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## **Sustainable Resilience? Disaster Recovery and the Marginalisation of Socio-cultural Needs and Concerns**

### **Abstract**

Resilience has become the dominant and normative ideology of disaster recovery, and most studies focus on how to achieve resilient recovery. This is premised on an assumption that resilience is appropriate, and thereby sustainable for affected populations. However, this article critically explores to what extent the recovery needs and concerns of disaster-affected households fit neatly within resilience vernacular and analytical frameworks. The research shows that many socio-cultural needs of disaster-affected people are marginalized from resilience-based recovery. The paper suggests that if disaster recovery is to be a normative and sustainable agenda, then resilience alone may be insufficient, and that needs and concerns that do not directly adapt to, reduce or avoid the impacts of hazards, ought to be prioritized in recovery programmes. The paper explores these issues by investigating self-build housing processes in a post disaster setting in Cochabamba city in Bolivia.

**Keywords:** Resilience, Disaster recovery, Sustainability, Bolivia, Self-build housing, Anthropocentric house, Disaster risk

### **I. Introduction**

Resilience has now become a priority for disaster recovery programmes (Manyena et al., 2011). For instance, the UNISDR (2017) now defines recovery as “The medium and longer-term rebuilding and sustainable restoration of resilient critical infrastructure, services, housing, facilities and livelihoods required for full functioning of a household, community or a society affected by a disaster”. The Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction (2015) now includes as Priority 4 a focus on ‘build back better’ in recovery, rehabilitation and reconstruction. The intention is to adopt a holistic approach towards recovery where the physical, social and economic conditions of disaster-affected societies are collectively addressed to create overall improved resilience (UNISDR 2015). Also, the third international ‘World Reconstruction Conference’ was titled ‘Promoting resilience through post-crisis recovery’, and aimed to “Strengthen the discourse on recovery by focusing on demand for better recovery systems ex-ante, and promote practices leading to resilient recovery and enhance global knowledge resources (GFDRR, 2017). Resilience has therefore become the dominant ideology within disaster recovery, and now represents the referent or norm that recovery organisations aspire to in the aftermath of a disaster (WDR, 2014).

Most studies on resilient recovery, focus on how to best achieve resilience, without stopping to question the suitability of this ideology to meet the recovery needs of disaster-affected people. In other words, do the recovery needs and concerns of disaster-affected people fit neatly within resilience vernacular and analytical frameworks? And, are there other needs and concerns that are being overlooked and marginalized in the pursuit of ‘resilient recovery’? These are the questions this article sets out to theoretically and empirically explore. They are important questions because recovery programmes must meet local needs and concerns if they are to be locally appropriate and thereby sustainable (Tierney and Oliver-Smith 2012). If disaster recovery is to remain a normative and sustainable agenda, it is important to recognize and begin conversations about how to operationalize the myriad needs and concerns of disaster affected people into recovery policies. Relatedly, resilience-focused recovery may be unsustainable and/or rejected by local populations if policies do not incorporate such ‘peripheral’ socio-cultural needs and concerns. Slippage between policy rhetoric and the actual lived experiences and aspirations of people is a constant challenge for policymakers because as Brunner (1991)

and Clark and Clark (2002) warn, policies which misconstrue some vital part of the context, or overlook the context altogether, risk making policies ineffective.

This research does not engage in a deeper analysis of the 'objective' attributes of resilience, but instead, using Cochabamba city in Bolivia as a case study, it moves towards a more complex understanding of the needs and concerns of recovering households. This is achieved by investigating how the needs and concerns of disaster-affected households shape the design and construction of self-build houses in post-disaster contexts. From here, I consider to what extent household needs and concerns are reflected in resilience focused disaster recovery. In doing so, this research reveals a slippage between the aims and objectives of resilience-based recovery programmes, and the recovery needs and concerns of disaster affected people. This slippage risks resilient recovery policies being locally inappropriate and thereby unsustainable for affected populations. In light of this, I suggest that resilient recovery cannot be understood as a sustainable endeavor/socio-ecological status, unless broader needs and concerns that fall outside dominant conceptualisations of resilience are incorporated. As such, this paper makes the argument that resilience must be re-conceptualised as a state that is not simply about living with, adapting to, or reducing the impacts of a hazard. Rather, resilience must be understood as a state that is sustainable because it not only reduces/adapts to hazards, but is *also*, a state that is appropriate to local socio-cultural needs. Through a focus on self build housing as the site of analysis, the paper also suggests that researchers and policymakers working on housing recovery are not able to recognize the wide array of household needs and concerns if housing is narrowly conceptualized as a physical shelter from hazards and an asset to accumulate assets to reduce disaster risk. Rather, it is necessary to adopt an anthropocentric understanding of housing if the wide array of physical, economic, social, and cultural needs and concerns of households are to be identified.

