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DISASTER MANAGEMENT: A SHARED RESPONSIBILITY WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO PAKISTAN (A SOCIOLOGICAL SITUATION ANALYSIS)

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Abstract

Floods are regarded as the most catastrophic natural dangers globally owing to the greater intensity of the damage they cause. Understanding risk perception is essential for implementing the proper catastrophe risk mitigation techniques. Flood dangers in linked rivers with the downstream and upstream flow are caused mainly by glacier melting and repeated rainfall cycles. In the event of flood dangers, Pakistan saw the worst flash floods in 2022, which resulted in a 10 billion dollar economic loss and destroyed 2 million hectares of cropland. It harmed the nation's 24 million inhabitants. Due to its location in an area prone to hazards and frequent flooding, Pakistan has been categorized as one of the world's most hazard-affected nations during the past 20 years. To help flood victims meet their urgent social requirements, this paper discusses shared demands and the significance of addressing their sociological needs. For this reason, the planning, preparation, and execution of morally based and culturally sensitive post-disaster social care delivery are evaluated. Social workers and socio-political analysts have a joint obligation to play. The ability, opportunity, and speed with which people, families, organizations, and communities recover from the destruction that follows a disaster are given special attention.

Keywords: Disaster Management, Disaster Risk Reduction, Community Needs and Responsibilities, Role of Social Worker.

Introduction

There are several definitions of disaster, but "The International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (ISDR)" of the UN defines a 'disaster' as an unanticipated ecological event that negatively affects a community's residents. It results in the loss of lives, property, the economy, and social network disruption. It leaves the affected population unable to handle, cope with, or manage the disaster within their communities and its harmful effects (Ubalee, 2008).

The "Asian Disaster Preparedness Centre (ADPC)" defines a disaster as the harm done to the economy, society, and other variables resulting from the loss of life and property. Catastrophes can be categorized according to what caused them:

1. Natural calamities such as high-scale earthquakes, tsunamis, tornadoes, and floods affecting a significant number of people

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2. Natural disasters triggered by human action, such as fires, car accidents, or terrorist strikes.

3. Technological failure-related disasters, including communications and nuclear power outages ("Department of Disaster Prevention and Mitigation," 2014).

The lack of collaboration among government entities, staff, and interested parties has been identified as a significant obstacle to the successful implementation of policies. The escalating frequency and severity of catastrophes, irrespective of their origins, have prompted the need for a structured disaster management approach to enable individuals to be adequately equipped to manage any situation before, during, or following a disaster. According to Provan and Brinton's (2003) assertion, effective disaster management necessitates collaboration among the actors involved in executing activities across various levels, including the community, implementing organizations, and the public sector. Integrating three distinct layers is essential in establishing a cohesive "social network" that can effectively mitigate catastrophic risks, prevent the occurrence of catastrophes, and manage their aftermath. Effective disaster management planning is crucial in mitigating disasters' adverse impact on individuals and the government. It is imperative to identify and implement appropriate measures to minimize the consequences of such events.

Several terrible natural disasters have occurred in the first ten years of this century, demonstrating the vulnerability of both wealthy and developing nations to natural disasters (Ananiadoui& Claro, 2009). For instance, "the 2004 Indian Ocean intercontinental tsunami, Hurricane Katrina in 2005, 2005 earthquake in Pakistan, Myanmar's Nargis cyclone in 2008, Russia's wildfires in 2010, Haiti's earthquake in 2010, Pakistan's floods in 2010, Japan's tsunami in 2011" (SAARC, 2011). More property and human life have been destroyed by natural disasters than by many significant conflicts, with 2 billion people impacted by climate-related disasters in developing nations during the past 20 years. In the previous 40 years, there have been as many as 1333 catastrophes in South Asia, resulting in 980,000 deaths, 2.4 billion lives impacted, and assets worth "US$105 billion" dented (Yang et al., 2012, page number).

Global warming, however, poses the biggest threat to the area because it is causing the Himalayan glaciers to melt quickly. This, in turn, will likely result in significant flooding in South Asian nations, particularly Nepal, India, and Pakistan, shortly, as well as severe water scarcity in the years to come. The lengthy coastal strip of the region would then experience increased storm threats due to the rising sea levels brought on by snowmelt (Memon, 2011). For instance, the southern Pakistani state of Sindh saw 14 cyclones between 1971 and 2001, unlike the previous norm of four per century. (Albuj, 2011).

Climate change is mostly to blame for the observed rise in the frequency and severity of natural catastrophes, as heat waves and heavy precipitation events are 'expected' to occur more frequently (Field et al., 2012). Due to the frequency and intensity of extreme weather occurrences, states now have a greater need to implement

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"Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR) and Climate Change Adaptation (CCA)" strategies (Harmeling & Eckstein, 2013, page number).

Despite not being a significant producer of greenhouse gases (GHGs), Pakistan tops the list of nations most at risk from rising GHG levels and climate change. According to Memon (2012), a cursory examination of Pakistan's natural calamities from 2005 to 2011 presents a miserable depiction.

Rationale of the study

The debacle of the board in Pakistan is an essential and significant problem, given the country's weakness in catastrophic events like floods, tremors, and dry spells. The recurrence and power of these fiascos devastatingly affect the country's populace, foundation, and economy. Considering these difficulties, it is fundamental to study and comprehend the present status of calamity executives in Pakistan to recognize holes and shortcomings in the current frameworks. By analyzing the methodologies, arrangements, and designs set up, we can survey the adequacy of calamity readiness, reaction, and recuperation endeavors. This examination means to add to the improvement of catastrophe the board rehearses in Pakistan by giving experiences and proposals to upgrade versatility and diminish the effect of calamities on the lives and jobs of the populace. This exploration means to fill the information hole on the catastrophe of the board in Pakistan by investigating the points of view and encounters of various partners. The discoveries of this study will give experiences into the difficulties and valuable open doors for further developing fiasco the executives in the country.

Research Problem

Pakistan is a country that is prone to catastrophic events, including seismic tremors, floods, and twisters. Public authorities and different associations have been attempting to develop fiasco executives in the nation further, yet there is still a lot to be done. Past examination has shown that the Pakistan board's calamity is thwarted by an absence of assets, lacking framework, and unfortunate coordination among various associations. Regardless of these difficulties, there is an absence of exhaustive examination of the catastrophes of the board in Pakistan. There is a need to grasp the points of view and encounters of various partners, including government authorities, NGOs, and local area individuals.

Research Question

What are the perspectives and experiences of different stakeholders on disaster management in Pakistan?

Objective of the study

This study aims to explore different stakeholders' perspectives and experiences on Pakistan's disaster management and identify areas for improvement.

