

Resilience to Flash Floods in Wetland Communities of Northeastern Bangladesh

A.S.M. Maksud Kamal¹, Mohammad Shamsudduha^{2,*}, Bayes Ahmed², S.M. Kamrul Hassan¹, Md. Shahidul Islam¹, Ilan Kelman^{2,3,4}, Maureen Fordham²

¹Department of Disaster Science and Management, University of Dhaka, Bangladesh

²Institute for Risk and Disaster Reduction, University College London, UK

³Institute for Global Health, University College London, UK

⁴University of Agder, Norway

*Correspondence to: M. Shamsudduha (m.shamsudduha@ucl.ac.uk)

Abstract

Globally, a number of catastrophic hydrometeorological hazards occurred in 2017 among which the monsoon floods in South Asia was particularly disastrous, killing nearly 1,200 people in India, Nepal and Bangladesh. The wetland region (Haor) of northeastern (NE) Bangladesh was severely affected by flash floods early in 2017, affecting nearly 1 million households and damaging US \$450 million worth of rice crops. This study investigates how the NE Bangladesh experienced the 2017 flash floods, and to what degree the wetland communities are vulnerable and resilience to flash floods. Focus group discussion, key informant interviews, and household questionnaire surveys ($n=80$) were applied in the study area of Sunamganj district. Results from statistical analyses and regression modelling reveal that poor people are particularly vulnerable to floods but they are also more adaptive and thus resilient; middle-income households are vulnerable as they are hesitant to take up any jobs and accept flood relief; and rich households, despite being less adaptive, are able to recover from flood disasters because of wealth. This study reveals that resilience also stems from deep religious faith in the Haor inhabitants that supports communities to move on by accepting that most natural calamities such as flash floods are divine tests. This study also finds that women are particularly vulnerable and less resilient as they are not normally allowed to work outside of their homes and beyond the Haor communities due to cultural and religious reasons.

Keywords: Flash flooding, resilience, vulnerability, livelihoods, Haor region, Bangladesh

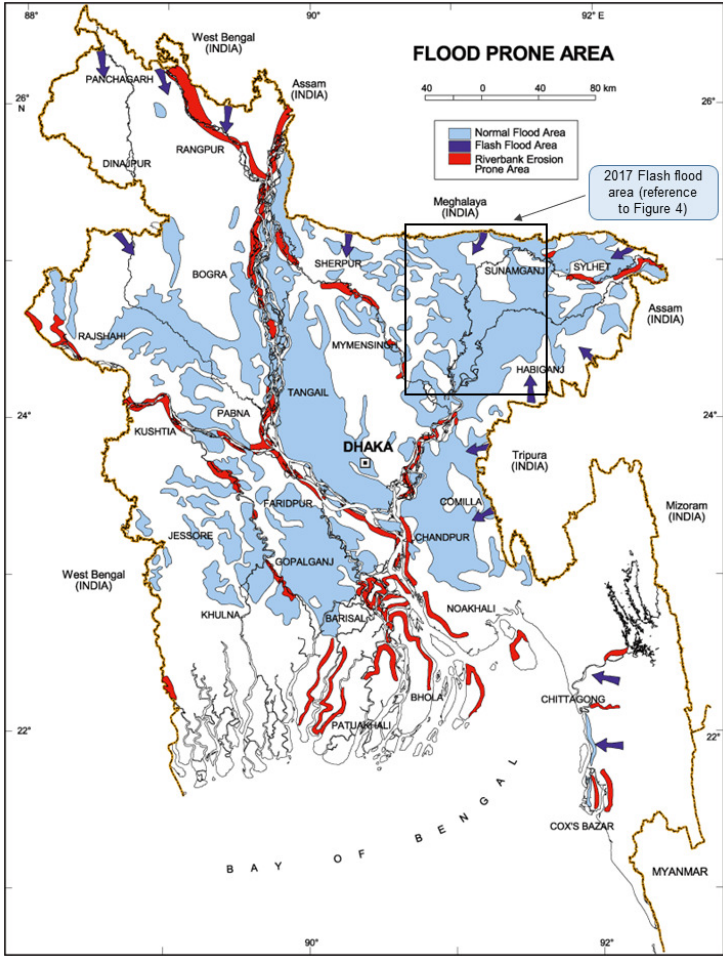
33 1. Introduction

34 Globally, hydrometeorological hazards such as floods, droughts, hurricanes, and coastal
35 storm surges pose a direct threat to human lives and impact livelihoods due to widespread
36 destruction and damage to crops, businesses and critical infrastructure. The frequency and
37 strength of natural hazards varies globally. Nearly all continents were hit by some sort of
38 natural hazards in 2017: flooding in South Asia, hurricanes, earthquakes and wildfires in
39 North America, landslides and droughts in Africa, and volcanic eruption in Southeast Asia.
40 Heavy monsoon rain and floods caused devastation in large parts of Bihar and Assam states
41 of India, Bangladesh and Nepal that killed more than 1,200 people over the summer of 2017
42 and triggered one of the worst humanitarian crises in years with more than 40 million people
43 affected in the region. In Bangladesh alone, 145 people died, more than 100,000 houses were
44 estimated to be completely destroyed and over 8 million people were affected by floods that
45 covered one third of the country (Bamforth, 2017).