## II. Resilient household recovery

Discussions of recovery have referred to it as the long-term process that sets in after the 'short-term' relief and the medium term 'reconstruction' has been achieved (Berke et al 1993)<sup>1</sup>. Manyena (2006) suggests that certain notions of disaster recovery have stressed the idea of "bouncing back" and returning to a pre-shock state. According to this notion, a disaster is an abnormal event and appropriate measures can be instituted to restore normalcy, which implies restoring a certain set of social, economic, and political relations commensurate with the social order prior to an event (Bankoff and Hillhorst 2009). However, 'bouncing back' is an inherently conservative approach that does not see anything amiss with original social structures. This critique suggests that recovery should be more progressive because simply returning a community to a state of 'normalcy' is an insufficient goal if pre-disaster conditions involved women's oppression, racial segregation and endemic poverty, which increase people's levels of disaster risk prior to hazard impacts (Kelman et al 2015; Schipper and Pelling 2006; Schipper 2009). As such, there has been a normative shift to longer-term developmental perspectives aimed at building resilient societies after disasters.

Resilience now underpins many frameworks for integrating climate change adaptation, as well as natural disasters, political fragility, or urban inequity, with development planning and programming (Bené et al 2018). Individuals, households, communities, or even societies are often expected to strive for resilience, in particular in relation to climate change and disasters (Chelleri, 2012; Gasper et al 2011; Leichenko, 2011; Romero-Lankao & Dodman, 2011 cited in Bené et al 2018). In this area of research, the definition of resilience is contested. Yet, one of the most widely adopted definitions views resilience as a system's capacity to absorb disturbance and re-organize into a fully functioning system. Therefore, exposed to the same disasters, socio-ecological systems with

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<sup>1</sup> This paper does not engage in discussions of resettlement as disaster recovery. This paper focuses on recovery that takes place when disaster-affected populations *remain in place*. For further reading on the linkages between resettlement and recovery please see Alainz 2017, Guo and Kapucu 2018, Santiago et al 2018,

high resilience can suffer less damage than those with low resilience (Rose, 2004). As such, resilience is related to coping capacity to natural hazards (Greiving, 2006), which refers to the level of resources and ability to use these resources to deal with adverse consequences of a disaster (Billing & Madengruber, 2006). Political ecology and global environmental change research also incorporate the idea of adaptive capacity with resilience. Adaptiveness is the “capacity to adjust to changing circumstances during a disruption by developing new plans, taking new actions or modifying behaviours so you are better able to withstand and recover from the disruption, particularly when it is not possible or wise to go back to the way things were before.” (ODI, 2017: 43). Therefore, resilience also includes the ability of a socio-ecological system to learn and adapt to the impacts of hazards (Adger et al., 2005; Folke, 2006).

However, this line of argument has been critiqued. Liao (2012) for example, argues that resilience is not simply about reaching equilibrium and stability in order to avoid the impacts of hazards. Rather, resilience should be understood as the ability of a socio-ecological system to live with hazards. In this way resilience is more dynamic and allows a socio-ecological system to adapt and adjust to changing external processes. A further line of critique, by Campanella (2006) in particular, suggests resilience is much more than simply rebuilding the built environment, and restoring income and health levels for instance. Resilience incorporates “thick concatenations of social and cultural matter, and it is often this that endows a place with its defining essence and identity. (...) To enable total recovery, familial, social, and religious networks of survivors and evacuees must be reconnected” (Campanella, 2006, p. 142). In this way, Campanella makes an important conceptual shift; recognising how intangible resources, such as socio-cultural networks must be incorporated into resilience definitions.

Several attempts have been made to develop the means of measuring and monitoring disaster resilience. Although no single model can qualify resilience, the growing consensus is that resilience is a multifaceted concept, with social, economic, institutional, infrastructural, ecological, and community dimensions (NRC, 2010; Peacock et al., 2008). Several sets of resilience indicators or attributes can serve as baselines for measuring recovery progress and outcomes after a disaster event (Bruneau et al., 2003; CARRI, 2009; Cutter, Burton, and Emrich, 2010; Miles and Chang, 2006; Norris et al., 2008; Twigg, 2009). Therefore, achieving household resilience is therefore not simply about reducing the physical vulnerability of infrastructure and the built environment. For instance, Blaikie et al. (2004, p. 359) argue that in order to have “recovered”, a household, should have not only re-established its livelihood, physical assets and patterns of access, but also should be in a position to reduce, respond and recover from the impacts of future hazards.

