coordination in disasters and complex emergencies. At the same time, there was a growing discussion amongst Member States on intervention in internal affairs, with memories of cold war superpower interference in domestic affairs still fresh. Some Member States feared that the proposed resolution would legitimize foreign interventions under a humanitarian guise. After difficult negotiations, Member States managed to balance concerns for national sovereignty with support for humanitarian coordination. They agreed on a list of guiding principles for humanitarian action including humanity, neutrality and impartiality, as well as the respect for sovereignty, territorial integrity and national unity of States. Late in the evening of 19 December 1991, the General Assembly adopted resolution 46/182.

The resolution provided a forward-looking and comprehensive framework for international humanitarian assistance and coordination that still holds today. It transformed the previous Disaster Relief Coordinator into the Emergency Relief Coordinator (ERC) who would be responsible for coordinating and facilitating the humanitarian assistance of the UN system and serve as a central focal point with Governments and non-governmental organizations (NGOs). The ERC would administer the Consolidated Appeal Process (CAP)

to coordinate funding appeals, and the Central Emergency Revolving Fund, a pooled donor fund of initially \$50 million. The Inter- Agency Standing Committee (IASC) was created as the central coordination platform for humanitarian UN organizations, NGOs and the Red Cross and Red Crescent movement, under the ERC's chairmanship.

The Consolidated Appeal Process (CAP)

The CAP is much more than an appeal for money. It is a tool used by aid organizations to plan, implement and monitor their activities. Since its inception, the CAP has become a main tool for coordination, strategic planning and programming. As a planning mechanism, the CAP has contributed significantly to developing a more strategic approach to the provision of humanitarian aid. As a coordination mechanism, the CAP has fostered closer cooperation between Governments, donors and aid agencies, in particular UN agencies, NGOs and members of the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement. Speaking with a common voice, UN agencies and NGOs have been able to raise funds for immediate action, demand greater protection, get better access to vulnerable people, and work more effectively with governments and other actors. Since 1992, well over 100 donor countries have provided more than \$42 billion for 330 appeals to address the needs of people in more than 50 countries and regions.

Under Jan Eliasson's leadership as the first ERC, the Department of Humanitarian Affairs (DHA) was established in April 1992 as the coordination secretariat. As the department was quite small, it took some years before it was able to fulfil its extensive mandate as laid out in resolution 46/182.

The department focused on institutionalizing its field coordination services that were seen as adding value to the broader humanitarian community. It strengthened its surge capacity by deploying more of the then-new UN Disaster Assessment and Coordination (UNDAC) teams. In parallel, the IASC strengthened the independent stature of the Humanitarian Coordinators (HCs) and endorsed generic terms of reference for them in 1994.

Emergency Relief Coordinators 1991 to present

Mr. Jan Eliasson	January 1992 – February 1994	
Mr. Peter Hansen	March 1994 – February 1996	
Mr. Yasushi Akashi	March 1996 – December 1997	
Mr. Sergio Vieira de Mello	January 1998 – January 2001	
Ms. Carolyn McAskie*	November 1999 – January 2001	
Mr. Kenzo Oshima	January 2001 – June 2003	
Mr. Jan Egeland	June 2003 – December 2006	
Mr. John Holmes	January 2007 – September 2010	
Ms. Valerie Amos	September 2010 – present	
*Emergency Relief Coordinator ad interim		

Under ERC Peter Hansen, information management developed into a key service of DHA.¹⁰ At the global level, this included the establishment of IRIN—Integrated Regional Information Networks, which provides reporting from the frontline of humanitarian action to cover gaps in the mainstream media, and ReliefWeb, a web-based platform for sharing disaster-specific information.

Starting in 1992, a collaborative project on the use of military and civil defence assets (MCDA) in disaster relief was established by DHA and NATO. The project aimed to maximize existing government capacities to support relief operations after natural disasters. Within the project, the "Guidelines on the Use of Military and Civil Defence Assets" ("Oslo Guidelines") were developed and released in May 1994. Revised in 2007, the Oslo Guidelines still serve as the main guiding tool when using the military in disaster relief.

The early 1990s also saw the operating environment for humanitarian organizations become increasingly complex. The wars in the Balkans, the Great Lakes region and Somalia led to a wave of political pressure to use assisting States' militaries to support the delivery of humanitarian assistance. Humanitarian action became politically more sensitive as Member States and the UN Security Council sought to address the fallout from political crises in a more comprehensive manner, including the humanitarian, human rights and economic dimensions. Peacekeeping forces also became more habitual players in the humanitarian arena. Safeguarding space for impartial, neutral and independent assistance to people in need therefore required stronger policy and advocacy efforts.

At the same time, the genocide and civil wars in Rwanda and the Great Lakes region in 1994 raised questions about the international community's willingness to act. Despite clear warning signs, the international community did not take action to prevent the deaths of 800,000 people during the genocide. Poorly managed humanitarian relief operations following the civil war could not stop tens of thousands dying in camps. 12 The severity of the crisis led to a first comprehensive review of the international relief effort and pushed humanitarian organizations to further professionalize their assistance.¹³ DHA also commissioned a review of its role.¹⁴ The evaluation concluded that DHA needed a clearer mandate, more flexibility, some independent resources and greater authority to operate credibly. 15 DHA started investing more in developing system-wide policy and advocacy under ERCs Peter Hansen and Yasushi Akashi. This coincided with greater efforts outside the UN to develop standards and professionalize assistance. For example, in December 1994 humanitarian organizations adopted the Code of Conduct for the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement and NGOs, and launched the Sphere standards handbook project in 1997.¹⁶

1998–2005 – Creation of OCHA and mandate refocus

With a focus on the challenges to humanitarian coordination since resolution 46/182, Secretary-General Kofi Annan prepared a report in 1997 on United Nations reform. It recommended that the UN retain a stand-alone, non-operational humanitarian coordination office. ¹⁷ Member States agreed

that this arrangement created fewer conflicts of interest than other possible coordination models. A non-operational coordination body would stand a better chance of earning the necessary trust to develop strong partnerships with other humanitarian organizations. In line with the Secretary-General's recommendations, some of DHA's operational responsibilities were transferred to other UN entities, and DHA was transformed into the leaner Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA). Responsibility for its disaster-preparedness mitigation activities was largely transferred to the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). DHA's mine-action mandate was transferred to the Department for Peacekeeping Operations and supervision of the Iraq programme to the Executive Office of the Secretary-General.¹⁸

OCHA focused at first on its internal management under the leadership of Sergio Vieira de Mello and his second deputy (and later ERC ad interim) Carolyn McAskie. They initiated a management-review process that involved staff members. Reform ideas focused on better management at all levels and how best to support OCHA's field offices, which had gained importance under Vieira de Mello. The process created a spirit of reform in the organization and rallied staff and managers around a common vision for OCHA's work.

Vieira de Mello's charisma and strong relationship with High Commissioner for Refugees Sadako Ogata helped to elevate OCHA's standing with its partners. An important success that created trust and confidence in OCHA was Vieira de Mello's leadership in bringing the first UN assessment mission to Kosovo during the NATO bombings. ¹⁹ The creation of rosters and standby capacity enabled OCHA to deploy personnel faster and to provide common services in the early phases of emergencies. In addition, OCHA's policy development and advocacy efforts led to much-needed progress regarding the protection of civilians and IDPs, two issues that were not addressed in General Assembly resolution 46/182. In 1999, OCHA contributed to the first dedicated report of the UN Secretary-General on the protection of civilians in armed conflict. This was followed by the landmark Security Council resolution 1265 on protection ²⁰

After a thorough review, the previously separate functions (response to natural disasters and response to complex emergencies) were merged. Meanwhile, a new challenge for the humanitarian system was brewing. A wave of political pressure on humanitarianism followed the 11 September 2001 attacks when a number of Member States increasingly focused their attention on so-called fragile and failing States, the alleged breeding grounds for terrorist networks. Many argued that "stabilizing" these States required an integrated approach, addressing foreign, security, development and humanitarian issues. Inside the UN, the integration debate had already started with the 2000 Brahimi Report. Integrated UN missions linked peacekeeping, development and humanitarian activities more closely than before. Some relief organizations felt the need to position themselves in this context and decide whether to adopt an integrationist or independent attitude.²¹ In addition, concerns for the security of humanitarian staff rose dramatically, especially after the 2003 Canal Hotel bombing in Baghdad, which claimed the lives of many UN staff members, including that of Sergio Vieira de Mello.

Due to attempts to integrate humanitarian action with other policy areas, which would have undermined the independence and neutrality of humanitarian action, and a lack of attention to forgotten crises, it became necessary for OCHA to increase its advocacy. Vieira de Mello had already started to brief the UN Security Council more regularly on humanitarian affairs. Under ERC Kenzo Oshima, OCHA designed a comprehensive advocacy strategy to convince political actors of the importance of respecting humanitarian law and principles, and to raise awareness of forgotten or overlooked crises.²² These activities received a boost when a range of donors agreed on the Good Humanitarian Donorship principles in 2003.²³ OCHA continued its advocacy efforts in the years that followed. In 2004, for example, then ERC Jan Egeland put the spotlight on the unfolding crisis in Darfur and brought the issue before the UN Security Council. As part of the UN Secretariat, OCHA was well-placed to raise humanitarian concerns in the political and security arms of the organization. However, many in the humanitarian community, particularly NGOs, saw this very proximity to the political and related military sphere as endangering the neutrality of humanitarian action. OCHA, with others, needed to address the demands for UN-wide integration and the need to maintain neutrality of humanitarian action. Somewhat overshadowed by the attention to complex emergencies, natural hazards continued to claim many lives.