Significance of the study

The present status of the calamity of the executives in Pakistan uncovers a complicated scene set apart by advancement and difficulties. Pakistan has taken critical steps in creating approaches and systems to address debacles, such as the Public Fiasco of the Board Plan (NDMP) and the Catastrophe of the Executives Demonstration of 2010. Despite these endeavors, execution remains a fundamental issue, with holes in coordination, asset designation, and reaction capacities. In a nation that experiences various natural disasters, such as floods, earthquakes, and terrorism, efficient disaster management is essential for preserving lives and minimizing societal effects. Research on the viability and proficiency of catastrophe board techniques in Pakistan is fundamental to recognizing regions for development and improving readiness. This study aims to provide policymakers, practitioners, and stakeholders with valuable insights by examining Pakistan's current state of disaster management (Abdul Waheed et al., 2023).

Theoretical framework

Global help assumes a significant part in a fiasco of the executives in Pakistan, giving skill and assets and limiting work to reinforce the country's reaction to emergencies. Nations like the US, China, and Saudi Arabia have been instrumental in giving monetary guidance, specialized help, and material help during seasons of cataclysmic events like tremors, floods, and dry spells. This outer help has assisted Pakistan with further developing its fiasco readiness, reaction, and recuperation abilities, prompting more viable and proficient results in overseeing emergencies. By utilizing worldwide associations and joint efforts, Pakistan can get to best practices, cutting-edge innovations, and particular information that improve its strength and diminish the effect of debacles on weak populations. Generally speaking, the effect of worldwide help on the calamity of the board in Pakistan is critical, featuring the significance of worldwide collaboration intending to address complex compassionate difficulties (Helen McElhinney, 2011).

The investigation of catastrophes by the board in Pakistan gives essential experiences into the difficulties and viability of current procedures in moderating the effect of cataclysmic events in an emerging nation setting. The exploration has exhibited the significance of proactive preparation, coordination between government organizations, and local area support in catastrophe readiness and reaction. Regardless of the recent headway, there are huge holes in catastrophes the executives rehearse that should be addressed, such as asset designation, limit building, and hazard appraisal. This study features the requirement for persistent checking and assessment of catastrophes the executives drive to guarantee their manageability and viability in saving lives and diminishing financial misfortunes during crises. Further examination is necessary to investigate imaginative methodologies and best practices that can improve fiasco flexibility in Pakistan and other comparable weak locales.

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Literature Review

According to the "Global Climate Risk Index (GCRI)," Pakistan was the most affected nation in 2010, jumping up from eighth place between 1991 and 2000 (Global Facility for Disaster Reduction and Recovery, 2009). Every few years, vulnerable communities are hit hard by natural catastrophes such as floods, rains, landslides, cyclones, earthquakes, and droughts. Fourteen storms between 1971 and 2001 hit Pakistan, and the country experienced disastrous floods in "1950, 1973, 1976, 1988, 1992, 1997, and 2010" (World Bank, 2010). The 2005 earthquake in the country's north and the 2007 cyclone Yemyin along the coast of Baluchistan province. Moreover, the "heavy rains and subsequent floods across the country in 2008, the 2009 floods in the southern province of Sindh, followed by the 2010 unprecedented floods, and the disastrous rains in 2011 and 2012 are the most well-known natural disasters in Pakistan" (Katoch, 2006, page number). The alarming regularity and severity of catastrophic weather events have compounded the plight of Pakistanis. Thousands of people were forced to relocate due to droughts in 2000 and 2002 (Khan, 2011). The 2010 floods, however, were the most damaging natural calamity in the country's history. The losses caused by the 2010 flood were predicted to cost between $8.74 billion to $10.85 billion for the country's entire rehabilitation and reconstruction (Ahmed, 2013).

As per Britton's (1986) definition, a catastrophe refers to a sudden and severe disruption of the typical structural framework of a social system, which is beyond the system's significant influence. A disaster may significantly depart from ordinary occurrences within a specific time frame and geographic location. Disaster can be perceived as a cognitive framework imposed on an individual's encounter with an adverse event. Mere awareness of quantitative measures such as the count of fatalities, the monetary worth of assets destroyed, or the reduction in income per person is insufficient to grasp the full extent of a disaster. Comprehending the symbolic aspect requires a grasp of vulnerability, adequacy of available justifications, and societal depictions of mortality and devastation. The "National Disaster Management Act, 2010" legislative document is relevant to disaster management.

Challenges for the Disaster-Affected Communities

According to Myer (1991), while establishing a mental health program, the demographic features of the disaster-affected community must be addressed. Many Urban areas, suburban societies, and rural communities have varied needs, resources, traditions, and attitudes regarding providing and receiving assistance. The examination of ethnic and cultural groups within a community and the provision of culturally relevant services in the native language of the population is of utmost importance. Recognizing various phases and their corresponding psychological and emotional responses is of utmost importance for disaster mental health professionals, as stated by Tariq and Van De Giesen (2012).

Ostrow (1996) posits that a catastrophe disrupts all facets of daily existence, presenting numerous pressing and pragmatic challenges that necessitate immediate attention for those who have survived the disaster. Individuals may require aid in finding

missing family members, securing temporary accommodations, attaining sustenance and clothing, procuring transportation, filing for financial unemployment benefits, receiving income tax guidance, accessing medical treatment, replacing prescription glasses or medication, obtaining support with demolition, excavation, and sanitation, acquiring temporary housing, replacing personal possessions, and applying for governmental support. The endeavor to get aid from non-governmental entities, whether privately owned or run by volunteers, is often impeded by bureaucratic obstacles, complications, and disillusionment. According to Azad (2011), individuals often need to establish connections with bureaucratic entities to access aid that is unavailable through other means.

According to Stress and Rose (1998), physical signs include increased pulse and perspiration, a rise in blood sugar level, increased breathing, and poor digestion. Ear, wrath, and frustration are among the emotional symptoms. In psychiatry, worsening normal behavior due to a calamity can result in a psychiatric disorder known as Post-traumatic stress disorder. These strong emotions are the result of a significant upheaval in our lives. If emotions are not managed appropriately, they can lead to long-term impairment and personality issues.

According to Mansoor's (2006) "Earthquake Diplomacy" research paper, this approach emerges from a catastrophic event. It aims to improve the strained relationship between two opposing nations. The author notes that Turkey and Greece, two historically antagonistic countries, were the first to employ this strategy. By extending humanitarian assistance to one another during times of crisis, they were able to resolve several longstanding issues and improve their relationship. The primary factor contributing to the enhancement of relations between the two parties is the provision of humanitarian assistance and the demonstration of empathy towards the suffering of others, as it serves as a reminder that our individual experiences of distress and anguish are interconnected. In the aftermath of the earthquake in 2005, several nations assisted Pakistan, with India taking the lead. It gave humanitarian supplies to Pakistan and opened the Line of Control to allow Kashmiris to access needy relatives.

Mohammad (2006) provides an anthropological and social explanation of the Balakot accident. The study emphasized the significance of disaster management cultural expression and its relationship with emotional stability. The study indicates a strong inclination towards the manifestation of cultural identity. The Balakot incident resulted in psychological distress for the affected individuals. It impeded relief efforts by diminishing collaboration and coordination between the victims, relief personnel, and organizations.