Resilience based recovery is therefore not only about upgrading infrastructure with disaster resilient construction technologies, but also about diversified livelihoods for people and, public transfers and credit (Briguglio et al., 2009; Davies et al., 2013). Household resilience is also about improved basic services, better social protection mechanisms for poor and vulnerable families (Shaw 2009), the networked capacities of household members (Norris et al., 2008, Sherrieb et al., 2012), levels and diversity of economic, human, social and community capital (Cueto et al 2017, Aldrich, 2012, Mayunga 2007), community cohesion (Adger et al 2013), embedding households within stronger governance systems (Tierney, 2012), and there is a small but very important literature on psychological resilience (Lowe et al 2015). The resilience of households is also about the development and implementation of disaster plans, the purchase of insurance, and the sharing of information to aid in the recovery process (Cutter et al 2008), as well as access to risk communication and levels of risk awareness (Paton and Johnston, 2017). However, these factors are not distributed evenly within and across households, because many elements of resilience are a function of the demographic characteristics of the household and its access to resources (Cutter et al 2008). Discourses on recovery also increasingly recognise the importance of recovering the culture of disaster-affected communities, and of harnessing this culture to support resilient recovery (Hazeleger 2013).

In light of this, research and policy on household recovery typically focuses on how to recover households to establish these elements of resilience. In particular, basic services, levels and diversity of economic capital, health, social capital, governance systems, and reducing physical vulnerability to hazards. Certainly, these are important factors to consider when recovering households. However, this research article sets out to theoretically and empirically question the idea that resilience is *only* something that enables a socio-ecological system to live with, or avoid a hazard. More specifically, I set out to investigate whether resilience should only be instrumentalised as something that allows a socio-ecological system to live with, adapt to, or reduce impacts of hazards. If, as Tierney and Oliver-Smith (2012), and UNISDR (2017) argue, resilience must be sustainable, then meeting the needs and concerns of a socio-ecological system ought to be considered a fundamental part of resilience – even if some needs and concerns cannot be instrumentalised as enabling a household to reduce the impacts of a hazard. I argue, that without sustainability, resilience cannot exist; or at least not in the long-term. Therefore, this article tests the normativity of the resilience-focused recovery agenda by exploring to what extent resilience – as currently conceptualized – meets the needs and concerns of disaster-affected people. In this way, the paper sets out to build on Liao's (2012) argument that resilience is a state that allows a socio-ecological system to live *with* hazards. However, I seek to extend this argument by uncovering needs and concerns that are not instrumental to reducing, adapting to or avoiding a hazard, but which are important to sustain a resilient state within a socio-ecological system.

In order to investigate this, I focus on self-building housing in a post disaster context. In particular, I explore to what extent people pursue resilience through this process. Self-build housing is typical practice in cities of the Global South (Kellett 2005, Wakely and Riley 2011, Mitlin and Satterthwaite 2013); however, self-build does not necessarily mean that urban dwellers construct the entire building. Rather, what is most important is that people decide where, how and when they want to build (Greene and Rojas 2008). This is a particularly insightful site of analysis because the dweller is an effective interpreter and articulator of his/her own needs and priorities (Turner 1976). As such, disaster-affected people are the protagonists and decision makers of how the house is (re)constructed. Through this approach, the research will reveal the suitability of resilience to meet the recovery needs and concerns of disasters affected households, as well as any recovery needs and concerns that do not fall neatly within resilience vernacular and frameworks.

### **III. Methodology**

#### *1 Methods*

The study area is comprised of three adjacent neighbourhoods in Cochabamba city in Bolivia. Data was collected between 2012 and 2017, drawing on mixed methods and ethnographic research. This includes nine months of field research from September 2012 to June 2013, during which time I lived in the case site, and two return visits that took place in 2015 and 2017. Data was gathered through three methods: a quantitative household survey, semi-structured interviews, and participatory methods. Survey respondents (n = 392, or 33 per cent of households) were identified using a randomised sample. This data was useful to create a profile of the case site, including demographic information, incidence of disasters, severity of physical impacts, and the vulnerability levels of households. The questionnaire was structured and allowed responses to be quantified, as most questions were multiple choice and closed-ended, however some questions allowed respondents to rank answers.

Individual semi-structured interviews were carried out with neighbourhood residents (n = 58) that had experienced adverse impacts of local hazards on their houses. Local construction workers (n = 7); and local government officials (n = 4) were also interviewed. Each lasted approximately 60 to 75 minutes on average. Questions with residents focused in particular on the impacts of hazards, the nature of external support from the local government during the disaster recovery phase, how people view the social functions of the house, and the concerns and needs of people when recovering their houses after a disaster. Interviews with construction

workers were principally used to corroborate local people's needs when reconstructing houses. Local government officials were interviewed to identify any assistance given to residents during disaster recovery.