As in earlier years, large-scale, highly visible crises, such as the Darfur crisis, which began in 2003, and the 2004 Indian Ocean tsunami, uncovered limitations in the humanitarian response system and triggered the next major developments in humanitarian coordination. Evaluations carried out under the umbrella of the Tsunami Evaluation Coalition and the Humanitarian Response Review, an independent system-wide review following the Darfur experience, identified many areas where effectiveness had to improve. At the same time, UN Secretary-General Annan's report 'In Larger Freedom' and his High-Level Panel on System-Wide Coherence echoed the need for predictable standby arrangements, funding and strengthening field coordination for humanitarian response. The concerted voice of these reports gave ERC Egeland a strong mandate to reform the multilateral humanitarian coordination system.

2005-2010 - Humanitarian reform and consolidation

Egeland initiated a new "humanitarian reform" in an attempt to strengthen coordination, financing, leadership and partnership to provide more accountable, effective and predictable humanitarian response. Under Egeland and his successor John Holmes, humanitarian reform and its consolidation became a major focus area for OCHA and its partners.

A key element of the reform was the cluster approach. Lead organizations became responsible for organizing coordination in individual sectors of response, for example UNICEF for nutrition and the World Health Organization for health. At the global level, cluster leads provided policy guidance, maintained surge-capacity rosters and pre-positioned materials. At

the country and local levels, clusters led operational coordination through information exchange and common planning. Initially, the cluster approach met some resistance, as some Member States and NGOs had questions about the difference between clusters and traditional sector-based coordination forums and felt that they had not been sufficiently consulted. OCHA invested in clarifying how clusters were intended to work and how they linked to government mechanisms. Over the years, OCHA has taken on key tasks in support of clusters, such as facilitating the introduction of the cluster approach on the ground, guidance development, and organizing inter-cluster coordination at the national and local level.

To enhance predictability, flexibility and rapid response to humanitarian needs, humanitarian reform also strengthened pooled-funding mechanisms. At the global level, a grant facility of up to US\$450 million for rapid response and underfunded emergencies was added to the Central Emergency Revolving Fund's loan facility of up to \$50 million. The fund was, in 2006, renamed the Central Emergency Response Fund (CERF). It currently enjoys support from over 120 government and private-sector donors. At the country level, new country-based pooled funds enabled HCs to allocate funding to commonly agreed strategic priorities or underfunded areas.²⁴

Humanitarian Pooled Funds

OCHA supports the management of three types of pooled funds. The <u>Central Emergency Response Fund (CERF)</u> saves lives by providing rapid initial funding to UN agencies for life-saving assistance at the onset of humanitarian crises, and critical support for poorly funded, essential humanitarian response operations. Its objectives are to promote early and coordinated action and response to save lives; to enhance response to time-crucial requirements based on demonstrable needs; and to strengthen core elements of humanitarian response in under-funded crises.

The <u>Emergency Response Funds (ERFs)</u> were established to provide rapid and flexible funding to address unforeseen needs and gaps at the country level. ERFs increase opportunities for local actors, including NGOs, to respond to needs in areas where international NGOs face access challenges due to security or political constraints.

The <u>Common Humanitarian Funds (CHFs)</u> provide early and predictable funding to the most critical humanitarian needs, as identified and formulated in a CAP. However, CHFs also maintain an emergency reserve for responding to unplanned emergency needs outside the CAP. All humanitarian partners participating in the CAP process are eligible for CHF funding.

Humanitarian reform also sought to enhance leadership, primarily by strengthening the role and capacity of Resident and Humanitarian Coordinators (RC/HCs) at the country level. Much effort was made in training RC/HCs on humanitarian issues and strengthening the pool of candidates for HC positions. Accountability to the humanitarian system was strengthened through individual compacts for performance management between HCs and the ERC.

Partnership between core humanitarian UN organizations, the Red Cross movement and NGOs was consolidated when they jointly endorsed the Principles of Partnership in 2007. The principles commit signatories to respect equality, transparency, results orientation, responsibility and complementarity in their operations.

2011 and beyond

When the present ERC, Valerie Amos, took office in September 2010, the challenges for the humanitarian coordination system continued. Over the last few years, the international humanitarian system's capacity has been stretched to the limit by frequent and large-scale disasters, including Cyclone Nargis in Myanmar in 2008, the Haiti earthquake and the Pakistan floods in 2010, and the drought and famine in the Horn of Africa in 2011. At the same time, humanitarian actors were working in many other major emergency settings, including in protracted crises in Afghanistan, the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Sudan; Libya; and Côte d'Ivoire in 2011. In addition, there were many climate-related emergencies in Asia, Latin America and Africa. As of mid-2012, humanitarian agencies were also responding to a major drought-related food and nutrition crisis in the Sahel Region.

Under ERC Amos's leadership, the IASC decided to strengthen its response to disasters. Building on the achievements of the 2005 humanitarian reform and on lessons learnt from crises in 2010 and 2011, the IASC agreed on a set of recommendations, which would significantly improve humanitarian response and accountability to affected people. This 'Transformative Agenda' includes: establishing a mechanism to deploy experienced senior humanitarian leaders to guide the response effort from the onset of a major crisis; the rapid deployment of well-trained staff; improving strategic planning at the country level; enhancing accountability of Humanitarian Coordinators and members of Humanitarian Country Teams for achieving collective results; and streamlining coordination mechanisms.

A particular focus for OCHA under Amos's leadership has been improving OCHA's own field effectiveness, strengthening advocacy and building stronger partnerships with governments, regional organizations, private companies, civic groups and technology experts. Through high-level contacts and coordination at the operational level, OCHA is developing a new relationship with governments and humanitarian responders from the Islamic world, including through the signing of a memorandum of understanding with the Organization of Islamic Cooperation (OIC). OCHA has also expanded its partnership with the African Union and other organizations on the African continent. At the global level, OCHA supported the establishment, in 2011, of a new Member State forum, the Dialogue on Humanitarian Partnership (DHP), to enhance support for humanitarian work from a wide range of Member States.

The pressure on the system's capacity to deliver effectively, combined with the rise in the number of emergencies around the world, means that the humanitarian system will need to be flexible and responsive to remain relevant. Over the last few decades the multilateral coordination system, including OCHA, has adapted to changing circumstances and supported the implementation of necessary reforms. The humanitarian enterprise has grown significantly over the last decade. This growth can be seen through the CAP, which requested funding to assist almost twice as many people in the past decade—from 39 million people in 2002 to 68 million people in 2011.

Making humanitarian coordination work

The historical overview in the first part of this report shows how humanitarian coordination has evolved over the last decades. Today, humanitarian coordination comprises a set of interlinked actors and networks with different mandates and capacities and is a shared responsibility.

There are direct and indirect costs to humanitarian coordination, but the benefits outweigh the costs. Through coordination, humanitarian response is more strategic, predictable, timely and coherent. Coordination reduces duplication and competition, allowing for complementarity and for scarce resources to be used more effectively to reach more people and fill specific gaps in response to needs. It improves transparency and makes humanitarian response easier to understand, ultimately increasing accountability to affected people. Coordinated humanitarian action also facilitates the transition from relief to development. Coordination makes humanitarian assistance more effective and efficient, resulting in more lives saved.²⁵

The General Assembly, with resolution 46/182, charged the ERC, supported by an office, to coordinate and facilitate humanitarian assistance of the UN system, to coordinate with humanitarian and other actors outside the UN system, and to chair the IASC.²⁶ The ERC is also a designated humanitarian advocate ensuring that the humanitarian dimension, particularly the principles of humanity, neutrality and impartiality of relief assistance, are fully considered in the wider political, developmental and security agendas of the UN.²⁷

The ERC and OCHA provide services to support successful coordination. At the practical level, OCHA supports humanitarian coordination through five core functions: coordination, information management, policy and guidance, humanitarian financing and advocacy.

To be effective, coordination must build on partnership. The IASC at the global level and the Humanitarian Country Teams at the country level (both supported by OCHA) bring together the main operational players to agree on common objectives, priorities and strategies, as well as coordination structures in an emergency situation. OCHA plays an important part in strengthening relationships with national and local governments and authorities of affected States. OCHA maintains partnerships with UN Member States, the private sector, academia, other UN Secretariat entities, such as the Departments of Peacekeeping Operations and Political Affairs, and other relevant operational humanitarian and development actors.

To ensure successful coordination, coordination products and services need to be provided on a timely, demand-driven basis, be context specific, and provide incentives for others to engage in coordinated, principled humanitarian action.