Jahangeer and Hussain (2006) make several crucial recommendations to prepare students to become lifelong learners and effective problem solvers. These proposals involve integrating disaster preparedness and citizenship education into the curricula of educational institutions in Pakistan. The educator's objective concerning the entire student body, comprising children and adolescents, is to formulate a curriculum and offer pedagogical recommendations while instructing active citizenship, emergency readiness, and contextualized learning.

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According to the "Global Climate Risk Index (GCRI), Pakistan was the most afflicted country in 2010, up from number eight from 1991 to 2000 (Global Facility for Disaster Reduction and Recovery, 2009)". Natural disasters like "floods, rainfall, landslides, cyclones, earthquakes, and droughts" are standard nationwide, wreaking havoc on vulnerable people every few years. In its 65-year history, the nation has seen catastrophic floods in "1950, 1973, 1976, 1988, 1992,1997, and 2010, while 14 cyclones have impacted Pakistan's coastal areas between 1971 and 2001" (World Bank, 2010). The most notable disasters in the country include a "devastating earthquake in northern Pakistan in 2005, cyclone Yemyin in the coastal region of the Baluchistan province in 2007. Moreover, heavy rains and related floods across the country in 2008, 2009 floods in the southern province of Sindh, unprecedented floods in 2010, and catastrophic rains in 2011 and 2012" (Katoch, 2006). Furthermore, the growing frequency and intensity of extreme weather occurrences have exacerbated the misery of Pakistanis. For example, the droughts of 2000-2002 displaced tens of thousands of people who sought refuge in various regions of the nation (Khan, 2011). However, the 2010 floods were the most damaging natural calamity in the country's history. The losses caused by the 2010 flood were predicted to cost between "$8.74 billion to $10.85 billion" for overall rehabilitation and reconstruction in the country (Ahmed, 2013, page number).

As per Britton's (1986) definition, a catastrophe denotes a sudden and severe disruption of the established structural patterns within a social system, which is beyond the system's significant influence. A disaster may be characterized as a substantial deviation from the typical occurrence within a specific time and place. Catastrophe can also be interpreted as a cognitive framework imposed on an individual's lived encounters. Merely possessing knowledge of the number of fatalities, the extent of property damage, or the decline in per capita income is inadequate for a comprehensive understanding of a catastrophic event. Comprehending vulnerability, adequacy of available explanations, and societal perception of death and destruction are essential in grasping the symbolic aspect. The subject matter pertains to the National Disaster Management Act of 2010.

According to Myer (1991), the demographic features of the disaster-affected community must be considered while establishing a mental health program. Varied places have varied needs, resources, customs, and attitudes regarding providing and receiving assistance. The program must analyze the ethnic and cultural groups present in the community and offer linguistic and cultural services suitable for the respective populations. Disaster mental health professionals must acknowledge the various stages and diverse psychological and emotional responses linked to each location (Tariq & Van De Giesen, 2012).

The Situation in Pakistan's Disaster-Affected Areas

Natural disasters such as floods, earthquakes, heat waves, landslides, storms, and epidemics have had catastrophic consequences in Pakistan over the last decade. They have affected over 50 million people and caused an estimated US$25.5 billion in economic losses. The floods of 2010 and 2011 were particularly catastrophic, causing an estimated loss of US$9.5 billion and 2.5 billion, respectively (Ali &Kandhro, 2015).

Pakistan is prone to floods due to its hydro-meteorological characteristics. Furthermore, high rainfall during the monsoon season contributes to Pakistan's flood scenarios. The floods in 2010 were caused mainly by severe rains and glacier melting in Pakistan. Heavy monsoon rains and glacier melting in Pakistan triggered severe floods in 2010. Rivers in Pakistan are not permanent; around 80% of the water is expected during the monsoon season.

Pakistan has established a disaster management framework and ratified the Hydrology Framework for Action (HFA) that was in effect from 2005-2015. This was done to exhibit the country's dedication to improving its disaster management system and showcase its preparedness and ability to facilitate effective rehabilitation processes. The nation has firmly committed to prioritizing activities related to the Hyogo Framework for Action (HFA). However, the disparity between the level of commitment and the actual situation on the ground was evident amidst the floods in 2010. As per the analysis conducted by Oxfam International in 2011, the floods that happened in 2010 were deemed to be one of the most significant humanitarian disasters in the history of Pakistan. According to estimates, approximately 20 million individuals were affected by 1985 fatalities and 3000 injuries. Over 1.6 million residential structures were dismantled, resulting in the loss of nearly 5 million job opportunities.

Furthermore, the calamity displaced one million households, rendering them homeless, and caused a food scarcity that affected more than one million individuals, leading to hunger. The inundations resulted in significant harm to agricultural produce and irrigation system infrastructure. Notwithstanding the relief volunteers' endeavors, the crisis response prioritization and management were deficient.

A significant segment of the country remains devoid of preemptive alert mechanisms or flood prevention infrastructure, such as flood walls, waterways, and river dikes. The ability to provide a proficient, prompt, sufficient, and adaptable humanitarian response to alleviate potential flood consequences has been impeded by enduring societal disregard for disparities, insufficient governmental readiness for disasters, an insufficient disaster administration framework, and the lack of emergency relief provisions. The "National Disaster Management Authority (NDMA)" in Pakistan serves as a regulatory and supervisory body for the management of disasters. The "National Disaster Management Authority (NDMA)" maintains a presence in all provinces of Pakistan and engages in collaborative efforts with provincial government entities to enhance flood preparedness, implement measures to alleviate flood disasters, and execute post-flood rehabilitation operations. The Pakistani government has recently made notable strides in establishing a structure for institutions dedicated to managing disasters. Be that as it may, further endeavors are required. The robust execution of the executives' approaches to catastrophe is of extreme significance, particularly at the grassroots level, in relieving gambles and enabling people to adapt to crises. This is exemplified by the discoveries of the "Coordinated Setting Examination (ICA)" led in Pakistan in 2017, which dissected flood events somewhere in the range of 1950 and 2015 (World et al. Bank, 2005).

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The overwhelming way to deal with the calamity of the executives in Pakistan has been the "Crisis Reaction Worldview (ERP)." Now is the ideal time. The "Disaster Demonstration of 1958" was related to overseeing disastrous occasions and involved an arrangement of crisis reaction associations with converging jobs and commitments. The way to deal with catastrophe reactions was prevalently responsive. The "Public Catastrophe The Board Statute 2006 (NDMO)" was sanctioned because of the quake that happened in Pakistan's northern district in 2005, connoting the nation's underlying step towards a thorough calamity the executive's approach (Mahmood & Ullah, 2016, page number).