Participatory methods were also used, whereby household members were asked to draw the house that they aspire to build. These drawings act as social maps that uncover people's deep tacit knowledge about how they understand and relate to the physical form of the house (see Kumar, 2002; Stevenson 2008) and to what extent residents consider reducing disaster risk when reconstructing their house. Therefore, participatory methods were particularly useful for revealing people's latent and unconscious priorities for disaster recovery that they may not automatically articulate in the interviews and surveys. Although some interviewees did not have the resources to construct their 'dream house', these drawings reveal the logic of what is important to people. This methodological approach allows this research to understand how disaster-affected people imagine their recovered house .

## *2 Self-build housing in Cochabamba, Bolivia*

The neighbourhoods are located in 'Cerro Lourdes', a hill located 4km from the city centre and within district 6 of Cochabamba city. The Cerro has become densely populated since migration began in the 1950s. In 1999 the municipality of Cochabamba expanded the urban area of the city to include the Cerro, which brought the legal and political recognition of the neighbourhoods (Landaeta 2004). All three neighborhoods are prone to small-scale landslides<sup>2</sup>. This includes a landslide that affected 85 households in 2008 (e.g. Nava, 2011). However, the landslide in 2008 is somewhat of an exception because survey and interview data reveals it is more common that a landslide simultaneously affects one or two adjacent houses. In particular, rainfall exacerbates ground instability, which has led to 29 per cent of houses experiencing small-scale landslips. Additionally, over time, light damage such as cracks in walls can graduate into more serious damage because of the persistent impacts of rainwater on walls. Household survey data shows that 53 per cent of houses had experienced adverse impacts from rainwater in this way. However, physical damage is not only determined by rainfall patterns, but also exposure to rainwater and the materials used to build the house. Finally, disasters are not isolated to one particular area of the neighbourhoods as they are highly geographically spread across the Cerro. They are also sporadic over time occurring throughout the year; however, most physical damage occurs during the rainy season between December and March. Therefore, there is widespread knowledge of local disaster risk within and across households<sup>3</sup>.

Despite the prevalence of adverse hazards impacts, the local government plays a negligible role in post disaster housing recovery (Vallejo 2011, 2015). Following the landslide in 2008, the local government provided immediate disaster relief assistance to affected residents, which reflects a conventional and reactive disaster management approach (Blaikie et al 2004). However, only blankets, mattresses and food were provided to households that had suffered the most severe physical damage to their house. Therefore, households that experienced less severe physical impacts, but significant indirect impacts on levels of social, human and economic capitals were marginalised from immediate support, which exacerbated vulnerability levels. Additionally, and equally as problematic; the local government provided no disaster relief or recovery support to households that experienced small-scale landslides, which impact one or two houses, and which are more common across the Cerro.

Self-building housing construction is legally circumscribed by prescriptive building codes and regulations that are produced by the Local government. However, they are inadequately enforced and residents are largely left to govern the construction of their house in isolation from regulation by external authorities. Furthermore, and supporting Green (2008)' many households do not comply because of the increased cost that compliance incurs. As such, households are left to construct their houses in isolation from coordinated state support and guidance.

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<sup>2</sup> Desinventar (n.d.) define small-scale as between one and one hundred households that are affected at any one time.

<sup>3</sup> See Sou (2017) for an in depth analysis of local risk perceptions across the particular case site.

This makes Cerro Lourdes a particularly revelatory case for this research, because it allows investigation of household needs and concerns, when households are the primary decision-makers, and when external organisations do not impose a particular vision, referent or norm of housing recovery.

The population began to construct vernacular architecture known as Medias aguas<sup>4</sup>, which is typical in rural areas of Bolivia, when settling in the area. Medias aguas are arranged as multiple single adobe<sup>5</sup> structures that are spread out linearly across a plot. These structures are typically one storey in height because adobe cannot support multiple storey structures. Medias aguas typically have an outdoor patio, which is a communal space for activities such as, cooking, cleaning clothes, eating, socialising and storing water. These houses are often built without a contention wall and/or foundation, which increases their vulnerability to landslides. Residents construct medias aguas when arriving to the Cerro because materials are cheap, and households were knowledgeable and accustomed to this design and construction type. However, households now consider medias aguas an undesirable architecture. Residents living in adobe houses receive negative assessments and judgments from those who live in houses made of brick and concrete. Relatedly, medias aguas are also widely criticized for their aesthetic appearance. They often have cramped and uncomfortable living conditions because a single room is often occupied by several household members – as many as seven - and used for multiple activities such as cooking, eating, dressing, resting, socialising and sleeping. For these reasons, medias aguas are locally associated with reduced levels of privacy, as well as a sense of deprivation, disorder, being unprogressive and lower levels of social status.