PART 2

Emerging Challenges: Increasing needs and the changing operating environment for humanitarian action

This part of the report outlines the emerging challenges that the humanitarian community is facing. Conflicts and natural disasters will remain the main drivers of humanitarian needs. The number of people in need of humanitarian help is expected to increase due to the increased frequency and severity of disasters coupled with increased vulnerabilities resulting from global trends. These trends include climate change, population growth, urbanization, environmental degradation and resource scarcity. At the same time, advances in information technology and the increasing wealth of emerging economies present new opportunities for making humanitarian response more effective and for engaging a wider group of actors in the global humanitarian effort.

Drivers of humanitarian need: conflict, natural disasters and global challenges

Conflict and natural disasters

The numbers of interstate and intrastate conflicts have steadily declined over the past 20 years. However, protracted and some new conflicts still affect tens of millions of people, and the number of people internally displaced by armed conflict around the world has been increasing—from about 17 million in 1997 to an estimated 26.4 million people at the end of 2011.²⁸ The effects of armed conflicts are mostly felt by the most vulnerable in communities, destroying lives and livelihoods and resulting in massive needs, including in Afghanistan, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Somalia and Sudan.

The frequency and intensity of natural disasters has also been increasing. Between 2000 and 2011, more than one natural disaster with a humanitarian impact occurred every day.²⁹ The Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre estimated that in 2010, 42 million people were forced to flee due to disasters triggered by sudden-onset natural hazards.³⁰ The increasing magnitude of disaster impact is felt most acutely in the developing world with Africa and Asia the hardest hit. Over the last 30 years, people on these continents have made up approximately 88 per cent of the total number of reported deaths, and 96 per cent of the people affected by natural disasters.³¹ The geographical distribution, amount, intensity and frequency of disasters are changing and are predicted to accelerate.^{32, 33}

Due to population growth and urbanization, more people are living in areas exposed to natural hazards. Rapid economic and urban development will lead to a growing concentration of people in hazard-prone cities, fertile river valleys and coastal areas. Between 1970 and 2010, the average number of people exposed to flooding increased by 114 per cent (32.5 to 69.4 million annually). The global population increased by 87 per cent during the same period. This suggests that despite the risks, more people are moving to flood-prone areas. Populations are also growing in cyclone-prone areas.

Significant numbers of people in urban areas are vulnerable to humanitarian crises of moderate intensity. This is due to rapid, uncontrolled urban growth and densely populated informal settlements in hazard-prone locations, and the failure of urban authorities to regulate building standards and land-use. As more people are exposed to natural hazards in urban areas, humanitarian organizations will need to develop new approaches to humanitarian action, as the majority of tools developed for humanitarian response are designed for rural settings.³⁵

When natural hazards affect industrialized areas or installations, such as oil pipelines or dams, they can trigger technological and environmental disasters. The broken levees in New Orleans after Hurricane Katrina in 2005, and the Fukushima nuclear emergency after the Japanese earthquake and tsunami in 2011 show that even highly industrialized countries have difficulty protecting their infrastructure from extreme shocks. Risks are even higher in countries that are unable or unwilling to sufficiently protect hazard-prone infrastructure from extreme events. As weather-related hazards become more intense, they may exceed the limits that such infrastructure was designed to withstand. The humanitarian community may therefore have to respond more frequently to technological and environmental disasters, either separately or as part of a wider response to a natural disaster.

Global trends and increased humanitarian needs

The extent to which natural and human-induced hazards result in humanitarian emergencies depends on communities' vulnerability and resilience. For example, when a storm hits a slum where many poor people live in badly constructed houses, more people will require humanitarian assistance than if the same storm hits an affluent area where people live in well-constructed homes. Therefore, the effects of trends such as population growth, resource scarcity, migration, urbanization and climate change on resilience and vulnerability are of great concern to humanitarians.

The world's population surpassed 7 billion during 2011 and is expected to reach 8.4 billion by 2025.³⁸ The population of the 49 least developed countries is growing nearly twice as fast as the rest of the developing world.³⁹ Within those countries, population growth is fastest in cities and in the poorest, most vulnerable areas.⁴⁰ Population growth, especially in the poorest countries, will mean that the absolute number of vulnerable people will rise, and that more people will be exposed to the effects of natural and other hazards.

Resilience is the "ability of a system, community or society exposed to hazards to resist. absorb, accommodate and recover from the effects of a hazard in a timely and efficient manner, including through the preservation and restoration of its essential basic structures and functions." (ISDR, 2009)

Vulnerability refers to the "characteristics and circumstances of a community, system or asset that make it susceptible to the damaging effects of a hazard" that can arise from "various physical, social, economic and environmental factors." (ISDR, 2009) Population growth will also put pressure on food, water and energy resources. While economic growth generally has benefits for people's resilience, by allowing them to build up assets and construct higher-quality housing, it can exacerbate this pressure because as people become more affluent, their demand for resources increases. Meeting the basic nutritional, water and energy needs of the world's population will therefore become increasingly difficult. At the same time, as demand for natural resources, such as food, water and land is increasing, ecosystem decline is reducing the capacity to provide these resources. With the growing population and changed consumption patterns, global food production will have to increase by 50 per cent by 2030.⁴¹ Yet the rate of growth of agricultural productivity is declining and is unlikely to match this rising demand.⁴²

Water is essential for survival. Yet, more than 1 billion people in developing countries do not have access to clean water. ⁴³ By 2030, 47 per cent of the world's population will live in areas of high water stress. ⁴⁴ Water scarcity represents a major political, economic and human rights issue, threatening to amplify conflict, food insecurity, and poor health and sanitation.

Pressure on energy resources is also likely to increase as a result of rising demand and dwindling supplies of conventional energy reserves. Increased demands for energy and declining resources have resulted in tripling oil prices since 2001, and energy demand may increase by an additional 45 per cent by 2030. High energy prices will contribute to food price rises as production costs increase and crops are diverted to produce biofuels.⁴⁵

Poor people are especially vulnerable to high prices and price volatility, since they spend a larger proportion of their income on basic commodities such as food, water and fuel. The food price increases of 2008 resulted in millions of poor households being unable to buy the food they needed. More recently, the World Bank estimated that 44 million people fell into extreme poverty as a result of rising food prices in the nine months leading up to February 2011. When the cost of food spikes, families need to find ways to cope. Many reduce their food consumption, and the nutritious intake of pregnant women, young children and those who are sick falls. Selling animals or other assets, and reducing purchase of medicine and health care and usage of education are other coping mechanisms. This ultimately makes affected people more vulnerable to the effects of natural hazards and complex emergencies.

In addition to putting pressure on poor households, high and volatile commodity prices also directly affect the cost of humanitarian operations. While the number of people in need of assistance increases, so does the cost of providing that assistance because humanitarian organizations have to pay more for food and the fuel that is used to deliver them.⁴⁷ If prices continue to rise, humanitarian organizations can be faced with serious funding shortfalls and have to reduce the amount of people they can help.

Today, more people are on the move than at any other point in history. Globally, there are 214 million international migrants and 740 million internal migrants.⁴⁸ Over the next few decades, migration is likely to increase because

of population growth, economic disparities, and environmental degradation. Many people will want or need to relocate, and most will go to cities. By 2025, 57 per cent of the world's population will live in urban areas, primarily in fast-growing, medium-sized cities. Eighty per cent of these city dwellers will be in developing countries. At the expected pace of urbanization, cities may be unable to meet their inhabitants' needs for food, employment, infrastructure and basic services, especially in sub-Saharan Africa.

Some people will move because they have no choice—their livelihoods made unsustainable because of environmental degradation and lack of access to the basic resources needed to sustain life. Those who cross borders because of these conditions fall between the cracks of the current protection system because they are neither legally defined as refugees fleeing from political persecution, nor as legal economic migrants. ⁵² They have little legal protection in foreign territories, are often forced to live clandestinely, and often live in very poor conditions. ⁵³

Climate change will not only lead to more frequent and intense natural disasters, but will also exacerbate people's vulnerability to all types of hazards and act as a multiplier of the risks related to other global trends and challenges. The effects of climate change on sea levels, water availability and agricultural production are already increasing food insecurity and threatening livelihoods. They will contribute to rising competition over scarce resources, such as water and fertile land, and increase the likelihood of forced displacement and migration, political instability and even violent conflict. Although the effects of climate change are felt worldwide, the poorest and most vulnerable communities will suffer most because they have the least capacity to adapt. The effects of climate change will always be difficult to separate from other factors, but will contribute to a large growth in the number of people requiring humanitarian assistance.

When the adverse impacts of global trends are particularly sudden, they can themselves result in humanitarian crises, often without obvious triggers for response. For example, the food price crisis of 2007/08 demonstrated how global commodity price shocks can lead to simultaneous humanitarian needs in many countries – examples in this case include Haiti, Senegal and Yemen. The winter crises of Central Asia in 2007/08 were not only the result of extreme weather, but of an array of interrelated global and local factors, including food price increases, energy insecurity and failing infrastructure. These types of "non-traditional" humanitarian situations may become more common in the future, and will pose a number of challenges for the humanitarian community. They may occur outside settings that are commonly thought of as humanitarian emergencies.