The National Disaster Risk Management Framework (NDRMF) was formulated in 2007 through a collaborative effort between various ministries within the federal government of Pakistan, United Nations (UN) agencies, and select non-governmental organizations (NGOs). The National Disaster Risk Management Framework (NDRMF) offers a strategic approach to disaster management within the nation. The framework has delineated nine areas of priority for a five-year action plan. These areas include institutions and legal arrangements, hazard and vulnerability assessment, training, education, and awareness, promotion of disaster risk management planning, community and local level risk-reduction programming, multi-hazard early warning systems, mainstreaming disaster risk reduction into development, an emergency response system, and capacity development for post-disaster recovery. Furthermore, the nation possesses a comprehensive system of disaster management organizations, which comprises the “Federal Flood Commission,” “Provincial Irrigation Departments,” “Water and Power Development Authority,” “Dams Safety Council,” “Civil Defence,” “Pakistan Red Crescent Society,” “Emergency Relief Cell,” “fire services,” “National Crises Management Cell (NCMC),” “Pakistan Meteorology Department,” “Space and Upper Atmospheric Research Commission,” “Earthquake Reconstruction and Rehabilitation Authority,” “armed forces,” “police,” and “Nation.” The management of disasters in Pakistan has often been characterized by disorganization, which can be attributed to overlapping tasks and responsibilities among various organizations.

In December 2010, the “National Disaster Management Office (NDMO)” transformed a Parliamentary Act known as the “National Disaster Management Act (NDMA) 2010”, hereafter referred to as the Act. However, a comprehensive evaluation of the effectiveness of the “NDMA 2010” as a regulation that covers the entire spectrum of disaster risk management across the country is yet to be conducted. The present study aims to fill this gap by critically analyzing “Pakistan’s National Disaster Management Authority 2010 (PNDMA 2010)”. The objectives of this study are to conduct a thorough evaluation of the “Public Natural Disaster Management Act of 2010”, to identify any inadequacies or constraints within the legislation, and to provide suggestions for appropriate modifications to the Act.

Analysis of Pre-2005 Disaster Management in Pakistan

Wisner et al. (2004) have proposed seven objectives for mitigating risks that should be integrated into disaster management policies and planning. The measures above encompass identifying and mitigating fundamental risk factors, integrating risk

reduction strategies into sustainable development practices, augmenting livelihood prospects, disaster recuperating, and cultivating a safety culture. In addition, the tasks above encompass comprehending and conveying the characteristics of perils, susceptibilities, and capabilities. The following analysis examines the institutional processes used up to 2005 based on these criteria. The following discussion places these goals in the context of emergency planning initiatives for hazard prevention or mitigation, readiness for hazards, responses to emergencies, and relief or recovery from such events. Due to an apparent lack of competence, expertise, and resources when the country gained independence in 1947, many colonial legacy legislation and policies were accepted in the new country without adjusting to the unique circumstances (Mustafa, 2001). Natural hazard contingency planning was no different in this regard. Since flooding continued to be a common threat, it was the primary focus of policy as it affected the most significant number of people, the largest area of inhabited space, and the majority of farmlands in the nation. Risk acceptance was still the norm at that time (Mustafa & Wescoat, 1997), with little to no thought given to enhancing the quality of life for the impacted populations. Twenty-five significant flooding disasters cost Pakistan US$39 billion in damages between 1947 and 2014 (Guha-Sapiret al., 2015). Pakistan initiated its five-year national planning cycles during the 1950s, primarily focusing on economic growth and industrial development. This approach was influenced by the centralized statewide five-year planning strategies implemented by communist regimes, as noted by Gryphon (1965).

Providing essential services to individuals and safeguarding their lives and property from dangers were viewed as forms of development instead of macroeconomic growth. “All countries, democratic or authoritarian, have concentrated on economic programs in the early stages of development, said Zahid Hussain, Chairman of the Planning Board, in support of the First Five Year Growth Plan.” Education, healthcare, housing, and other social services are significant and include some of the critical final goals of national policy (Blaikie et al., 1994). We will, however, experience disappointment and failure if we choose social services over economic growth. For a long time, changes in agriculture, industry, power, and water must be emphasized more. We can reject this lesson, which other nations’ experience has taught us, at our peril, according to the Planning Board of Pakistan in 1956.

The “Sustainable Development Policy Institute (1993)” stated that “during the last four and a half decades, this approach produced its successes, including most notably, a GNP growth of over 6% per annum [but] this success is widely viewed as somewhat unbalanced.” However, in subsequent years, economic planning started acknowledging the neglect of social sectors (education, health, and nutrition). As a result, the eighth five-year plan (1993-1998) placed a strong emphasis on a different strategy that aimed to improve social indicators “(Sustainable Development Policy Institute, 1993)”. Because of the country’s significant agricultural base, flooding occurrences were considered a barrier to agricultural and economic progress. The “Calamities Act 1958”, which established guidelines for the state’s behavior in the case of natural disasters, was created due to frequent floods in East Pakistan. With no provisions for prevention or preparation, the legislation focused on helping the impacted populations via reaction and relief activities. Table I shows that ten further five-year

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plans were created throughout 50 years (1955–2005), each of which continued to emphasize technocratic and technical disaster relief strategies. With little to no attention paid to the populations residing in the impacted regions, they mainly focused on responding to floods in the river and canal systems. As a result, the Calamities Act of 1958 was not altered or amended, and the nation's approach to catastrophes continued to be one of crisis management. Promoting a culture change toward DRR and management, risk communication, and social vulnerability and capacity assessments were not given much attention at this time (Mustafa et al., 2000).

Pre-Disaster Interventions and Management

The pre-disaster intervention areas were categorized into four groups: 1) Institutional enhancement and policy initiatives; 2) Programmes aimed at promoting livelihood and agriculture development; and 3) Programmes focused on enhancing community resilience and disaster preparedness. 3) Curricula about information technology, and 4) Curricula focused on infrastructure development.

The implementation of institutional strengthening programs encompasses a range of initiatives, such as enhancing the capacity of the "Provincial Disaster Management Authority (PDMA), executing the provincial disaster risk management roadmap, and establishing the Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR) strategic management unit." Moreover, "creating the directorate of flood damage restoration, establishing a gender and child cell, establishing an urban policy unit, reinforcing the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), initiating Rescue 1122 in various districts of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (KP), and establishing a seismic recorder unit".

In livelihood and agriculture development programs, dams are built, steps are taken to adapt to and lessen the effects of climate change, sustainable agriculture is developed to ensure food security, soil conservation activities are strengthened, forest ecosystems are protected, people's lives are made more resilient, sustainable land use planning is done, natural resources are preserved, and people's lives are made more resilient. With the help of information technology, disaster risk communication was improved.

Post-Disaster Interventions Recovery and Social Interventions

During these years, people worked hard to keep as many people from suffering as possible by fixing up the facilities that people needed to live. In post-disaster scenarios, areas of the intervention included repairing flood damage, making plans for the repair of government buildings that were damaged by the disaster, repairing water supply and sanitation systems, rebuilding government schools that were destroyed by militancy, rebuilding academic institutions that were damaged by earthquakes, rebuilding health facilities that were damaged by disasters, and rebuilding prisons that were damaged by earthquakes. It also included compensation for those hurt by the disaster, rebuilding and rehabilitating areas hit by militancy, rebuilding and rehabilitating infrastructure damaged by the disaster, setting up a camp management support unit for people who had to leave their homes, and rebuilding and rehabilitating

buildings damaged by earthquakes. Interventions were also made in the rehabilitation of natural resources, the support program for war victims, the rehabilitation of rural and urban communication facilities, the rehabilitation of agriculture research sites, and the refugee-affected and hosting area program.