46

47 Hydrometeorological hazards, particularly floods and coastal inundation to storm surges
48 associated with tropical cyclones, are common in Bangladesh. Due to its subtropical monsoon
49 climate and the geographic location – downstream region of the Himalayan Rivers the
50 Ganges, Brahmaputra and Meghna, every year, floods occur in low-lying areas of Bangladesh
51 (Figure 1) that cover a mean area of 20% (Figure 2) of the 144,000 km² area of the country.
52 Based on inundation depth, it is estimated that a 10, 50 and 100-year flood event is projected
53 to inundate approximately 37, 52 and 60% of the country's total land area, respectively
54 (Kundzewicz et al., 2014). Outside the cyclone-affected coastal region where flooding occurs
55 as a result of storm surges in April-May and October–November (Mirza, 2002), there are four
56 main types of flood in Bangladesh (WARPO, 2000): (i) monsoon, riverine floods when the
57 major rivers overflow or cause their tributaries runs off into adjacent floodplains; (ii) flash
58 floods in the eastern (hilly region), northeastern (Haor region) and northern areas (piedmont
59 area) due to heavy and intense rainfall; (iii) localised coastal floods associated with tropical
60 cyclones and storm surges in southern Bangladesh; and (iv) localised urban floods associated
61 with intensive rainfall and/or onrush of river water when protective embankments breach
62 takes place. The normal sequence of floods in Bangladesh starts with flash floods in the
63 northeast, southeast and eastern hilly regions caused by pre-monsoon storms in April and
64 May, and prior to the onset of the monsoon rainfall generally commences in June that
65 normally causes riverine flooding.

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80 **Figure 1.** Map of Bangladesh showing the extent of river flooding, areas of river-bank
81 erosion and indicative areas along the eastern, northeastern and northwestern border that are
82 prone to flash flooding and torrential hilly river flows. Map source: Banglapedia (2003).
83

84 Globally, with a population density of $\sim 1,000$ inhabitants per km^2 (BBS, 2011), Bangladesh
85 is the country with the highest number of people and assets are exposed to increasing flood
86 hazards (Kundzewicz et al., 2014). River floods can inundate a large area, for example,
87 nearly 60% area of Bangladesh was flooded in the catastrophic floods of 1988 and 1998 that
88 inundated an area of 70% (Figure 2) and killed some 2,379 and 918 people respectively
89 (Dastagir, 2015). Floods in 2007 were one of the 95th percentile flood events inundating 42%
90 of the entire Bangladesh and killed 1,110 people (Dastagir, 2015). These historical large river
91 floods (e.g., 1987, 1988, 1999, 2004, 2007 and 2012) that lasted for a few weeks to 2-3
92 months, caused substantial damage to crops, houses, and means of livelihood, particularly of
93 poor population in the country. The number of fatalities in these historical floods in
94 Bangladesh has gone down over time (Dastagir, 2015). In contrast to river floods that affect
95 large proportion of land surface every year, flash floods generally affect a much smaller area

106 (typically <5% to 20%) and the duration is smaller, commonly a few weeks to a month, but
 107 can have a catastrophic impact on human lives, properties and livelihoods. For example, flash
 108 floods of 2007 in northeastern Bangladesh affected ~10% area of the country but killed
 109 several hundred people and affected livelihoods in Haor communities (Hashem, 2016).

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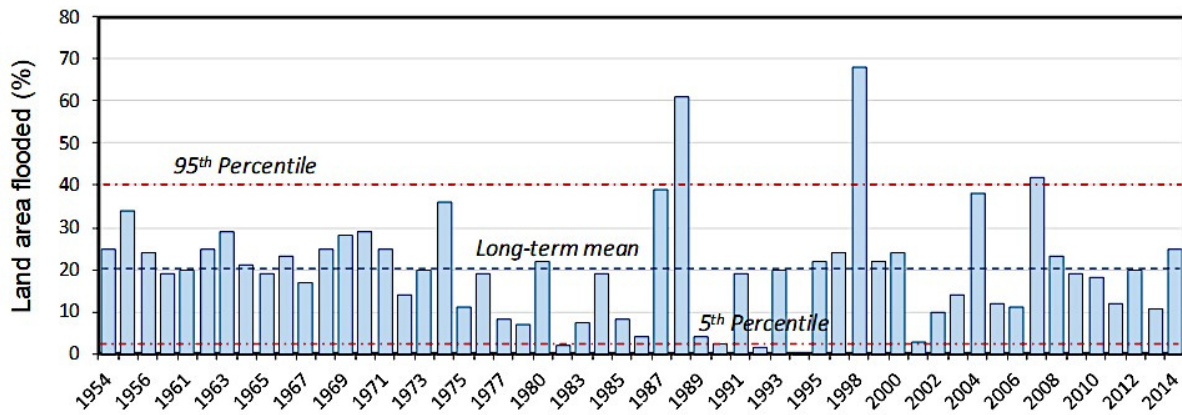
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107 **Figure 2.** Graph showing proportion of land area in Bangladesh that flooded historically from
 108 1954 to 2014. Horizontal dashed lines show long-term mean, 95th and 5th percentile values.
 109 Data source: Flood Forecasting and Warning Centre, Bangladesh.