Global trends – some positive aspects

Not all global trends will have negative consequences: some will help to strengthen the resilience of certain communities and make them less vulnerable to humanitarian crises. Most importantly, economic growth in emerging and developing economies will lead to an expansion of the middle class in those countries.⁵⁵ People in this income bracket will be able to sustain better living conditions in terms of health and housing, and accumulate more savings, making them more resilient to crises. However, growing wealth in developing countries may also create additional problems, particularly for the environment, not least due to increased waste and pollution of air and water.

Education is becoming more accessible to the poor and has already resulted in fast-growing literacy rates throughout the world. Between 2000 and 2010, illiteracy declined by more than 5 per cent to 16.5 per cent.⁵⁶ Education gives people more access to economic opportunities and access to information that can help reduce their vulnerability and exposure to hazards.

Another positive trend that will lead to reduced vulnerability is the declining rate of new HIV infections in many of the most affected countries, partly due to the increasing availability and use of anti-retroviral medicines. Technological innovation will also help to improve people's resilience. For example, developments in food production will increase productivity and reduce waste. Improvements in weather forecasting services will help people manage the risk of extreme-weather events. New technology has the potential to improve water management for poor rural populations and improve access to clean energy. Access to microfinance, insurance and other financial services can help people make their livelihoods more sustainable.

Greater economic independence, improved educational opportunities, rising levels of literacy, declining HIV infections and technological innovations will make some people more resilient to hazards. However, a larger number of people will become more vulnerable as a consequence of the challenges described above. In some countries with rapidly increasing populations, economic growth may not be fast enough to prevent increases in the number of poor people who may require international humanitarian aid. Ultimately, more people will require assistance due to conflicts, natural disasters and other emergencies. And while the number of people in need is likely to grow, the nature of emergencies that will affect them will also change.

Preparedness:

The knowledge and capacities developed by governments, professional responseand-recovery organizations, communities and individuals to effectively anticipate, respond to, and recover from the impact of likely, imminent or current hazard events or other emergency situations, including conflicts and generalized violence, warranting humanitarian response.

Disaster Risk:

The concept and practice of reducing disaster risks through systematic efforts to analyse and manage the causal factors of disasters, including through reduced exposure to hazards, lessened vulnerability of people and property, wise management of land and the environment, and improved preparedness for adverse events.

The changing context for humanitarian action

A more central role for affected states and populations

Economists predict that by 2030, developing economies will make up 57 per cent of the global economy as compared to 49 per cent today.⁵⁷ Global wealth will be spread more equally among countries than today,⁵⁸ giving more governments resources to invest in disaster preparedness, risk reduction, and response.

The International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (ISDR) reports a significant growth in the number of states that have set up national disaster management authorities, civil protection systems and legislation to regulate incoming aid.⁵⁹ It will thus be increasingly important for international assistance efforts to link with and support such existing structures.⁶⁰

Affected people can also be expected to become more proactive and vocal in disaster response as they are better informed and aware of their rights. Access to communication technologies is growing fast. In 2010, 67 per cent of the world's population had mobile phones. In developing countries the rate is 57 per cent, more than double the rate of five years earlier. As Internet access becomes available on ever-cheaper mobile devices in developing countries, connectivity through social networks will increase, even in places not accessible to humanitarian workers. As a result, more individuals will have access to information about hazards, risks, humanitarian response and their rights in emergencies. They will be better able to communicate their situation and to mobilize if the assistance offered does not cover their needs, which may also raise their expectations and demands for effective humanitarian assistance.

A broader set of partners

Local and national actors have always been at the forefront of responding to emergencies. Where required, they have received help from regional and international partners, including from international organizations which are part of the multilateral system. Over the past decade the relative importance of these different response capacities has shifted, and will continue to shift, in favour of national and regional responses. Specific drivers of this change include heightened awareness of the risks to development that disasters and crises pose, coupled with newly enacted disaster management legislation generated by the Hyogo Framework for Action and related initiatives. Globalized media has brought a new level of international public attention to humanitarian emergencies, and with that has come an increase in the level of engagement by actors who desire to help.

In purely financial terms, government members of the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development's Development Assistance Committee (OECD-DAC) provide most multilateral funds for humanitarian action, approximately 90 per cent in 2008. ^{63, 64} In addition, many of the major implementing organizations outside the UN, such as the International Committee of the Red Cross and the largest international NGOs, have their origins in Europe and North America. This is changing as governments and NGOs in emerging economies become more engaged in humanitarian efforts. The Gulf States and the BRIC countries (Brazil, Russia, India and China) have for example significantly increased commitment and public spending for humanitarian action over the past 10 years. ⁶⁵

To date, most emerging economies have used mainly bilateral channels for their assistance. However, some have begun to provide increased and more predictable political and financial support for multilateral mechanisms. Brazil, for example, was a main contributor to the Haiti Emergency Response Fund and joined the Good Humanitarian Donorship initiative in 2011. Saudi Arabia contributed \$500 million to the World Food Programme's food crisis appeal in 2008. India provided \$25 million to multilateral organizations for the flood response in Pakistan in 2010. The Russian Federation has become a regular donor to OCHA, and joined the OCHA Donor Support Group in 2011.

TNT and WFP: A HumanitarianPrivate Partnership Beyond Money

The international delivery company TNT supports WFP in three ways. Firstly, knowledge-transfer projects use the expertise of TNT's employees to support WFP in areas such as preparing for emergencies, fundraising from the private sector and improving WFP's transportation network by offering expertise in fleet and supplychain management. Secondly, TNT provides hands-on logistical support to WFP in emergency operations; for its school-feeding support as well as private-sector fundraising to help WFP attract other corporate donors and partners. TNT also has a standby team ready to help WFP in any large emergency. TNT supports WFP by increasing awareness of WFP activities and issues of world hunger among TNT employees, corporations and the public.69

Linked to the growth in humanitarian engagement by emerging economies, the number of NGO partners supporting humanitarian action will probably increase, as governments generally favour funding organizations from their own countries. This is already the case in several Gulf countries as well as Turkey.

Regional organizations' participation in humanitarian action is also increasing and is expected to grow in the future. Several regional organizations are already playing an active role in emergency preparedness and response. 66 The Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), for example, was the first organization to adopt a legally binding regional cooperation agreement for disaster risk reduction in 2005. It also played a pivotal role in facilitating access to disaster-affected communities in Myanmar after Cyclone Nargis in 2008. In 2008, the Organization for Islamic Cooperation established a humanitarian affairs department to coordinate humanitarian assistance programmes of OIC Member States. In recent years, the OIC's humanitarian engagement has evolved from fundraising and donating relief items to playing a more active role in operational humanitarian response. The OIC has a comparative advantage through its regional networks and local knowledge that can significantly facilitate humanitarian operations, including by negotiating access to people in need. The OIC currently supports humanitarian operations in Afghanistan, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Burkina Faso, Indonesia, the occupied Palestinian territory (oPt), Somalia, Yemen and several other countries. The African Union is also playing an increasing role in humanitarian work, having signed a Memorandum of Understanding with OCHA in August 2010 and a corresponding Plan of Action in November 2011.⁶⁷

A competitive funding environment, heightened awareness of the risks to development that disaster and crises pose and the need for innovative solutions has also shifted humanitarian partners' attention to the opportunities of engaging more closely with the private sector. At the same time, the demands from employees for engagement, brand identity, and capturing new markets are motivating businesses to focus on humanitarian issues as part of their social responsibility commitments. Companies already support humanitarian action in important areas such as logistics and communications technology. Current trends indicate that they prefer to focus on contributing assets that are close to their core business, including staff expertise, products or cause-related marketing campaigns.⁶⁸

This increasing diversity of humanitarian actors is positive because it helps bring new resources and capacities to address needs, and can also contribute to reducing the perception of humanitarian action as Western-dominated. At the same time, unless there is a commitment to inclusive, coordinated and complementary humanitarian action from all partners, fragmentation will result. This can be problematic, particularly inlarge-scale disasters such as the 2010 Haiti earthquake, where thousands of NGOs (including more than 1,000 from abroad) joined the aid effort without any commitment to agreed standards and principles.^{70,71} While acting with the best intentions, some of these partners provided out-of-date medicines, low-quality food, inappropriate equipment or helpers without the necessary qualifications. As was the case in Haiti, the sheer number of humanitarian workers and organizations pouring into a country after a major disaster can clog vital

access routes and swamp a government's remaining administrative capacities. In order to address the challenge of fragmentation, a concerted effort to build inclusive networks and to strengthen partnerships between and among the different sets of humanitarian actors is critical.