Institutional and Management Structures

Since the federal government has always put much effort into preventing and controlling floods, the country has built a command and control system for dealing with poorly organized or practical flood situations. Before 2005, about 27 different federal and provincial organizations were meant to help with disaster response and aid. Still, it was not clear what their roles and responsibilities were at various stages of crisis management. Because there was no central authority in charge, there was no clear policy for understanding and predicting hazards and risks, addressing their causes and weaknesses, dealing with emergencies thoroughly and organized, building institutional capacities, and promoting a culture of safety and resourcefulness. The roles of central ministries and provincial (sub-national) departments in the crisis management system before 2005 are summarised in Tables II and III. These roles and duties were found in different reports, records, and interviews conducted during fieldwork. Some groups listed above had positions overlapping in multiple parts of emergency management. For example, the Communication and Works Department mostly worked during the rescue phase, fixing damaged roads. It would also work with the Army Engineers Corps during the reaction phase to improve essential infrastructure. Table IV shows what these jobs are for some of the most influential organizations, especially those that deal with flood management and control. The table only divides the roles of institutions into three phases: preparation, response, and relief. Most of the planning before 2005 did not include measures to avoid disasters or help people regain their feet in the long run. Flood control was done by only four government ministries: Interior, Defence, Cabinet, and Water and Power. During the response phase, ten government offices were meant to be working. Six were at the federal level, and the other four were at the provincial level. Fourteen organizations, including six at the national level and eight at the regional level, helped with the relief phase, which was central to policy actions. 13 government agencies were supposed to make plans for flood-related tragedies. Ten of these agencies were on the federal level, and the other three were on the local level.

Disaster Management Planning

Early studies on the link between how people react and how disasters affect them focused on the social aspects of susceptibility. Vulnerability theories, developed in the 1980s and 1990s, became necessary because they gave a framework for understanding and reducing disaster risk. Blaikie's (1994) Capacities and Vulnerabilities Analysis (CVA) and Pressure and Release Model were some of the first ways to look at how disasters affect people's lives and how to make them less vulnerable. Cernea (1997) looked at the issue of livelihood through the Impoverishment Risk and Reconstruction (IRR) Model in the context of infrastructure development policies that forced people to move and destroyed their livelihoods. This was based on his extensive empirical research into how things change when people are forced to move. McDowell (2002)

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made a general risk pattern based on finding eight typical ways poverty was a risk. These risks of poverty are losing land, a job, being homeless, being left out of society, not having enough food, getting sick more often, losing access to resources on shared property, and the community falling apart. In the context of earthquakes, Cernea's (1997) eight-risk framework is boiled down to five hypothetical transmissions of each of the five risks of poverty. An early review of these risks by international agencies is recorded as follows.

- Landlessness and insufficient food affect a person's ability to make a living since land is the primary food supply and business source. In parts of AJK that were hit by the earthquake, floods and rockslides caused much damage to farm structures, including 5 percent of terraces and bunds (UN, 2005). Half of the devices are for watering, and the other half are for channels.

- According to the 2005 World Bank Assessment Report, widespread damage has led to a massive loss of homes, leaving many people without a place to live. The loss equals 84 percent of all the homes in AJK and 36 percent of all the homes in NWFP, most of which are in rural areas. Most of the damage to houses in rural areas was made worse because they were built on steep hills in mountainous regions. People who had to leave their homes because of a disaster also faced the risk of losing their jobs and income. According to an estimate by the UN in 2005, severely damaged agricultural structures and the loss of all cattle in the worst-affected areas would lead to long-term and, in the worst cases, lifelong unemployment and extreme poverty. Marginalization and social disarticulation are two things that go hand in hand. They result from many economic and social risks, such as landlessness, homelessness, unemployment, and food insecurity. These problems have been a problem for a long time for displaced people, who have lost their economic power and standard of living. Because of the earthquake.

Critical Factors for Disaster Knowledge and Management

This study says that disaster knowledge factors are facts that help handle disasters better. So, knowing about disasters affects how they are born. This study compared good practices and lessons learned to the disaster management cycle to find factors in disaster knowledge. Technological, social, environmental, legal, economic, operational/managerial, governmental, and political factors are classified. These things are involved in all three stages of a disaster: prevention and preparation, aid and recovery, and rebuilding and rehabilitating.

Technologies

This comprises scientific advancements and crisis management tools, techniques, goods, processes, and methods. Information and communication technology and other scientific advances can help reduce the effects of natural disasters (WCDR, 2005, as cited in Oloruntoba, 2005), saving lives, property, and income (UNDP, 2005, as mentioned in Oloruntoba, 2005). This is the main area, which includes means for warning, contact, and structure.

Disaster Alerts

People can be warned about a wave and move to safety, but knowing when an earthquake will happen is harder. The earthquake and tsunami that hit Sumatra in 2004 (Camilleri, 2006; Moe & Pathranarakul, 2006) showed that none of the nine countries in the Indian Ocean could tell people about tsunamis before they hit. So, an early warning system for tsunamis in the Indian Ocean should be linked to one in the Pacific Ocean. For world coverage, the Mediterranean and the Atlantic need early warning systems that are the same (Oloruntoba, 2005). A warning should be as broad as possible (Oloruntoba, 2005) to get regional and global public leaders to pay attention. So, (Rodriguez et al., 2006) notice systems should include ways to talk to, teach, and make people aware of the population. People say that the Pacific Ocean tsunami early warning system knew about the 2004 Sumatra earthquake that caused a tsunami but only sent out some warnings that could have saved lives (Oloruntoba, 2005, citing Martin, 2004). The Indian Ocean tsunami warning failed because information moved slowly or did not move at all. Said et al. (2011) say that having an early warning system does not guarantee that people will act correctly in a disaster if they do not know the danger of tsunamis and what the warning is for. The number of deaths was high because the Indian Ocean did not have an early notice system like the Pacific Ocean and because people did not know much about tsunamis (Kurita et al., 2006). People learned how strong nature can be, but a simple warning system could have saved many lives (McEntire, 2010).

Linking up electronics

People can get knowledge, talk to each other, and learn how to flee, find shelter, and move (Oloruntoba, 2005). Emergency alarms and warnings should be on the radio, TV, and print. Mitigation and protection steps have also been shared with the public through talks, handouts, brochures, signs, and posters. (Moe and Pathranarakul, 2006) Geographic information systems and remote sensing can help companies handle their processes. Stakeholders need to talk to each other about rebuilding. So, essential people need an excellent way to talk to each other (Moe & Pathranarakul, 2006). (Ozceylan and Coskun, 2008) Computer networks and decision support systems make it easier for people to speak during the rebuilding process after a disaster.