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111 Over the last few decades, numerous studies were conducted to identify hydrological and
 112 climatic drivers of flooding in Bangladesh (Brammer, 1990; Mirza et al., 2003; Suman and
 113 Bhattacharya, 2015). On the other hand, a few studies (Khan, 2015; Parvin et al., 2016)
 114 looked at social vulnerability to flooding and resilience of communities and individuals,
 115 particularly poor people, living in floodplains and coastal regions, who may or may not
 116 receive direct support from the government of Bangladesh during disasters. This study aims
 117 to better understand the level of vulnerability and resilience to flash floods in the Haor region
 118 of northeastern (NE) Bangladesh by applying a number of social-science survey techniques.

119

120 **2. Vulnerability and resilience to flash floods: theoretical considerations**

121 Haors are low-lying, physiographic depressions or floodplain wetlands that are commonly
 122 found in NE Bangladesh. These areas experience greater amount of annual rainfall than the
 123 rest of the country. Due to their unique physical and social conditions, Haor inhabitants tend
 124 to be vulnerable to both riverine and flash floods. Despite this underlying vulnerability,
 125 people in the Haor region have been living with various hydrometeorological hazards (e.g.,
 126 floods, tropical storms, waterlogging) for centuries demonstrating a strong resilience to these

127 natural hazards in the region (Choudhury and Haque, 2016). What makes the Haor
128 inhabitants resilient to floods? Thus, the present study examines various aspects of
129 vulnerability and resilience in a community that has recently experienced catastrophic flash
130 floods of 2017.

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132 Resilience is highly theorised and contested in the literature across numerous schools of
133 thought (Aven, 2011; Reid, 2012; Alexander, 2013; Pugh, 2014). In disaster risk reduction,
134 resilience generally and in summary converges on the idea of being able to experience
135 hazards without a disaster resulting (Lewis, 1999; Alexander, 2013). Both vulnerability and
136 resilience are processes, occurring from societal decisions, values, and actions over the long-
137 term, which reduce or enhance abilities to deal with influences such as flash floods (Lewis,
138 1999; Wisner et al., 2004).