Continued political and military interests in humanitarian action

As public awareness of emergencies increases, so does the stake that politicians have in responding to them and in aligning this response with national and security interests. States taking a more proactive role in coordinating humanitarian response to complex emergencies on their territory may use humanitarian assistance to further their own political or military objectives, undermining the principles of neutrality and impartiality which are critical to the credibility of humanitarian work. In such situations, humanitarian actors have to carefully balance the need to support States in developing their response and coordination capacities, while simultaneously ensuring assistance is fully aligned with humanitarian principles and available to all. Many donors are increasing links between their humanitarian engagement and security agendas. This may mean that donors are less likely to support humanitarian assistance where there is less perceived benefit for their national security, despite high levels of need. Anti-terrorism legislation in some countries has already seriously limited the ability of UN agencies and NGOs to engage in dialogue with some groups participating in conflict. 72 This demonstrates how conflating humanitarian and security agendas can create challenges in upholding humanitarian principles.

In addition, military forces of established and emerging partners frequently provide relief, either as part of their national response structure, as foreign military support to affected States, and as support to international response efforts. Where there are major humanitarian needs in natural disasters, armies, navies and air forces are essential to humanitarian work, not only to deliver life-saving aid as quickly as possible, but to repair infrastructure and offer logistical support. However, if humanitarian actors work too closely with military partners, particularly in conflict situations, misperceptions arise about the motives and intentions of humanitarian work. The inclusion of "hearts and minds" campaigns as part of some governments' military strategies in Afghanistan and Iraq, where aid was delivered by soldiers in areas of strategic importance and not necessarily based on demonstrated need, conflated the aims of humanitarian assistance with the objectives of military forces operating on the ground. Operating in environments where such misperceptions are at play impairs humanitarian organizations' ability to do their work and creates security risks for humanitarian workers on the ground—particularly for national staff.⁷³

Advocacy by OCHA and the wider humanitarian community on these issues has helped to put in place measures to create distinctions between humanitarian assistance and other interventions, including by asking military forces to limit their aid interventions to infrastructure support. This advocacy also led the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan to develop Standard Operating Procedures (SOPs) on its role in supporting humanitarian

Disaster Relief 2.0 – trends in emergency information sharing

In 2011, the Harvard Humanitarian Initiative, in partnership with OCHA, the UN Foundation and the Vodafone Foundation, published the "Disaster Relief 2.0" report on the future of information sharing in humanitarian situations. The report takes stock of innovative information-sharing initiatives used in the response to the 2010 earthquake in Haiti. They include OpenStreetMap, a free interactive map that humanitarian organizations and affected persons could view and edit, and link to geographic data. The African non-profit company Ushahidi provided a software platform relying on crowdsourcing to map needs and responses. Sahana, another initiative, mainly tries to coordinate data flows between volunteer communities and international organizations. The report proposes creating an interfae between humanitarian organizations and these initiatives to make systems and approaches more compatible.

assistance and disaster relief, recognizing the responsibility of the Afghan Government to lead, the international humanitarian community to assist, and ISAF to support, as a last resort upon request, and based on an identified need.

New technological options for providing assistance and managing information

Technological innovations are having a huge impact on humanitarian response, and will continue to do so. The widespread use of mobile phones is already helping to warn people of impending disasters, providing an easy and quick way for the public to donate money, and enabling the delivery of aid via vouchers and cash grants.⁷⁴ In future, the development of more sophisticated sensors could make mine clearance far easier and faster. Developments in satellite imagery and the use of unmanned aircraft could improve needs assessments and help deliver humanitarian goods to inaccessible areas in a more targeted way.

Mobile technology and internet access will also enable humanitarian agencies to communicate with each other, and with those they are trying to support during emergencies. People affected by emergencies have already started using these tools; following the 2010 earthquake in Haiti, social networks and short message services were widely used to communicate needs. ⁷⁵ Social media sites could turn into the emergency numbers of the future.

Humanitarian actors are taking advantage of these new opportunities to communicate with affected people, inform them about programmes, get their feedback and report on improvements.

Technological developments also create new possibilities for volunteers to support humanitarian work remotely. Far from the location of an emergency people can process and analyse information, or help humanitarian workers with administrative tasks. The emergence of interactive and collaborative online tools is revolutionizing the creation of maps, which are a crucial tool for humanitarian work. After the Haiti earthquake, volunteer communities created an interactive live map using the Ushahidi platform. They shared information about the status of collapsed buildings and created virtual support networks through mobile phones and social media like Twitter. The challenge is to link the humanitarian system to these volunteer initiatives and harness their full potential.

These developments will also build stronger links between the donor community and people affected by disasters. Online platforms linking affected people and private individuals are already making direct cash transfers possible. This trend is slowly taking off for microcredit and development projects. ⁷⁹ In Somalia, the Danish Refugee Council, an NGO, is running an online map that shows the status of its development projects at the village level, allowing donors to decide exactly where they want their money to go. The World Bank has a similar Mapping for Results platform that tracks its projects and enables people to provide direct feedback on them. These channels will provide new tools for accountability and new levels of transparency.

Concluding Remarks

Looking back over the past two decades, it is clear that there has been great progress since the adoption of resolution 46/182. More lives are being saved, more quickly and efficiently, because of humanitarian coordination and new financial instruments like the CERF.

The humanitarian coordination system has continuously adapted to a rapidly changing world. The reform process that began in 2005 and the IASC Transformative Agenda of 2011 are just part of the effort to ensure that the system remains fit for purpose.

This study argues that the need to adapt to a changing operating environment is likely to continue. An increase in the number and severity of hazards, due to climate change and environmental degradation, combined with greater vulnerability because of population growth, urbanization and water scarcity are expected to lead to a steady increase in humanitarian needs in the foreseeable future. Conflicts and political and social crises will continue to result in humanitarian needs as they affect the most vulnerable. Food and energy prices are likely to continue at historically high levels and to remain volatile, which will also have an impact on humanitarian needs and patterns of global migration.

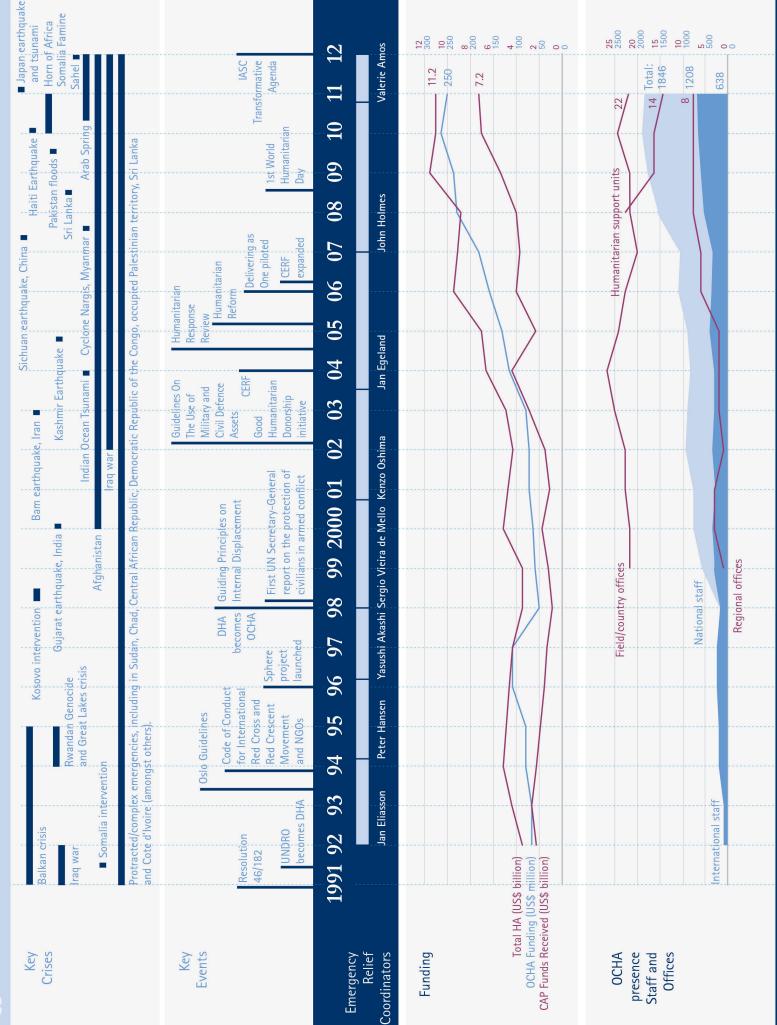
To cope with these changing requirements, it will be important to harness the potential of other global trends described in this study, including the increasing engagement of emerging economies in humanitarian efforts. Strengthening partnerships with a greater number of Member States and organizations will be increasingly important.

Developments in information technology promise to make humanitarian coordination, assessment and response more efficient, and will provide new platforms for advocacy, particularly through social networks. As the former ERC Peter Hansen has said, OCHA should and must remain the place to go to for cutting-edge humanitarian information. This gives it the authority to exercise an effective coordination role that goes beyond its formal mandate and status.

Above all, the humanitarian coordination system must improve its ability to anticipate and mitigate emergencies and crises. This will require better monitoring and analysis of trends, the expansion of early warning systems, and the formation of stronger partnerships with governments, specialist agencies and academia.