Infra buildings Arrangements

Engineering design and building make buildings and networks more dangerous. Allotey et al. (2010) say that bringing science and engineering to the built environment has made developed countries less likely to have earthquakes. Tsunami-resistant coastal buildings are essential. Engineers and experts may be able to make a 40m2 home resistant to tsunamis and cost between $1,000 and $1,500 in 2005 dollars (Hansen, 2005). Its walls have holes so water can go through without hurting it. 10 These homes are made to be five times stronger than traditional homes of the same size. Protective buildings also make people less vulnerable. Research (Pheng et al., 2006) shows that prevention costs $1 but saves $40. Dams, levees, sea walls, elevated roads, robust infrastructure, raised platforms with toilets and drinking water, resilient water supply systems like boreholes, and building designs with escape roads are all physical steps that

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can be taken to stop flooding (DFID, 2005). Massive seawalls made of concrete protect 40% of Japan's 28,000 km of shoreline (Harrison, 2011). Still, they did not work when the tsunami hit in 2011.

The Social Phenomena of the Community

This part of crisis management deals with people and society as a whole. For example, Rodriguez et al. (2006) suggest improving education, jobs, poverty, and decision-making, especially for women, to prepare for future disasters. Citizens need to know how disasters affect them to prepare for, avoid, and deal with them. So, teaching about disasters should be both formal and not formal. Public education and awareness efforts should be pushed hard through print, internet, and community-based groups (like women's and youth's, neighborhood, market/trade, and religious groups). At every stage, disaster management studies should focus on making people less vulnerable to disasters. This will make more experts, policymakers, and managers qualified to meet the human resource needs of crisis management groups and improve the ability of agencies to make effective policies for reducing vulnerability (Ibem, 2011). Rodriguez et al. (2006) say that Sri Lankans and the government did not know about tsunamis. Shiwaku and Shaw (2008) found that people are more likely to be hurt by disasters when they do not know how to prepare. (Ocal and Topkaya, 2011) say that natural disasters have the most significant and different effects on people worldwide. Awareness and knowledge help lower the risk of disasters and build a culture of safety and resilience (UNESCO, 2005). People and organizations work together to learn how to reduce the risk of a disaster. Children are a critical link between schools and homes regarding risk knowledge. (Clerveaux et al., 2010) Raising their understanding is an investment in the future that will help reduce loss from disasters. It is not just about school. UNESCO (2005) says that people, experts, organizations, community stakeholders, and politicians can handle disaster risk information with the help of indigenous knowledge, training, technology, and media. Clerveaux et al. (2010) say that even though damage from a disaster is almost impossible to fix, people can take steps to lower their risk. 11 However, it is hard (Clerveaux et al., 2010) to make teaching tools that can successfully share knowledge across different social groups. A study (Kurita et al., 2006) found that 94% of Sri Lankans had never heard of tsunamis before the one in 2004. Most people said that knowing about tsunamis would have lessened the harm. Many people think emergency teaching in schools is the best. Morin et al. (2008) state that education helps coastal towns get stronger. Education helps Indigenous people learn more about protecting themselves, their environments, their way of life, and their cultural heritage from natural disasters. Kaklauskas et al. (2009) say that people, workers, organizations, community partners, and politicians can learn to understand and handle information through direct learning, information technology, staff training, electronic and printed media, and other creative ways. Kaklauskas et al. (2009) say getting an education is cheaper than a disaster. UN/ISDR proposes that people learn about risks and dangers early on in school before dealing with them as part of their civic and career duties (Shiwaku & Shaw, 2008). So, schooling is essential and indirectly makes people more aware of their neighborhood (Sonak et al., 2008). During aid and rebuilding, the countries affected by different social, economic, and cultural backgrounds must be considered (Oloruntoba, 2005). Think about the short-term and long-term effects on the

population, especially women, of the affected areas in terms of demographics and economics. There are more orphanages now.

Disasters upset gender norms. (Oxfam, 2005; Rodriguez et al., 2006; Sonak et al., 2008) The storm killed more women, led to sexual harassment in refugee camps, and changed their producer roles. Land ownership, property rights, widows' ability to make a living, and patriarchal societies are all things that need to be looked at since men have a hard time raising and educating their children because so many women die (Rodriguez et al., 2006).

Climatic Factor

Disaster management includes natural issues. A tsunami can move more slowly through an area with dunes, coral reefs, and forests. Natural obstacles kept Sri Lanka's Yala and Bundala National Parks safe. Sonak et al. (2008) say coastal risks are more likely when mangroves are not there. Mangroves connect the beach and guard against dangerous waves. (Arya et al., 2006; Bosher et al., 2007) Protecting natural features like dunes, forests, and areas with plants is essential. Reforestation in watersheds makes droughts less likely. During a disaster, there are loads of dangerous, plant-based dirt, sediment, demolition, and city trash. (Sonak et al., 2008) say this trash is hazardous for people, waterways, and sea life. 20–25 million cubic yards of debris were made by the 2010 Haiti earthquake (Moelloer, 2010). Waste handling after a natural disaster needs clear rules. Proper sewage networks and cleaning facilities that do not cost too much are essential, as are recycling and reusing trash. Saline earth must be looked at and watched over by trained experts. You need a sound drainage system to keep the ground from getting damaged. It could take years to clean up polluted groundwater. People who are sick need to drink water to stay healthy (Sonak et al., 2008).

Legal Aspects

These include rules about what is allowed, what is fair, and how to handle a disaster. (Wilkinson et al., 2006) Regular building rules protect the environment by safeguarding infrastructure, capital improvements, and land use. So, well-designed control systems should make disasters less likely and help recovery. Chang et al. (2010) say that the supply of resources for rebuilding after a war is affected by laws and policies. Moe and Pathranarakul (2006) state that laws and rules that help crisis management should be made and followed. Pheng et al. (2006) say these laws and regulations can be based on risk and exposure analyses. (Rotimi et al., 2009) Many current rules were not made to deal with situations or crises. Getting permission to build slows down goals for rebuilding. Poor building quality leads to more death and destruction in poor countries. Pheng et al. (2006) say that this could be caused by a lack of building rules, regulation of construction standards, or shady ways of getting things. These rules should be made more robust and put into effect. Even though the Christchurch earthquake destroyed buildings, New Zealand has stricter rules about building for earthquakes.

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The Dynamics of Economics

Long-term planning and money are both economic factors to think about. Planning the economy includes making, distributing, and using goods and services. Managing money and assets is part of financial problems.