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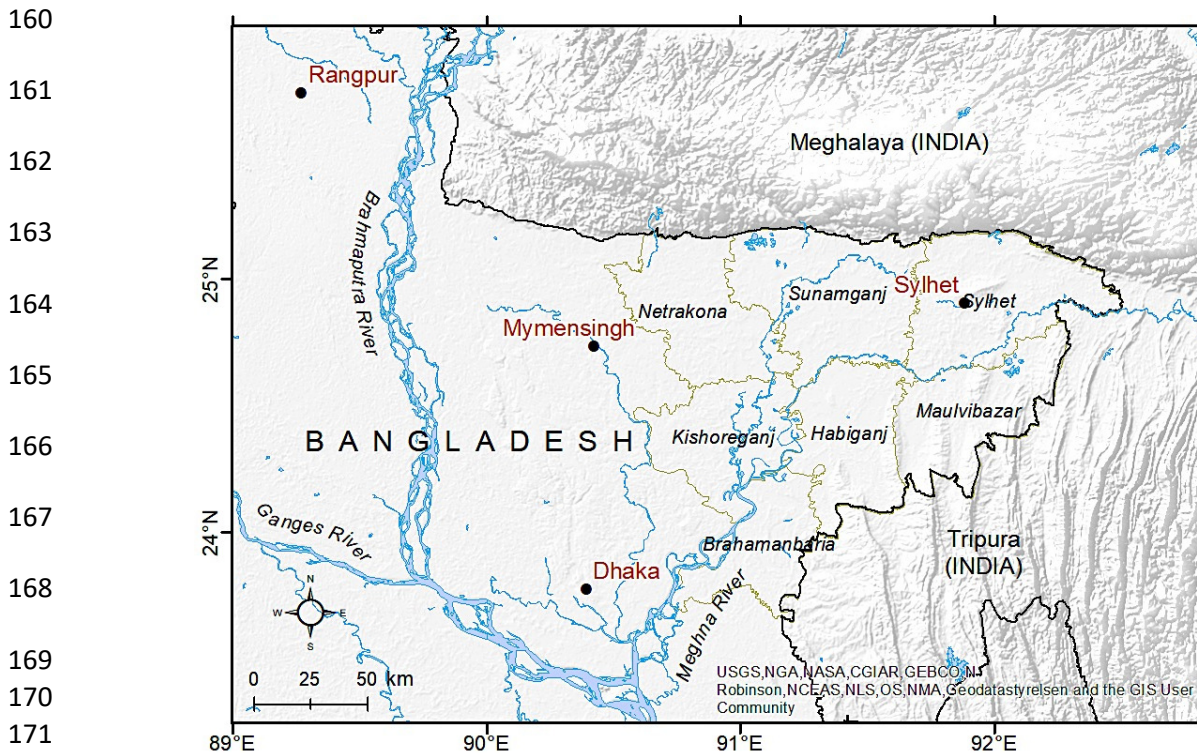
140 These concepts have been applied to Bangladesh. Choudhury and Haque (2016) looked into
141 wetland communities dealing with flash flood disasters in NE Bangladesh and provided a
142 literature review on some theoretical frameworks of vulnerability and resilience to
143 environmental hazards. The literature has highlighted that research on disaster risk reduction
144 (Alexander and Davis, 2012) including climate change adaptation (Khan, 2015) frequently
145 revolves around reducing vulnerability and/or building resilience. Choudhury and Haque
146 (2016) further argue that society's end goal is to reduce vulnerability and enhance resilience
147 to disasters, although the theoretical understandings of vulnerability and resilience in disaster
148 risk reduction are more about interacting, long-term processes (Lewis, 1999; Wisner et al.,
149 2004; Lewis, 2013; Sudmeier-Rieux, 2014).

150

151 **3. The Case of the 2017 Flash Flood in NE Bangladesh**

152 Flash floods are sudden, localised flood events that occur when an exceptional amount of rain
153 falls over a short period of time (a few hours to days) within a catchment producing a rapidly
154 rising and fast moving river flows. Flash floods in Bangladesh are common and generally
155 occur in early monsoon time (April-May), extensively in the Haor region due to intensive
156 rainfall within the country and upstream catchments in India. The word 'Haor' refers to a
157 round to elliptical shaped, depressed marshy wetland located in the districts (second

158 administrative unit in Bangladesh, after division) of Brahmanbaria, Habiganj, Kishoreganj,
159 Netrokona, Moulvibazar, Sunamganj and Sylhet of northeastern Bangladesh (Figures 3).



173 **Figure 3.** Map showing the seven districts (light brown lines) in the northeastern Bangladesh
174 that form the greater Haor region. The background shaded relief map shows a sharp contrast
175 in topography and surface elevation between NE Bangladesh and neighbouring Indian states.
176

177 The northeastern Haor region consists of nearly 400 wetlands covering an area of ~19,700
178 km² with nearly 23 transboundary rivers that enter from the neighbouring India (Suman and
179 Bhattacharya, 2015). The topography of Haor region is more or less flat with the maximum
180 land surface elevation being <10 meters. Haor wetlands are normally submerged under
181 floodwater for 7-8 months to a typical depth of 0–5 meters during the monsoon. Haor region
182 is characterised by the highest rainfall in the country with an average annual rainfall ranging
183 from 2,200 mm along the western boundary to 5,800 mm in its northeast corner and is as high
184 as 12,000 mm in the headwaters of river catchments in the neighbouring Meghalaya State of
185 India (CEGIS, 2012). In both rainy and dry seasons floodplains of the Haor region are used
186 for rice cultivation. Recently, high-yielding *Boro* rice is cultivated in most part of these
187 wetlands with supplementary irrigation from groundwater that comes from shallow alluvial
188 aquifers in the Haor region. As a result, most popular occupations of the Haor population are
189 cultivation, fish, poultry and cattle farming, and day-labouring.

190

191 In 2017, rapid rise of surface water levels in various rivers in the Haor region due to heavy
192 rainfalls both in northeastern Bangladesh and neighbouring upstream hilly catchments within
193 India led to torrential runoff in the ‘flashy’, hilly rivers that inundated a portion of floodplains
194 and wetlands. The first hit of flash-flood was recorded in the Haor region in April 2017
195 (Figure 4), and subsequently, a country-wide devastating river flood took place in July-
196 August of 2017. The second phase of river floods ultimately affected 32 of 64 districts. The
197 five districts of the Haor region namely Sunamganj, Netrokona, Moulvibazar, Brahmanbaria,
198 and Sylhet were affected during flash floods (March-April) prior to river floods that
199 happened in July-August 2017.