By rapidly adapting to an ever-changing world, adopting new information technologies, broadening our donor and partnership base and improving our research and analysis capabilities, we will ensure that the humanitarian coordination system remains central to the effort to save lives, for the next twenty years and beyond.

OCHA Timeline 1991 - 2011



The Birth of resolution 46/182

Jan Eliasson Emergency Relief Coordinator from January 1992 to February 1994



With the end of the cold war, we all felt that the time had come at last for the UN to play a pivotal role in the maintenance of peace and security, and in the promotion of economic and social progress. I was privileged, as Permanent Representative of Sweden, to oversee the revitalization of one important aspect of the work of the UN: the coordination of humanitarian assistance.

I first presided over the dialogue during the 1991 summer Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) meeting on the subject. The discussion highlighted the concern of many that vigorous international humanitarian action may bring foreign intervention in through the back door. It had also become clear that any agreements must also include measures to strengthen the response capacity of disaster-prone countries, as well as to promote early recovery.

The negotiation during the General Assembly, in the second half of 1991, proved to be extremely difficult, compounded by the traditional resistance for change within the UN system. Long hours were spent from September onward to put together a comprehensive draft addressing the many diversified concerns of delegations. Until the very last minute of 18 December 1991, it was far from certain whether Member States would agree to a text. Many issues were still open. Yet that night was our very last opportunity to come to an agreement before the end of the Assembly. If we failed, we would have had to wait for at least one year, if not more, to pass the resolution. Thus, although the diplomats had already spent the whole day negotiating, we continued until the early morning hours of 19 December.

At 1:30 a.m., the delegations of the EU and the G77 came back from their respective group meetings. Absolute silence filled the room as they walked in. When both delegations announced their groups' agreement to the latest proposed text put forward by me as the Chair, the exhausted diplomats spontaneously broke out in applause. This meant that we had an agreement—something I had not dared to hope for.

The final text emphasized the importance of respecting the sovereignty, territorial integrity and national unity of the affected state as much as the humanitarian principles of humanity, neutrality and impartiality. Member States agreed that each country has the primary responsibility for providing and coordinating humanitarian assistance and that international assistance should be based on consent. We also highlighted the importance of disaster prevention and preparedness, as well as the transition from relief to rehabilitation and development. Based on the guiding principles, the resolution identified institutions and mechanisms to implement disaster prevention, preparedness and response.

As we walked out into the cold New York winter night, we were exhausted but satisfied that we had managed to agree on a comprehensive framework for humanitarian assistance and coordination — a framework that still guides actions in today's world.

Information management: Basic, but essential for coordination

Peter Hansen Emergency Relief Coordinator from March 1994 to February 1996



In the early days of DHA, when the Department had very little clout with other agencies who resented its pretention to "coordinate" their activities and no authority to back it up, it was necessary to develop and demonstrate capacities to convince these agencies that we could add value to the humanitarian community.

One thing that we recognized as being in short supply was timely integrated information about what everybody was doing in various emergencies. Collecting, managing, analysing and sharing such information was an essential service (among others) that was needed and that could best be provided by a central coordination machinery. But to do so, we needed to create innovative tools at the global level.

In those days, "cyberspace" sounded like science fiction to most, and the Internet was barely used as an instrument for managing humanitarian information. It was — for somebody with as limited literacy in the brave new world of computer and information technology as I had — a leap of faith to go for it and invest some of our limited resources in it. But I sensed that there was great potential for developing useful instruments for

effective and useful coordination tools. Two main platforms were launched during my tenure. ReliefWeb collected country- and disaster-specific information at the global level. Bit by bit, the platform grew into what it is today: the place to go when looking for updates on any humanitarian situation. A second initiative was IRIN—the Integrated Regional Information Networks. It provides reporting from the frontline of humanitarian action to cover gaps in the mainstream media. IRIN has won several awards, and a survey identified it as the premier online source of news for humanitarians. Those who had warned me against technological boondoggles were fortunately proven wrong.

Reliable timely information remains a crucial ingredient to effective emergency response. So are policy analysis, evaluation and lessons learned. These capacities that were developed in the mid-1990s helped provide incentives for humanitarian organizations to occasionally act more as a team and participate in coordination efforts as more than window dressing. The instruments of the 1990s have entered mainstream use, but OCHA needs to stay abreast of current developments, and to remain the place to go to for cutting-edge humanitarian information, knowledge and insight in the big picture. Being recognized as such by its humanitarian partners should enable OCHA to exercise a real leadership role that rests on more than claims of an increase in formal authority and status.

Policy development: A key coordination function

Yasushi Akashi Emergency Relief Coordinator from March 1996 to December 1997



Yasushi Akashi talking to farmers on a visit to North Korea, 1997

During the 1990s, the suffering caused by internal armed conflicts—especially the genocide in Rwanda and the Great Lakes crisis—tested the humanitarian system. The developments made clear that humanitarian action is no substitute for political action. We humanitarians needed to work more closely with the political bodies of the United Nations, in particular the Security Council, the Department for Political Affairs and the Department for Peacekeeping Operations, to be able to address such conflicts. At the same time, the complexity of these situations called for common guidance to ensure a coherent position.

Revitalizing DHA's policymaking function thus became one of my key priorities. First, we jointly developed common policies and approaches, such as ones covering a set of rules to be observed by UN agencies and the Taliban in Afghanistan; involving female humanitarian workers; and the designation of the UN Humanitarian Coordinator for the Democratic People's Republic of Korea (in this case WFP) on behalf of all UN agencies. Then, we worked hard to defend our common line in political forums such as the Executive Committee on Humanitarian Affairs, the body that brings the humanitarian components together with development, human rights, political and security arms of the UN Secretariat. I was also able to organize the first humanitarian NGO briefing to the Security Council. On behalf of the NGO community, Médecins Sans Frontières, CARE International and Oxfam spoke about the humanitarian situation in Central Africa. The Council members were greatly impressed by the quality of these briefings.

Today, it is well understood that OCHA's policy function includes bringing humanitarians together to develop common approaches, to defend these positions in discussions with political and security actors, and to have these positions accepted by national, local or international authorities through negotiation and persuasion. In my time, by comparison, it took a significant effort to give humanitarian work the necessary political clout

Humanitarian action must be paralleled by political action

Sergio Vieira de Mello Emergency Relief Coordinator from January 1998 to January 2001



Sergio Vieira de Mello was killed in the Canal Hotel suicide bombing in August 2003 while serving as UN Special Representative to Iraq. The following are excerpts of his writings and speeches (1):

"Humanitarian aid is a palliative rather than a cure. It addresses symptoms rather than causes. It can to a limited extent help contain a crisis, reduce casualty levels and alleviate suffering. It can occasionally even help build bridges between opposing groups and restore confidence, but it can do little or nothing to affect underlying causes and to bring about the resolution of conflict."

"Perhaps the most vivid example comes from Bosnia: In Bosnia the international community, with humanitarian agencies on the front line, backed up by a significant "peacekeeping" force, provided aid, mostly food, to civilians, many of whom were

subsequently killed. Well-fed civilian populations were trapped in safe areas and were murdered by snipers and shellfire. Here the absurdity of providing relief, humanitarian assistance, without security, was all too apparent."

"Humanitarian aid is often compared to an ambulance service. This ambulance service is too often seen as the only means to prevent — to extend the analogy — road deaths. Little is done to ensure the proper standards of the roads, control drunken driving, introduce speed limits and enforce safety standards. If we wish to do more than deal with symptoms, more than simply put a band aid on gaping, festering wounds, humanitarian action has to be paralleled by political efforts to resolve the causes underlying the conflict, or as a minimum, to effectively protect the innocent at an early stage of conflict."

[August 1999 briefing to the UN Security Council on Angola]

"In Angola, as in other conflicts, an end to human suffering will not be brought about through humanitarian aid but by political or military measures. A more forceful attempt must be made to stop hostilities. Since 1992, there have been over 40 resolutions by the Security Council covering the Angolan crisis. In the same period there have been countless dead, tens of thousands injured, maimed, deprived of basic dignity and well over 2 million internally displaced persons and refugees generated by the conflict. We are, Mr. President, at an impasse. Aren't there other measures that the Council can adopt in order to bring this war to a halt and to ensure full compliance with its previous decisions?"

(1) The original quotes are from an undated paper "From War and Politics: The Humanitarian Deceit" and Sergio's talking points for a panel discussion at an ICRC seminar for diplomats: "Humanitarian Assistance and Human Security: Concepts and Challenges", 2000.

The importance of management

Carolyn McAskie Emergency Relief Coordinator ad interim from November 1999 to January 2001 Assistant Secretary-General from 1999 to 2004



Carolyn McAskie launching a funding appeal for the Liberia response in 2003

When I took office as Deputy Emergency Relief Coordinator, I became ERC a.i. while Sergio Vieira de Mello, who had brought me into OCHA, left to become SRSG in East Timor. He inspired me to make organizational management one of my top priorities. The UN is often criticized for not paying attention to management issues, but this is a product of a number of factors: a highly politicized financial and management oversight by Member States through the Fifth Committee of the GA; the fact that senior officials come from so many diverse management cultures; and, in OCHA's case the fact that almost 90 per cent of its budget came from voluntary donor contributions and only 12 per cent from the Secretariat budget.