Adobe also attracts the vinchuca insect that lives in un-rendered adobe walls. Vinchuca transmit the protozoal parasite through their bite, which can lead to the fatal disease known as Chagas (Boven & Morohasi, 2002). Adobe also absorbs and retains the heat and moisture from the day, which can make internal living conditions uncomfortable, particularly during the rainy season. Women in particular complain that it is difficult to carry out their gendered domestic duties such as maintaining the cleanliness and order of the house when there are dirt floors and minimal space to store household items. Also, outdoors patios are typically semi-public as it is common for a waist high fence to demarcate the plot from public space. However, many interviewees state that this leads to feelings of insecurity from local thieves. Finally, research has identified how communal outdoors patios, act as semi-publics space for household activities, which maintain and strengthen the social bonds within households and with neighbouring households (Al-Thahab et al., 2014). However, many women interviewees confessed their annoyance about having to prepare food and clean outdoors, in uncomfortable and often cold and rainy conditions.

There is little nostalgia associated with medias aguas because of the diverse ways that medias aguas architecture negatively affects people's daily lives and lifestyles. However, medias aguas are the beginning of an incremental process of housing construction, which fulfils the initial requirements and objectives of residents when settling in the Cerro - shelter. As a result, and reflecting Turner's (1976) seminal research, 94% of households have subsequently reconstructed, or plan to reconstruct the house in order to satisfy needs and concerns that medias aguas cannot. The next section describes the architectural transformation across the case site, and in doing so reveals the housing needs and concerns of households.

#### **IV. Findings and Discussion**

##### *1. Self-build housing and the (Re)Construction of Resilience*

Local people expressed different interpretations about how the physical form of the house can fulfil the needs and concerns of household members, and these differences display the personal tastes of people. However, the

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<sup>4</sup> 85% of households constructed a media aguas house when they settled in the Cerro.

<sup>5</sup> Sun dried bricks made of mud, water and straw.

style and construction materials of houses draw them together. In particular, households are increasingly (re)constructing houses made of brick and concrete, which reflects self-built housing patterns across Latin America (Forty 2005) and urban Bolivia (INE 2012)<sup>6</sup>. These 'new' houses are often two, three, or sometimes even four storeys in height, which creates a dramatic visual contrast to *medias aguas*. Local people refer to these 'new' houses as 'casas bonitas' (pretty houses), and they are now the architectural referent that people aspire to across the neighbourhoods.

Interviewees indicated that brick and concrete satisfy more of their housing needs and concerns than adobe, and several of these concerns fit neatly within resilience frameworks. For instance, people perceive that the use of brick/concrete, a contention wall, and a deep foundation are their most important resources for reducing the impacts of landslides and rainwater<sup>7</sup>. Illustrating this, 97% of survey respondents felt safer against the impacts of climatic hazards after constructing brick and/or concrete rooms, a retaining wall, or a deep foundation. Other resilience-related needs and concerns include the importance of the house as an economically productive asset. In particular, larger houses allow households to construct shops, workspaces, bars (locally known as a 'chicherias'), and extra rooms that can be rented out to tenants. This is particularly important to many women who are unable to engage in paid labour outside of the house, because of a gendered domestic division of labour. Supporting Moser's (2010) work in Ecuador, women have been able to increase their household bargaining power because they are now earning personal income. Many other residents stress that brick and concrete have health benefits. In particular, brick and concrete does not attract the *vinchuca* parasite. Furthermore, brick and concrete buffer against the heat and humidity, whereas adobe absorbs and retains the heat and moisture from the day. As such, disaster-affected households are concerned with multiple and interrelated factors, which include reducing the physical impacts of hazards, economic security, the empowerment of women through house-based businesses, and health - all key indicators used to measure household resilience.

## 2. (Re)Constructing lives: Needs and concerns beyond resilience

The physical form of the house has a wide range of functions and meanings for household members. The design and construction of the house allows households to consolidate and transform socio-cultural relations within and beyond the house, and a sense of self and cultural identity – elements that do not fit neatly within current conceptualizations of household resilience<sup>8</sup>. More specifically, household needs and concerns also include beauty, individuality, public social status, competition to impress others, comfort, privacy and private property, cleanliness and order, domestic efficiency, as well as the expression of life histories and beliefs.

For instance, a larger house with additional bedrooms changes the layout, and ultimately the privacy and comfort of household members. For household members, a private dwelling unit does not just signify a place to sleep, but also the ability of individuals to physically demarcate their lives as independent from other household members (Kellett 2005). This is particularly important in the Cerro where multiple generations reside in the same house. A larger house also allows households to incorporate the kitchen and bathroom inside of the unitary structure of the house. Women often remarked that this improves their comfort and privacy, as they no longer have to carry out household duties outdoors, where they are publically visible to passersby. Relatedly, many

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<sup>6</sup> Survey data reveals that 11% of houses are entirely constructed with adobe, 58% are a mixture of adobe and brick/concrete, and 31% are made only of brick and concrete.