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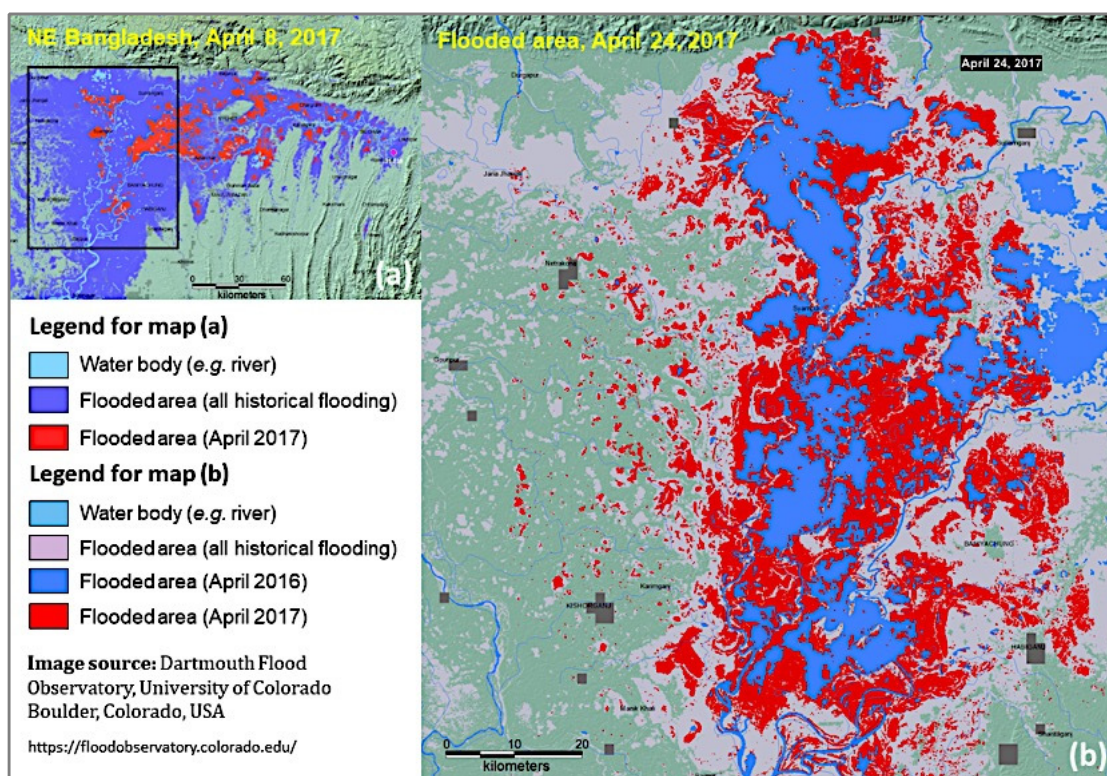
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212 **Figure 4.** Extent of the 2017 flash flood in the northeastern Haor region of Bangladesh: (a)
213 flooded area in late April 2017 placed in the context of historical flooded area in the region,
214 and (b) a close-up view of the flooded areas in the Haor region on April 24th 2017. Data
215 source: Dartmouth Flood Observatory, University of Colorado, Boulder, USA.

216

217 According to the Department of Disaster Management (DDM) of Bangladesh
218 (<http://www.ddm.gov.bd/>) daily disaster reports of 28 April 2017 (Table 1), a total of 850,088
219 households were affected by flash floods in six Haor districts, which were 29.3% of the total

220 households in those districts. Among these, the highest proportion of households were
 221 affected in Sunamganj district (39.2%), alone followed by Sylhet (35.7%) and Netrakona
 222 (34.9%). The lowest proportion of households were affected in Habiganj district (18.9%).

223

224 An estimated 0.29 million *ha* of agricultural lands were cultivated in the Haor region which
 225 constitute above 6% of the country's total *Boro* rice production. Huge damage to rice crops
 226 (~800,000 tonnes *Boro* rice; worth US \$450 million) thus resulted in food shortage and
 227 increased price level of foods. Some other important *Robi* or winter crops such as groundnut,
 228 wheat and potato were heavily damaged in the 2017 flash floods.

229

230 **Table 1.** Statistics of affected administrative units, houses and agricultural lands.