In addition, having been created from more than one entity, it had competing offices in New York and Geneva. Survival of the humanitarian enterprise depended on creating a common work culture in New York, Geneva and in the field, along with a shared vision. Geneva was very focused on the critical work of emergency response in the field, a fundamental element of success. But Sergio had started a process which I saw as critical to the success, not just of OCHA, but of the UN, and that was making sure that the humanitarian enterprise was recognized by the Security Council as one of the major pillars of the UN. Why was that important? Essentially, because a political and peacekeeping crisis is almost invariably rooted in a humanitarian tragedy. For the Security Council to understand a political crisis they had to recognize and understand the humanitarian crisis. OCHA therefore had more than one coordination job: firstly to help coordinate the humanitarian response players, and secondly to coordinate the humanitarian with the political and security elements of a crisis. OCHA therefore had to understand its dual role, and management had to be committed to end the wasteful competition within OCHA and between OCHA and other parts of the UN system.

The Change Management exercise was an exciting time for OCHA staff. Rather than being imposed from above, it became an exercise involving everyone. The Change Management process and report were led by the management team and an excellent external adviser, but it was driven (and written) by teams of staff members, and culminated in a rousing global management meeting of New York and Geneva staff with field staff, facilitated by the external adviser, a first in the history of OCHA. Staff members were galvanized and ready to make the change. It was inclusive and transparent and the donors loved it. We discovered that far from rejecting good management practice, UN staffers are thirsty for good management and are prepared to apply good practices to their work.

The importance of disasters

Kenzo Oshima Emergency Relief Coordinator from January 2001 to June 2003



Kenzo Oshima with former UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan

As I arrived in OCHA in the early 2000s, I saw policy people and humanitarians preoccupied with the raging conflicts in Africa and elsewhere, and pretty soon with wars in Afghanistan and then Iraq. So much that, it seemed to me, not enough attention was being paid to natural disaster issues. Yet the world faced severe natural disasters, with about 700 cases, large and small, recorded in 2001 alone. The January 2001 earthquake in Gujarat, India, the first major one we had to deal with, killed nearly 20,000.

Coming from the world's most disaster-prone region, Asia, I felt that one of my goals should be to ensure that natural disasters receive closer attention in OCHA and

the UN system, and to mobilize better support for disaster risk reduction, preparedness and response.

The Emergency Relief Coordinator had another related responsibility: that of placing on a secure footing the then newly established International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (ISDR), based in Geneva. With the support from the Swiss Government and several others, I strived to establish the ISDR Support Group and to prepare the ground for a framework of collaboration on disaster reduction strategies.

Additionally, being a Hiroshima survivor myself, I tried to be proactive on preparedness to technological disasters, particularly in my capacity as UN Coordinator of International Cooperation on Chernobyl.

In comparison to a decade ago, the dynamics seem to have changed today: Large-scale natural disasters occur more frequently and in greater intensity, no doubt propelled by climate change, in developed and developing countries alike: Haiti, Pakistan, the US, Australia, Russia and most recently my own country, Japan. This has forced disaster preparedness, risk reduction and response into higher gears, in public awareness, on the agenda of the United Nations and in individual countries. This dynamic should lead to an enhanced concerted effort to strengthen our capacity to deal with natural disasters and minimize their impact on human lives and sustainable development.

Speaking out on behalf of affected people

Jan Egeland Emergency Relief Coordinator from June 2003 to December 2006



Jan Egeland briefing media about the humanitarian situation in Lebanon. 2006

MAG

An important priority during my tenure was public advocacy. The ability and willingness of humanitarians to speak the uncensored truth about the plight of defenceless and neglected communities is often a question of life or death for the latter.

During a field visit to war-torn Côte d'Ivoire in February 2006, I met with several hundred Burkinabe refugees. Their grey-haired leaders asked me heartbreakingly simple questions: "We have no protection nor supplies if we do not get it from the international community. So why did you all flee with your peacekeepers and aid workers and leave us behind to our fate?" Yet, with no security guarantees from the authorities and with no new UN peacekeepers in sight, we were not able to offer

even basic protection against future attacks or lootings of the already meagre supplies. As we left the camp to drive back to our comfortable security in New York and Geneva, one of the camp spokesmen, who held a baby girl on his shoulder, would not let go of my hand: "You say you will not forget us. Will you remember? Do you realize that tonight we will again be alone with no one to protect and to help us?"

I took their message with me and brought their situation to the attention of international policymakers. The UN Security Council, national Governments and parliaments and the international media must be told what is at stake and what needs to be done. That no nation can any longer afford to be seen as insensitive to mass murder or mass hunger is a step in the right direction, but we still have a long way to go to ensure these issues receive sufficient attention and effective response.

From the chambers of the UN Security Council it is a mere 25 paces to the place where the international news media are waiting. We, who have the opportunity to see some unpleasant realities firsthand, have both the possibility and the responsibility to speak the truth, always, to shake up and embarrass the powerful and to ensure those in need receive assistance and protection.

Humanitarian financing

John Holmes Emergency Relief Coordinator from January 2007 to September 2010



John Holmes speaks to the residents of an IDP camp in Kibati, DRC, February 2009

When I started as Emergency Relief Coordinator in early 2007, one of the challenges of humanitarian reform was financing—speeding it up at the beginning of a crisis and ensuring fairness between crises. It became increasingly a core part of OCHA's business during my time.

My first priority was to ensure that the Central Emergency Response Fund (CERF) was reaching the right targets and attracting enough resources. I am proud of the fund's success, appreciated by donors, recipients, agencies and outside observers alike for its speed and flexibility. With up to \$450 million a year, CERF makes a difference in a new disaster by assuring all concerned of money upfront. It is also important

in underfunded emergencies, when a little money at the right moment can have a huge impact on many lives. One of its unique strengths is its broad donor base. Almost two thirds of UN Member States were contributing by the time I left in 2010, including many who had benefitted from CERF and wanted to show their appreciation, however little they could afford. UN agencies were suspicious at the beginning but came to see CERF as a valuable source of quick funds. NGOs would have loved direct access to CERF too, and often told me so, yet the General Assembly had ruled otherwise.

But CERF was only a small part of the picture. Local pooled funds were also increasingly important, flexible tools, and we created a new financing unit to professionalize and regularize their management. Through annual Consolidated Appeals, and Flash Appeals for new disasters, in addition, we helped to raise billions of dollars for the whole system. Improving the ability of the appeals process to prioritize, and building in more reporting on impact, were vital to its credibility.

OCHA's involvement in financing risks jeopardizing our neutrality within the system. But the opportunities outweigh the risks. For me, promoting coordination and coherence, and making the whole system run smoothly, are much easier with a say in where some of the money goes.

ENDNOTES

- 1 1 The operational coordination mandate of the International Relief Union, created in 1927 as part of the League of Nations, was never fully implemented (Hutchinson, 2001, Disasters and international order). The United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration (UNRRA), created in 1943, was more successful and coordinated relief operations worth \$10 billion in post-war Europe (Judt, 2005: 28, History of Europe).
- 2 UN Charter, 1945, Article 1 § 3.
- 3 General Assembly (GA) resolution 2816 (XXVI) gives the Disaster Relief Coordinator the mandate (a) "To establish and maintain the closest co-operation with all organisations concerned and to make all feasible advance arrangements with them for the purpose of ensuring the most effective assistance; (2) To mobilise, direct and co-ordinate the relief activities of the various organisations of the United Nations system in response to a request for disaster assistance from a stricken State; (c) To co-ordinate United Nations assistance with assistance given by intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations, in particular by the International Red Cross. (...)".
- 4 The OEOA coordinated assistance to 12 food-insecure African countries between 1985 and 1986. UNOCA was operating in Afghanistan from 1988 onward, later, in 1992, its name changed to UNOCHA and it became part of DHA/OCHA. See La Munière (1987, Managing the UN's Emergency Operations in Africa) on the history of the OEOA and Donini (1996, The Policies of Mercy) for a comprehensive study on UN coordination in Afghanistan, Mozambique and Rwanda.
- 5 In GA resolution 36/225 (1981), Member States decided that in "exceptional or complex natural disaster or other disaster situations requiring system-wide action", "the Secretary-General shall designate, at the international level, a lead entity from among the United Nations organisations, agencies and bodies, including the Office of the United Nations Disaster Relief Co-ordinator, and, at the country level, the appropriate entity of the United Nations system to carry out relief operations, taking into account the specific requirements of the situation and in consultation with the host Government, and calls on all organs, organisations and bodies of the United Nations system to cooperate closely with one another in their relief operations."
- **6** Katoch, The responder's cauldron (2003: 49)
- **7** In Operation Provide Comfort, the US and its allies secured several no-fly zones and provided direct relief goods.
- 8 G7, Political declaration (London 1991)
- **9** Report of the Secretary-General on the Review of the capacity, experience and coordination arrangements in the United Nations for humanitarian assistance (A/46/568) (1991).
- 10 Among the tools introduced at the time were the Humanitarian Information Centres (HIC), which provided all types of information support, from maps to reports, at the country and local level.