<sup>7</sup> Survey data shows that 50% of houses have a deep foundation and 43% are constructed with a retaining wall.

<sup>8</sup> For further reading on current conceptualizations of household resilience see Arbon, P., Steenkamp, M., Cornell, V., Cusack, L., & Gebbie, K. (2016). Measuring disaster resilience in communities and households: pragmatic tools developed in Australia. *International Journal of Disaster Resilience in the Built Environment*, 7(2), 201- 2015.

interviewees aspire to build large fences and install opaque windows, which obscure passerby vision of household activities, which further illustrates people's concern with privacy.

Again, many women remarked that 'casas bonitas' also ease the maintenance and cleanliness of the house. This is first because brick, concrete and ceramic are easier to clean than adobe. Second because a large house also increases storage space, which allows household members to maintain the order and tidiness of the house, which contrasts to the 'clutter' and 'disorder' created by the cramped conditions in *medias aguas*.

'We lived in an adobe house for many years. Have you seen them? They are fine at first, but they really are so dirty and all I would do is clean. Everyday the same; you cannot get rid of the dirt. So I said I want a beautiful brick one. You know with the ceramics too. Now I can spend longer working in my shop – making a little money you see, rather than cleaning, cleaning, cleaning' (Interviewee, June 2013)

This was particularly important for women because it saves them time and labour, allowing them to become more efficient domestic workers and spend time on other activities, including income-earning activities.

Other benefits of 'casas bonitas' highlight how people view the house as a medium to establish and reproduce their sense of self and cultural identity. For instance, a large house also allows households to display ornaments, souvenirs and photographs of family events, religious paraphernalia and items bought or sent when a household member was living and working overseas<sup>9</sup>. Many of these items were previously hidden away in boxes; however, increased space allows people to express their life histories, tastes and beliefs, which helps to construct a sense of 'homeliness' (Blunt and Dowling 2006). Relatedly, the house is also a key constituent of consumption that allows people to confirm and display their status. Klaufus (2006, 2012) has shown how brick and concrete houses often represent a form of 'conspicuous consumption' in self-build contexts in the global south. This is because these materials are associated with higher levels of economic income, and which ultimately visually express the socio-economic status of the household. Therefore, and in line with Kellett (2005, 2012), use of these materials is a way to claim higher public social status and impress others within the neighbourhoods. This notion of higher social status is further exacerbated by the size of houses, which as previously stated, may be three or four storeys. The importance of public social status is also apparent when entering houses as it is often only then that one can observe material poverty, which is hidden from public view. Therefore, the design and materials of houses is a way of communicating how household members want to be seen and to avoid negative assessments and judgments.

Reflecting Inclan-Valadez (2013), there is also desire to give houses a status of beauty and express people's individuality and personal tastes. This is achieved through aesthetic finishing and the design and layout of the house, which is often reflective of Spanish-colonial architecture. This includes low-pitched clay tile, or flat roofs; walls and floors that are covered in ceramic tiles; small porches or balconies; fenestration; wood casement or tall, double-hung windows; canvas awnings; and opaque windows. People also cite the importance of elaborately decorated smooth plaster (stucco) walls, terracotta or cast concrete ornaments and painting houses in multiple and bright colours. A corollary of this is again to develop public social status. It also creates a sharp contrast to the 'modesty' of single storey rectangular *medias aguas* that are typically brown in colour.

### *3. Bringing Socio-Cultural needs and concerns into Disaster Recovery*

Although recovering households value socio-cultural processes such as public social status and expressing life

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<sup>9</sup> Survey data shows that 33% of households had one or more members that previously or currently lived and worked outside of the neighbourhood. Principal destinations are Spain (51% of migrants), Argentina (27%), Brazil (9%), other provinces of Bolivia (7%), followed by Italy, Chile and the United States (equal 1.2%).

histories; these processes are typically absent from research and policy discourses which focus on how 'to do' effective disaster recovery<sup>10</sup>. Critics may object that needs such as public social status, privacy, beauty and domestic efficiency are unessential, and should remain peripheral to recovery because the ultimate objective of household disaster recovery is to ensure a socio-ecological 'system's capacity to absorb disturbance and re-organize into a fully functioning system' (Janssen et al., 2006). However, these findings are in line with research that explores self-build housing in the global south, and which highlights how households view the house as more than a physical shelter. In particular, Kellett (1995, 2005) and Klafus (2000, 2006, 2012) provide empirical evidence from the Latin American context, of how households design and construct houses in order to facilitate multiple social processes – many of which are observed in Cochabamba. Therefore, if disaster recovery is to remain a normative and sustainable agenda, it is important to recognize and begin conversations about how to operationalize the myriad needs and concerns of households into recovery policies. Resilience-focused household recovery may be unsustainable and/or rejected by local populations if policies do not incorporate such 'peripheral' socio-cultural needs and concerns. Slippage between policy rhetoric and the actual lived experiences and aspirations of people is a constant challenge for policymakers because as Brunner (1991) and Clark and Clark (2002) warn, policies which misconstrue some vital part of the context, or overlook the context altogether, risk making policies unsustainable.