Districts	Upazilas Affected	Unions Affected	Households Affected	Fully Damaged Agricultural Lands (<i>ha</i>)	Damaged House	
					Fully	Partially
Sunamganj	11	88	172,617	102,436	2,600	15,000
Sylhet	13	105	212,570	26,715	20	10
Netrakona	10	86	167,180	19,566	0	0
Kishoreganj	13	56	148,687	45,256	0	0
Habiganj	08	64	74,440	15,953	46	51
Moulvibazar	07	60	74,594	9,914	194	284
Total	62	518	850,088	219,840	1,860	15,345

231 Data source: Department of Disaster Management (DDM) of the Government of Bangladesh (Dhaka,
 232 April 28th 2017)

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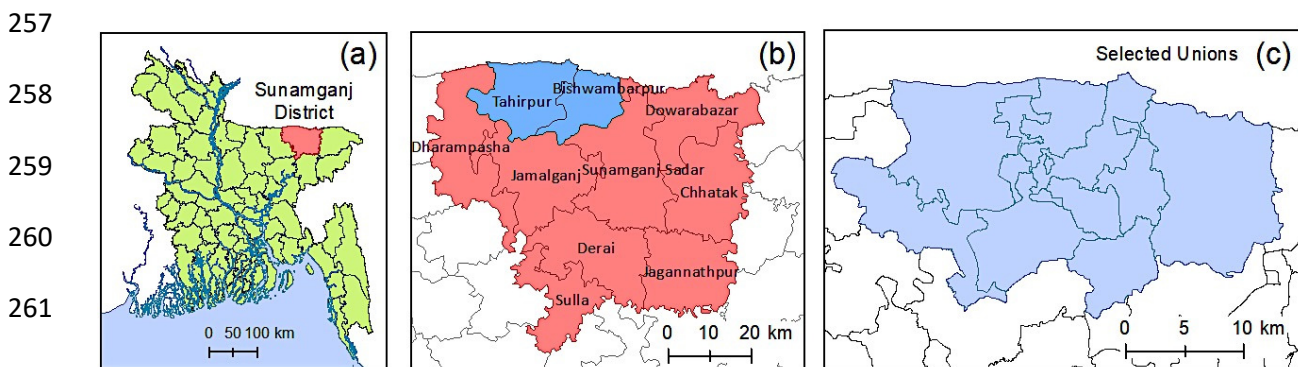
234 Following the unprecedented damage of crops, considerable deaths of fish, ducks and
 235 ducklings in the Haor region, and outbreak of water-borne diseases further exacerbated the
 236 overall condition of those affected by flash floods. Fishing was temporarily banned in the
 237 Haor area as piscine diseases spread out following the flood. According to the Sunamganj
 238 district Fisheries Office, 44 metric tonnes (MT) of fish worth US \$52k died in 20 wetlands.
 239 An estimated loss of US \$12 million was reported from the flood damage in Sunamganj
 240 district alone. The cause of sudden death of livestock and fishes in such an unprecedented
 241 number led to huge economic loss to Haor communities.

242

243 4. Methods and Field Study Instruments

244 4.1 Study Area

245 The Haor region of northeastern Bangladesh is a low-lying, bowl-shaped basin covering
246 about 6,000 km² in Sunamganj district (Figures 3 and 5) of Sylhet Division (Salaudin and
247 Islam, 2011). The Surma River and Kushiyara River run through the district whilst Ratna
248 River criss-crosses the district and beyond. The River Da'uka or Danuka also run through
249 Sunamganj district. Sunamganj has a total population of 1,968,669 of which 51% are male
250 and 49% are female. People of Sunamganj are racially and ethnically diverse, ranging from
251 Arab Semite to Aryan and Dravidian including Jarwa, Gabar and Jangil tribal populations.
252 There are also about 6,643 people of Manipuri, Khasi, Garo and Hajong ethnic groups from
253 the neighbouring states of India. Since 1960 Sunamganj has been known for its construction
254 stones and sand supplies throughout Bangladesh. As a result, stone crushing and river-sand
255 collection is a flourishing business in the region. More than a thousand people are involved in
256 these businesses with fifty thousand workers are directly dependent for livelihood.



263 **Figure 5.** (a) Location of Sunamganj district within Bangladesh; (b) Location of the two sub-
264 district or Upazilas within which a number of unions were selected (c) for social science
265 studies applying various field instruments.

266

267 Sunamganj is a major source of freshwater fish; Tanguar Haor is one of the largest freshwater
268 wetlands located in Tahirpur upazila (Figure 5b) in NE Bangladesh and is also recognised as
269 an “Ecologically Critical Area” by the Government of Bangladesh (Alam et al., 2012).

270 Sunamganj has more Haors and seasonal wetlands than any other districts in Bangladesh and
271 this makes it famous for the fishery industry in the country. Tahirpur upazila was the most
272 affected place in Sunamganj district in the 2017 flash floods. Total area of Tahirpur upazila is
273 315 km² of which 93% is covered by land surface. Almost 74% land area is very flat and

274 low-lying where the maximum elevation is <10 m above mean sea level (msl). There are 7
275 unions and 243 villages in Tahirpur upazila. Total population is 215,200 with a density of
276 682 people in per square kilometre. Total household number is 37,931. Mainly *Aman* and
277 *Boro* rice crops are cultivated in the floodplains and seasonal wetlands in the upazila. Fishing
278 is also a popular occupation among the people who live in the upazila (CEGIS, 2012).