Plan for a Better Economy

Infrastructure is broken when disasters happen, which hurts countries. Papathoma et al. (2003) say that destroying property, engineered buildings, and coastal infrastructure led countries to lose money and business. Roads, trains, pipes, and wires must be carefully placed (Bosher et al., 2007) so that failures do not happen all over. Kovacs and Spens (2007) noted that Longo (2005) stated that energy providers in hurricane-prone areas should bury their lines to reduce power blackouts. Resilient building designs might get tax benefits. (Koria, 2009) says that incentives can help bring in experienced emergency management workers who can handle big, complex projects well. Property insurance must be required so that people can survive disasters (Atmanand, 2003). Thomas and Leichenko (2011) say that the government pays for flood insurance like earthquake insurance in many developed countries. The minimum standards set by insurance companies will indirectly lead to better buildings. Disaster losses can be reduced by planting food and animals and doing things that can handle the weather (Jayaraj, 2007).

Making Plans for the Generation Of Money

After rescue operations, there is also insufficient money for long-term rebuilding (RICS, 2006). The government should put money into ways to prevent disasters. Curry (2011) says states create a “culture of readiness” to reduce the damage caused by natural disasters. Donors often do not give the money they say they will (Oloruntoba, 2005). When more disasters happen, money, people, and government power may be removed from other things. Donor management and financial rules can sometimes take longer for disaster reaction money and rebuilding to start.

Aspects of Management

This group is for planning, coordinating, and managing disasters. Participants' lack of knowledge of disaster risk management makes rebuilding harder. Since natural disasters do not often happen in Sri Lanka, the government is not ready for them. The earthquake of 2004 was a surprise. So, crisis information handling and coordination of aid and recovery were not good. (Kurita et al., 2006) Says that officials did their best but could not get anything done because they did not have enough knowledge or a disaster management system. For cost-effective mitigation plans to be made, we need information on buildings, infrastructure, and people that are at risk. Some disaster recovery projects fail because they do not have enough skilled and experienced people on them (Koria, 2009). Rebuilding needs project management skills, so working with foreign partners is a good idea. Rebuilding will take longer if there is not enough planning and money. Rotimi et al. (2009) say that preparing for a disaster and planning

what to do in case one will affect rebuilding. Sri Lanka has not generally accepted project management and planning tools that are common in business (Koria, 2009). So, inflation, late starts, and late deliveries all add to the cost of rebuilding. Logistics and entry problems slow down the flow of aid. Disaster arrangements are about people, skills, and technology. Humanitarian logistics is new and different from business logistics because disaster aid work is done in places where infrastructure, like energy and transportation, is unstable. Kovacs and Spens (2007) say that the need for goods after most tragedies is a surprise. Still, corporate logistics ideas can be used in charity logistics. Techniques for reducing damage from hazards and disasters are based on making and giving disaster management partners information about risks. However, disaster managers have a big problem in a world that is becoming more globalized and diverse as more people move to places outside their cultural zones (Martin, 2003; Cleveaux et al., 2010). Coordination of recovery is slow, expensive, and hard (Koria, 2009). (Oloruntoba, 2005) For planning, damage assessment, and public information management to work well, national officials, local players, and foreign actors must coordinate more. Moe and Pathranarakul (2006) say that international, national, regional, group, and project planning are all very important. After a disaster, information is most useful and hardest to find (Paul et al., 2006). Information is needed for early warning, planning, recovery, and rebuilding. Puras and Iglesias (2009) say that insufficient knowledge makes it hard to deal with disasters and make good decisions. Sobel and Leeson found in 2007 that governments have trouble helping people after natural disasters because they do not have enough knowledge. So, it is essential to handle information well. (Bosher et al., 2007) say that emergency management would be helped by having easy access to building plans and diagrams of essential systems during fires and storms. (Oloruntoba, 2005) To organize the remaking, groups that are helping need practical information that is quick, accurate, and useful. Community involvement is also significant. (Oloruntoba, 2005; Moe and Pathranarakul, 2006): Decisions should be made with the help of local groups and knowledge. Rodriguez et al. (2006) say that local groups should be involved in choosing where to move. Koria (2009) 15 emphasized that all stakeholders should be involved and everyone should own the project. Local recovery efforts include giving out social help and cleaning up trash.

Institutional Management

A disaster control group is involved in this. Disaster management needs strong organizations. A central responsible unit and province, district, and town units should also be set up. (Moe and Pathranarakul, 2006) Say that actions are slowed down by unclear power and slow decision-making. These groups should have a master plan for crisis management and the total capacity to handle disasters. Warning systems can save lives but cannot hold things or buildings. The right groups should make land use plans and rules to keep future development from known dangers, move current projects to better places, and keep natural features. More people should be involved in making these policies work and be constant. After the tsunami, Sri Lanka’s 200m safety zone along the coast was cut down because of how the land is shaped (Koria, 2009). Reconstruction institutions did not care about getting land, how the community felt about it, or how it would affect people’s jobs. Some towns were moved to places more likely to flood, and some sailors and their families were forced to high-rise apartments that did not fit their

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way of life. (Srinivas and Nakagawa, 2008) Coastal zone management policies must be used to plan the building of harbors, houses, and other facilities in the coastal zone while coastal ecosystems are being restored. This will make the area more resilient. Institutions must make building rules that are based on risk. Professional schools need to offer training and classes on handling the risk of disasters to build capacity and knowledge. Bosher et al. (2007) say that the most essential part of disaster risk management is the pre-construction phase. This is where designers, civil engineers, structural engineers, expert contractors, engineering consultants, and investors should all be involved. Participants in the early part should also look at the products, location, and goal. (Koria, 2009): We need training and certification courses for disaster management. Kaklauskas et al. (2009) say disaster experts must improve the sector and regional networks. Mohanty et al. (2006) stated that disaster management groups work together to find the best practices and ways to deal with disasters in each area. By working together closely, these organizations and institutions can share and handle information better. With a network of these organizations, stakeholders and people can gather, organize, share, and use knowledge about crisis management. Disaster management should become an official part of society and be taught in schools and colleges. More training courses can be used to do research. Bosher et al. (2007) say that research should focus on how disaster risk reduction can be put into buildings to strengthen them.

Politics in the Country

Disaster management and politics, parties, and leaders. (Oloruntoba, 2005) The political situation in an area may not allow for quick relief distribution or long-term recovery, which could affect the safety and security of those who work in crisis management. (Paul et al., 2006) says that political turmoil in Sri Lanka and Indonesia slowed down their progress. Recovery work in the north of Sri Lanka had to stop because there was bloodshed, and it was hard to get there (Koria, 2009, citing EC, 2007). Rodriguez et al. (2006) said that the fight between the government and the LTTE brought questions about how help should be given. Medicines and Vassiliadis (2011) agree with the US government's plan to handle mega-fires better. (Maditinos and Vassiliadis, 2011) Political promises include enough money, proactive actions instead of reactive, competing policies and laws, and clear roles for fire management.

Success Factors for Policy Implementation

Policy-implementing groups must develop crucial success factor (KSF) measures to ensure that all workers, regardless of rank, work towards the same goals. (Chantaprai, 2007) says that a group's goals and vision can be reached by using critical success factors. Thus, disaster management policy implementation success factors include:

1. Balance between self-interest and public interest: McDonald (2010), as cited by Tanrangsan (2009), says that an organization is made up of people with different thoughts, attitudes, and backgrounds, which can lead to misunderstandings and conflicting ideas that promote self-interest instead of public interest. Governmental goals could be hurt if private and public claims cannot be brought together.