In many settings, however, key institutional structures continue to discount or dismiss social and cultural dimensions of recovery needs, which is based on paternalistic presumptions about what is 'best' for minority groups (Howitt and Veland 2012). Such approaches reinforce discourses of superiority and power and are mobilized to justify institutionalised decision-making processes that both exclude and ignore local people's views (ibid). This approach privileges the developmentalist notion that 'management' as universally possible and appropriate - a proposition that Howitt and Suchet-Pearson (2006) identify as Eurocentric and in need of challenge. Therefore, if recovery is to remain a normative process, which not only improves resilience, but also recovers society in a way that is desirable for local people, it is important to consider and operationalize such social and cultural dimensions that appear peripheral to environmental management. In this way, this research echoes foundational ideas by seminal thinkers, including Margaret Mead (1928), Paulo Freire (1973) and Robert Chambers (1994) – who, at the time, were radical in their arguing for the legitimacy of local knowledges in order to subvert dominant narratives. Broadening an understanding of recovery beyond resilience, would acknowledge explicitly, that resilience cuts across cultural and aspirational processes, and that resilience can and should be applied to support, rather than detract from these. Doing so also acknowledges and operationalises discourses about the importance of recognizing and recovering the culture of disaster-affected communities, and of harnessing this culture to support resilient recovery, which speaks to research on the role of cultures within disaster affected areas (Polymenopoulou 2017, Kruger et al 2015, Douglas and Wildavsky 1983)

However, findings must be interpreted with caution, as they cannot be extrapolated to all contexts. That is, it would be foolish and reductive to assume that all disaster-affected households across space and time have precisely the same needs and concerns. Nevertheless, the Cochabamba case suggests that organisations must be cautious of instrumentalising recovery for resilience-building *only*; doing so sets the boundaries for recovery. In other words, notions about 'appropriate' recovery, as well as 'valid' needs and concerns have already been formulated, even before consultation with disaster-affected people has taken place. That is, the future of recovered households is a pre-set condition in which resilience is the ultimate priority and objective. Therefore, despite debate moving beyond simple notions of 'bouncing back', the aims of disaster recovery arguably remain conservative because the vision of recovery has already been largely pre-defined. This is even before disaster-

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<sup>10</sup> There is a small, yet very important set of work on culture and disasters, which focuses on the need for more culturally appropriate disaster recovery policies and processes. This includes Kruger et al (2015); IFRC World Disaster Report (2014); Oliver-Smith (2013), and Oliver-Smith, Hoffman, and Hoffman. (1999).

affected people have the opportunity to engage in participatory debate about the recovery process. As such, vulnerable people are to some extent, constrained from imprinting their particular vision for their lives beyond the vernacular and analytical frameworks of resilience.

The intention of this article is not to promote specific disaster recovery programmes, or suggest that resilience-based disaster recovery programmes should be discontinued. Nor am I suggesting that recovery programmes should facilitate policies and programmes that may increase people's disaster risk. Rather, my purpose has been to critically explore the limitations of resilience-focused disaster recovery, with the ultimate suggestion that disaster recovery should be a normative agenda ('what ought to be done') that recovers society in a way that meets the myriad needs of people. Moreover, the paper has shown that dominant conceptualisations of resilience are based on reductive understandings of human needs and aspirations. Recovery organisations ought to recognise that resilience alone, may be inadequate for the needs and concerns of local disaster-affected populations. And that disaster recovery should be liberated from an exclusive focus on resilience. To ensure the sustainability of recovery programmes, resilience must connect to, and incorporate local aspirations, cultural processes, and social contexts. That is, if disaster recovery is to be a normative and sustainable agenda, then resilience alone may be insufficient, and that there must be needs and concerns that do not directly shape hazard impacts, ought to be prioritized in recovery programmes. As such, this paper builds on Liao's (2012) suggestion that resilience is not only the ability to adapt to, avoid or reduce the impacts of a hazard, but is also the capacity to live *with* a hazard. However, this paper goes further, and demonstrates that if resilience is to be maintained and sustained by a socio-ecological system, wider socio-cultural processes that do not directly shape the impacts of hazards must also be operationalized. In this way, resilience needs to be understood as a state that not *only* exists in relation to a hazard, but is *also* a state that exists within a particular socio-cultural context.