279

280 **4.2 Field Survey Instruments**

281 The field-study was conducted in Tahirpur upazila through a two-step procedure: (1) a rapid
282 field visit was conducted in Sunamganj in the first week of May 2017 in the first step, and (2)
283 in the second step, a follow-up field visit was conducted in June 2017 at the same locations.
284 Firstly, meetings were held with officials of local government departments, journalists, and
285 locally-informed people in Sunamganj district headquarters, Bishwambharpur and Tahirpur
286 upazilas. Later, group meetings were held on common land courtyards at household level
287 referred to “Aatis” (cluster of households living in small island-type places inside the large
288 water body of Haor) in Shanir Haor at Tahirpur upazila (Figure 6). These meetings helped
289 understand the nature, depth and severity of the 2017 flash floods. Draft checklists were
290 developed followed by these meetings. Secondly, a follow-up field visit was conducted in
291 June 2017 at the same locations. Cross-checking of the draft field instruments was conducted
292 during this visit, which were used in the final field survey in the first week of October 2017,
293 using the following social-science research techniques:

294

295 **(i) Focus Group Discussion (FGD):** four FGDs were arranged in small inland, island-
296 type communities (“Aati” in local term) where people were affected by the 2017 flash floods.
297 It was applied as an effective PRA (Participatory Rural Appraisal) exercise enabling the team
298 to collate a broad range of information. FGD is a good way to gather together villagers who
299 experienced flash floods in 2017. The project team facilitated the group discussion where
300 participants freely discussed topics ranging from livelihoods, preparedness for flash floods,
301 adaptive capacity, and community resilience. The advantage of focus group discussion is that
302 the participants are able to discuss amongst themselves and can provide a range of opinion
303 and ideas, and inconsistencies and variations that exists even within a community that may
304 appear to be highly homogeneous. This survey also offered an opportunity to cross-check as
305 several groups of respondents representing a homogeneity were involved in the FGDs.

306 (ii) **Key Informant Interview (KII):** KIIs are qualitative in-depth interviews with resource
307 person who is often a community leader, a professional, or a resident who has the first-hand
308 knowledge about subject of investigation. Four KIIs were conducted with the Upazila
309 Parishad Chairman of Tahirpur, the Deputy Director of Department of Agricultural
310 Extension, Fisheries Officer of the district and a representative of a national daily newspaper,
311 *Vorer Kagoj*. They provided the team with macro-level qualitative data on flood damage and
312 loss in Tahirpur upazila.



324 **Figure 6.** (a) Tahirpur upazila as seen on Google Earth satellite image; (b) Shanir Haor –
325 locally known as the grain bowl of Sunamganj district that was badly affected in the 2017
326 flash floods due to onrush of hill waters through a collapsed embankment; and (c) a village
327 where some of the social-science survey techniques were applied by the research team.

328 (iii) **Personal Interview:** to understand the experience that the inhabitants of the Haor area
329 underwent during the challenging time of the 2017 flash floods a series of in-depth interviews
330 were conducted in the study area. A number of villagers was interviewed by the research
331 team about their personal experiences that include questions about their total investment in

332 rice cultivation, household income, and how the floods affected their livelihoods and how
333 they were planning to get through the disastrous situation into the next cropping season.

334 **(iv) Household Questionnaire Survey:** a household quantitative survey was conducted in 80
335 households located within 11 unions in Sunamganj district (Figure 5c) to collate quantitative
336 information related to the 2017 flash floods. Households are grouped rather indicatively into
337 poor, middle-income and wealthy or rich based on household assets. A comprehensive
338 questionnaire (see the survey instrument in Supplementary Material) was developed by the
339 authors' research teams consisting of a series of both closed- and open-ended questions. The
340 survey instrument consists of a series of questions ranging from household demographics,
341 livelihood patterns, descriptions of flood impacts, coping strategies, preparedness for floods,
342 sources of financial support, and adaptation to flood disasters.

343

344 The questionnaire survey was conducted in two stages: (1) in the first stage, to test the
345 questionnaire instrument, a group of household heads (typically a male) affected by the 2017
346 flash floods was arbitrarily selected at a town centre which is considered to be a rural
347 economic hub in Tahirpur upazila. The most severely affected Shanir Haor and Matain Haor
348 are located next to the town headquarters; (2) in the second state, a small group of local
349 people who participated in the first stage of questionnaire testing, were asked to guide the
350 survey team for the next stage of the household survey. The survey was conducted in this
351 manner that enabled the survey team an easy access to communities in flash-flood affected
352 areas who are often conservative and not open to outsiders. Those local people accompanied
353 the survey team to households that are located within the local Hoar communities.