2. Most people think growth is the government's job, but more and more people think it is a shared community responsibility. Since businesses help people, they should work together to make things better. Companies must be able to change to meet society's needs (Wongprasert, 2009).

3. Beyond border status: A management strategy for an organization in which workers from different backgrounds and with varying levels of experience can work together and build on each other's knowledge to come to a decision. (Srirod, 2009) Getting a "beyond boundaries" position often takes self-sacrifice, controlled anger, and giving up things to reach goals. Getting the "beyond boundaries" label might make you think of new ideas.

Disaster Management The Role Of Social Workers

Social workers must encourage self-determination in people who have lost money or feelings after a tragedy. Researchers have shown that disasters have many financial effects (Visno, 1977; Dodds&Nuehring, 1996). However, there is little information about how disasters affect poor areas in the long run. When something terrible happens to a household's finances, like losing their house, value, financial assets, or income, they become more dependent on others, at least briefly. (Hoff and Rogge, 1996; Sanderson, 2000) Disaster social workers should use distributive, formal, and active justice. Allen (1993) says that O'Connor thought social work should focus on people's needs instead of their wants. Social workers risk being part of a system that hurts many people and families. Unfortunately, psychological symptoms and therapy methods have been used to defend the status quo, "unwittingly adapting people to poverty and other forms of injustice" (author, year, p. 50). Therapy can also be used to deal with social problems. "Just" treatments take into account "the gender, cultural, social, and economic aspects of each person or family seeking help" (author, year, p. 50). This means that political work must be done alongside psychological work. Natural and electronic tragedies cause more stress and chaos, making finding the right solutions even more critical.

Advocacy is a complicated topic regarding crisis reaction and healing because you must know what is best for the survivors. It may go against other basic ideas like self-determination (Manning, 1997). As case and class champions, people who work in social services fight for the rights of survivors after a disaster (Murthy, 2000). Disasters can make it hard to meet basic needs, making action less critical. Standard crisis aid from groups might not cover people with special needs, like a child with mental disabilities or an older adult with Alzheimer's. Social service workers must determine what special services a person or family needs to keep operating at a subsistence level and speak up for those needs. When it becomes clear that a group of survivors (like low-income areas or indigenous communities) are being ignored because of their group status or identity, social care workers may be needed to act based on the principles of justice and class advocacy. Clinical social workers need to consider how they help people after a disaster. Richman (1997) said that advocacy is "promoting ethical rules of behavior in clinical practice and research, educating people about the ethical issues involved, and encouraging appropriate and equitable services" (p. 378). There may be

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problems with how crisis lobbying is set up. Formal and informal groups fight to meet many needs despite management and policy limits. So, organizations that a disaster has hit may not be able to meet the community's needs. So, groups might be against lobbying. To help disaster victims, social workers and social service groups need to be involved in evaluating, mitigating, planning, and being ready for disasters before they happen. This will make it more likely that services for people with special needs will be available.

Below are some of the most essential things a social worker can do in a town hit by a disaster.

- Participate in pre-disaster management committees within the community and promote engagement of other social service entities and individuals:

- Set up the management of social service organizations so that they have an ethical framework for helping with emergency reaction and recovery.

- It is recommended that an organization's rules and policies be thoroughly examined to ensure that the requirements and concerns of both the organization and survivors are congruent to the greatest extent feasible.

- Start and participate in pre-disaster activities that help public, private, and volunteer groups organize and work together ethically during catastrophes.

- Participate in collaborative, public, and professional training before a disaster that discusses ethical ways to deal with disaster survivors' behavior, how to use people and the environment to cope, and the needs of vulnerable groups. During the time it takes to respond to and recover from a disaster, help people on a human level, and fight for their cases and groups.

- Get involved by planning, building teams, and coordinating with the community before and after a disaster, using the full range of social work methods, from clinical and direct practice to lobbying, organizing, and organizational administration. Allen's (1993) description of ethical duty works for social workers in emergencies. It is imperative for social service entities and personnel operating at the regional, state, federal, and international levels to persist in assimilating insights from prior successes and errors to enhance disaster management frameworks, tactics, protocols, and partnerships. We know that new natural and technological disasters will happen, so we must think and act before disasters happen to limit the damage they could cause and help in the most efficient, effective, and moral way possible after a disaster.

Discussion

The lack of resources, inadequate infrastructure, and geographical vulnerability are just a few of the many complex obstacles Pakistan's disaster management faces. One of the essential difficulties is coordinating between various government offices and

helpful associations during calamity reaction endeavors. This absence of coordination frequently prompts defers in giving guidance and alleviation to impacted populaces, worsening the all-around desperate circumstance. Moreover, the lack of subsidizing distributed to catastrophes the executive's exercise prevents readiness and reaction abilities, leaving the country unprepared to manage continuous cataclysmic events like floods, quakes, and dry seasons. Tending to these difficulties requires a thorough methodology that spotlights reinforcing coordination components, further developing asset portions, and upgrading the flexibility of networks to limit the effect of fiascos. By conquering these deterrents, Pakistan can upgrade its debacle board capacities and better safeguard its general population amid emergencies. (Muhammad Ahsan Mukhtar et al., 2024).

Conclusion

Although fiasco administrations have progressed, numerous survivors think they are testing, conflicting, and deficient. Services may become so categorized and formalized that they will not consider the guiding principles for providing services. Additionally, it is possible that these services will not be able to meet all of the needs of seniors, children, people of color, low-income individuals, and other vulnerable groups. This article has given instances of administration intercessions and pre-and post-catastrophe arranging situations where moral issues will probably be created and where a superior comprehension of moral and worth standards could assist with working with an answer. Coordinating moral contemplations into pre-debacle preparation can upgrade the viability of authoritative methodologies toward overseeing horrendous occasions and encourage more amazing possibilities for hierarchical joint effort. Moreover, it can reinforce the workforce's and volunteers' capacity to work under elevated help prerequisites due to a calamity.

Recommendations

There are several ways to improve Pakistan's disaster management. Right off the bat, upgrading early admonition frameworks and correspondence networks is vital to guarantee ideal reactions to fiascos. Disasters can be significantly reduced by investing in technology and infrastructure for efficient information dissemination. Besides, limiting working among applicable partners, including government offices, non-legislative associations, and neighborhood networks, is fundamental. Preparing programs on calamity readiness, reaction, and recuperation ought to be routinely led to fortify the general strength of the country. Cultivating cooperation and coordination among different areas is imperative to guarantee a brought together and compelling reaction to debacles. Laying out clear conventions and systems for organizational collaboration can smooth out endeavors amid an emergency. By executing these procedures, Pakistan can further develop its catastrophe board abilities and moderate the effect of future disasters. (Saeed et al., 2023).

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