11 A trend facilitated by the Security Council's greater willingness to interpret humanitarian disasters as threats to international peace and security, for example in Security Council resolution 794 (December 1992), authorizing military intervention for humanitarian purposes in Somalia. After 18 US soldiers were killed there in 1993, Western powers' willingness to intervene reduced drastically, resulting in the non-action during the Rwandan genocide.

29

- 12 UNHCR, The Rwandan genocide and its aftermath (2000)
- 13 The Joint Evaluation of Emergency Assistance to Rwanda was implemented through four separate studies on the history, early warning and conflict management, humanitarian aid and its effects and the rebuilding effort. The Rwanda evaluation was one of very few joint donor evaluations undertaken to date. It involved 21 donors, nine multilateral organizations, IFRC, ICRC and four major NGO consortia.
- 14 DHA, Rwanda-lessons learned (1994)
- 15 DHA, Rwanda-lessons learned (1994: 13)
- 16 The latest 2011 edition of the Sphere handbook can be accessed from www.sphereproject.org/.
- 17 Report of the Secretary-General on Renewing the United Nations: A programme for reform (A/51/950), (July 1997).
- 18 OCHA, OCHA in 1999 (1999: 3)
- 19 Power, Chasing the flame (2008: 244)
- 20 OCHA also established an IDP Section in 1998.
- **21** On the different options, see OCHA, *Integration: structural arrangements* (2010).
- 22 For an example of a subsequent strategy, see OCHA, *Advocacy strategy* (2003: 3-5).
- 23 Good humanitarian donorship initiative, *Principles and practice of good donorship* (2003).
- 24 Common Humanitarian Funds and Emergency Response Funds. At the end of 2010, Emergency Response Funds were active in 16 countries and larger Common Humanitarian Funds in four countries.
- 25 The second phase of the cluster approach evaluation, for example, found some evidence that the introduction of the clusters as coordinating bodies had led to increased coverage in certain areas of response (Steets et al., 2010, Cluster Approach evaluation 2).
- 26 Resolution 46/182 implies this function in op35 (b). In op34, the ERC is given the functions previously carried out by the representatives of the Secretary-General for major and complex emergencies and the UN Disaster Relief Coordinator. The latter was explicitly tasked "to coordinate United Nations assistance with assistance given by intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations, in particular the International Red Cross" (RES-2816-XXVI).
- 27 See for instance A/RES/48/57 integrated mission planning documents.
- 28 Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, 2011 (Internal Displacement Overview of Trends and Developments in 2010)
- 29 www.cred.be/sites/default/files/ADSR_2010.pdf

- **30** IDMC, Report: Displacement due to natural hazard-induced disasters: Global estimates for 2009 and 2010 (2011),
- 31 ODI, humanitarian impact of natural disasters (2006).
- **32** IPCC, Fourth assessment report (2007); Climate change and its humanitarian impacts (Morinière, 2009)
- 33 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), 2007 (fourth assessment report), see also *Climate change and its humanitarian impacts* (Morinière, 2009).
- 34 ISDR, Global Assessment Report (2011)
- 35 IASC, Meeting challenges in urban areas (2010)
- 36 Grünewald, Catastrophes technologiques (2011)
- 37 Grünewald et al., Mapping the future unintentional risk (2010)
- **38** UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UN DESA), World population prospects, 2010 revision (2011)
- 39 UN DESA, World population prospects, 2010 revision (2011)
- **40** UN DESA data, analysed by Haub, *Demographic trends and their humanitarian implications* (2009: 8)
- 41 World Bank, World development report 2008 (2007)
- **42** Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), Global food losses and food waste (2011)
- 43 UNDP, HDR (2006)
- 44 OECD Environmental Outlook to 2030 (2008)
- 45 World Bank, Global economic prospects (2009)
- 46 World Bank, Food price hike (2011)
- **47** WFP, *How is WFP affected by rising food prices* (2011). For an overview of global food price spikes refer to FAO, 2011 (Food price index).
- 48 IOM, World Migration Report (2010)
- 49 UN DESA, World population prospects, 2010 revision (2011)
- 50 IASC, Meeting challenges in urban areas (2010)
- 51 Kent and White, Practitioners' guide (2010: 4)
- 52 See UNHCR, 10-Point plan of action (2007)
- 53 Betts, Survival migration (2010)
- 54 European Commission, Climate Change and International Security, Document #S113/08 (2008), http://www.consilium.europa.eu/ uedocs/cms_data/docs/pressdata/en/ reports/99387.pdf
- 55 Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (2010)
- 56 UNESCO, Institute of statistics (2009)
- 57 In purchasing power parity terms, Maddison (2010) found in OECD, *Shifting wealth* (2010)
- 58 OECD, Shifting Wealth (2010)
- 59 ISDR, Global assessment report (2011). For in-depth case studies on current status on disaster response law in several countries, refer to IFRC (2011, IDRL global and regional studies).
- 60 DARA, Pakistan Inter-Agency Real Time Evaluation (2011); Steets et al., Cluster Approach evaluation 2 (2010); Grünewald and Binder, Haiti IA RTE (2010)
- 61 International Telecommunication Union (ITU), Measuring information society (2010)

- **62** Cisco, Visual networking index (2011)
- **63** According to OECD Development Assistance Committee (DAC) data and Financial Tracking Service (FTS) data. Since many emerging economies do not report to FTS, the actual percentage might be lower.
- 64 OECD, Shifting wealth (2010)
- 65 Harmer et al., *Diversity in donorship* (2005 and 2010); Binder et al., *Truly universal?* (2010)
- 66 For an analysis of regional disaster risk reduction activities, refer to ISDR, Aligning regional and global agendas (2011)
- 67 Other examples are the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC), which maintains a disaster management centre that focuses on knowledge exchange but is also developing a common funding pool and response system. In the same vein, the Southern African Development Community (SADC) is developing a common risk analysis tool and the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) is further developing its humanitarian department. In Latin America, the Organisation of American States (OAS) and all regional and sub-regional organizations give disaster risk reduction and response much attention, increasingly so after the devastating earthquakes hit Haiti and Chile in 2010.
- 68 United Nations Global Compact, Coming of Age: UN-Private Sector Collaboration since 2000 (2010)
- 69 http://business.un.org/en/documents/16
- 70 Grünewald and Binder, Haiti IA RTE (2010)
- 71 MSF, Haiti: where aid failed (2010)
- 72 Bruderlein et al., Criminalizing humanitarian engagement (2011)
- 73 Egeland et al., To stay and deliver (2011)
- 74 Harvard Humanitarian Initiative, 2011; American Red Cross, 2011
- 75 Harvard Humanitarian Initiative, 2011; American Red Cross, 2011
- 76 Harvard Humanitarian Initiative, 2011
- **77** See *Haiti IA RTE* (2010)
- **78** For an analysis of these developments, refer to Meier P. *Changing the world, one map at a time* (2011)
- 79 Two examples are Kiva.org, where individuals can give microloans to others, or Betterplace.org, which links development projects with individual donors.

31

ACRONYMS

ASEAN Association of Southeast Asian Nations

AU African Union

CAP Consolidated Appeals Process

CARE Cooperative for Assistance and Relief Everywhere

CERF Central Emergency Response Fund

DHA Department of Humanitarian Affairs

DHP Dialogue on Humanitarian Partnership

DPA Department for Political Affairs

DPKO Department of Peace Keeping Operations

ECHA Executive Committee on Humanitarian Affairs

ECOSOC Economic and Social Council
ERC Emergency Relief Coordinator

GA General Assembly

GHD Good Humanitarian Donorship
HCs Humanitarian Coordinators
HERF Haiti Emergency Response Fund
HIV Human immunodeficiency virus

ISDR International Strategy for Disaster Reduction

IASC Inter-Agency Standing Committee
ICRC International Committee of the Rec

ICRC International Committee of the Red Cross

IDMC Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre

IDPs Internally Displaced Persons

ISAF International Security Assistance Forces
IRIN Integrated Regional Information Networks
ISDR International Strategy for Disaster Reduction

MCDA Military and Civil Defence Assets

MSF Médecins Sans Frontières

NATO North Atlantic Treaty Organization
NGOs Non-governmental Organization

OCHA Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs

OECD-DAC Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development's Development Assistance Committee

OEOA Office of Emergency Operations in Africa

OlC Organization of Islamic Cooperation (formerly Organisation of the Islamic Conference)

Oxfam Oxford Committee for Famine Relief
SOP Standard Operating Procedures

SRSG Special Representative to the Secretary General

UNDAC United Nations Disaster Assessment and Coordination

UNDP United Nations Development Programme

UNDRO UN Disaster Relief Organization
UNGA United Nations General Assembly

UNHCR Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees

UNICEF United Nations Children's Fund

UN United Nations

UN Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs

UNSC United Nations Security Council

WB World Bank

WFP World Food Programme
WHO World Health Organization

OCHA Policy Development and Studies Branch