#### *4. Towards anthropocentric conceptualisations of housing*

Housing as a productive asset has a long-standing story, rooted first in the scholarship researching the dynamics of poverty and vulnerability from the mid-eighties onward (Moser 1998). Following this, researchers and policy-makers working on household recovery have taken on board this approach, conceptualising the house as a shelter to reduce the physical impacts of hazards, or a resource to accumulate assets in order to increase resilience (see Blaikie et al. 2004, Dodman, Bicknell et al. 2012, Hardoy and Pandiella 2009, Moser, 2010, Velasquez, Bonapace et al 2012). However, results in Cochabamba suggest this view misrepresents the multiple and overlapping social functions that housing has for households living in disaster-affected contexts. It also diverts attention away from the important social aspirations and cultural processes of households that fall outside of current conceptualisations of resilience. In light of this, I propose that an anthropocentric understanding of the house ought to become standardised as best practice for organisations that are working in the field of household disaster recovery. Analytically speaking, the house is viewed as more than a physical resource made of bricks and mortar, but is instead a resource that is able to transform and facilitate a diversity of social, economic and cultural processes (Blunt & Dowling 2006, Kellett 2005, Klafus 2012).

This approach reveals the materiality of the house, whereby the focus is on the social driving forces of the material world and concern with the "notion that humans engage with the things of the world as conscious agents and are themselves shaped by those experiences" (DeMarrais et al 2004: 2). This shifts discussion away from superficial interpretations of the house, towards exploration of the underlying processes of how dwellers perceive the social functions of their house and how they interact with the materials it is made of. This approach clarifies how houses are socially and culturally enacted, and reveals how design and construction materials facilitate the consolidation and transformation of economic and social processes and relations, as well as cultural identity when self-building houses - many of which are not related to resilience building (Kellett 2005).

An anthropocentric understanding of the social functions of houses is well established in other research fields.

For instance, studies on self-build housing in the global south discuss the use of certain construction materials, such as brick and ceramic, as facilitating domestic efficiency as they are easier to clean (Blunt 2005, Sou 2015, 2017). However, through the vernacular of disaster studies, brick is narrowly understood as a durable material for reducing physical vulnerability (Bosher 2008). Other research analyses the incorporation of elaborately decorated facades and the originality of the shape of houses. This form of construction and design has been termed 'conspicuous consumption' to describe houses that are constructed to increase the public social standing and individuality of inhabitants (Klaufus 2000, 2006, 2012).

If policy makers and researchers working on disaster recovery conceptualise houses anthropocentrically, it challenges the idea that houses in the global south essentially respond to basic material need for shelter, safety and economic security. It also ensures that the analytical approach adopted to explore household needs is not bound by resilience as its frame of reference. In this way, it will allow researchers and policy-makers to sufficiently unpack the housing needs and concerns of recovering households, which fall outside of resilience vernacular and analytical frameworks.

## V. Conclusion

The overall objective of this research was to investigate to what extent resilience meets the needs and concerns of disaster-affected populations, and thereby consider how sustainable current dominant notions of resilience are. This research suggests that the checklist type framework of disaster recovery, which outlines principles for resilience, can be criticized for being too descriptive and focusing narrowly on instrumentalising recovery to resilience. The Cochabamba case suggests there is a need to reconceptualise disaster recovery futures, in social and cultural terms, in order to respond to the needs and values of disaster-affected groups. Rather than assume that existing ways of seeing and recovering from disasters are adequate. Furthermore, progressive recovery discourses argue that we should not return (or 'bounce back') to a vulnerable pre disaster state, but move 'forward' (Bankoff and Hilhorst 2009, Manyena 2011, Schipper and Pelling 2006; Schipper 2009). However, these discussions remain largely framed in relation to protection against hazards and having the resources to recover from hazard impacts. In contrast, the Cochabamba case suggests that incorporation of social and cultural processes should be considered integral components of 'moving forward', and therefore be integrated into recovery programmes if they are to be sustainable. Recovery cannot be simply reduced to a universal or predefined strategy as if resilience will satisfy all groups across space and time. Successful post-disaster recovery ought to be more than simply rebuilding resilient housing and other assets to reduce disaster risk, it should also be measured by whether it facilitates the establishment of the lives that vulnerable people want to have, and aspire to have. Taking such an approach, which listens to, and integrates local needs that may fall outside dominant conceptualisations of resilience, takes a step towards a normative recovery agenda that recovers and improves the lives of disaster-affected people, and in ways that are locally appropriate. It is also fundamentally important to ensure the sustainability of recovery and resilience policies more broadly.

**Word Count:** 6,984

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