354

355 **5. Results and Discussion**

356 **5.1 Qualitative results from FGDs and KIIs**

357 Qualitative data collation through FGDs and interviews in the study areas of Tahirpur upazila
358 reflect on livelihoods and the way Haor inhabitants live their day to day life and provides a
359 narrative description from the sufferers of how the flash-flood affected their lives and
360 livelihoods (see Box 1 for 4 case stories in the supplementary information). One of the
361 respondents described in their words:

362 “No one could understand our sufferings unless they see them with their own eyes. Within
363 minutes hectares and hectares of agricultural land went under floodwater, taking away with
364 them, all our hopes (rice) that we planted with great care and expectation.”

365

366 Dry-season *Boro* rice crops were their only source of income. They tried to cut the
367 submerged crops, at least, for their cattle to eat. However, they had a very little success of
368 recovering some crops as the floodwater came in very fast and flooded the land. Although
369 several other families recovered submerged rice plants, already partly rotten by the time they
370 recovered, many were unaware of the health consequence of feeding the rotten straws to
371 cattle. During the FGD, a District Livestock Officer opined that feeding rotten straw to
372 livestock is unhealthy and can result in diarrhoea. There were reports of death of many ducks
373 and ducklings due to feeding on the rotten fish. According to Tahirpur Upazila Parishad
374 Chairman the fisheries in Tahirpur lost about US \$50k due to death of large number of fish in
375 the flood. Sudden decrease in dissolved oxygen in water due to washed-off fertilisers and
376 rapid decomposition of rotten rice crops caused death of fish at a large number. Those who
377 simply dependent of fisheries for their livelihoods suffer the most.

378

379 The study reveals that the livelihood of the Haor population is not highly diverse. Haor
380 inhabitants primarily rely on agricultural farming and fishing for their livelihoods. Some of
381 them works as day labourer and some have small businesses. During cropping season
382 (October to May), villagers work to earn for the livelihood for a whole year. Some find a
383 second occupation temporarily for the rest of the year. However, the study finds a significant
384 number of people involved in off-farm wage labouring. This narrow range of livelihood
385 diversification makes the population more susceptible to any change in the region. Their
386 response to sudden external shock such as the 2017 early flash flood leaves them with
387 reduced scope of employment. A reporter from a national daily newspaper, *Samakal* was
388 present told the survey team that most people in the region primarily depend on single rice
389 crop and fishing was their seasonal occupation. However, fishing was difficult as seasonal
390 wetlands were leased to influential, rich businessmen for a period of 3 to 6 years, who forbid
391 the local fishermen to fish in the wetlands. Similar findings were reported in a recent study
392 from the same region (Choudhury and Haque, 2016) suggesting that leaseholders are often

393 chosen from the ruling political party, and that leaseholders try to maximize their profits by
394 allying themselves with local political leaders to gain favour in the bidding process.

395

396 The study also finds that most households in the study area belong to marginalised population
397 whose children often suffer from malnutrition. There were also reported cases of water-borne
398 and skin diseases, which had intensified as the floodwater in the Haor became polluted by
399 rotten crops, fish and other contaminants. There was scarcity of drinking water in the area
400 during and long after the flooding as revealed in the FGDs and household surveys. Sanitation
401 and hygiene facilities were also badly affected; broken sanitation systems further spread
402 pollutants to surface water that is normally used for bathing and domestic purposes.

403

404 When asked about the migration pattern of the flood-affected areas, the respondents said that
405 due to high unemployment rates, a substantial proportion of the population migrate to other
406 big cities such as Chittagong, Sylhet and Comilla, for example. Gender discrimination was
407 also prevalent in the area. Women are not often allowed to work outside their homes in
408 deeply religious communities. Women often feel insecure when their husbands temporarily
409 migrate to other areas leaving the family behind.

410

411 The FGDs and interviews reveal that the middle-income families suffered the most due to
412 flood-led disaster in the region. The main reason of why the middle-income families found
413 themselves vulnerable as they were not ready to accept flood aids or relief goods unlike the
414 poor, marginalised people who did not hesitate to get a day-labourer job or in accepting relief
415 goods from the government or NGOs. Many middle- to low-income families rather took
416 loans from local business or microfinance institutions such as BRAC (Bangladesh Rural
417 Advancement Committee), ASA (Association for Social Advancement), and Grameen Bank
418 that operate in the area. Many families find it difficult to repay the loan in weekly instalments
419 with high interest rates as their livelihoods suffered due to catastrophic flood event. The
420 Chairman of Tahirpur Upazila Parishad opined that the suffering of the flood-affected people
421 would continue until the next harvest season. The Chairman also added that the rehabilitation
422 and relief aids were not adequate. Also, it was discussed during the FGDs that flood relief
423 goods were not distributed properly and often inappropriate individuals (i.e., a person who

424 was not affected by the 2017 flood) were selected for aids by the local power groups who are
425 linked to the ruling government party or local elites.

426

427 **5.2 Physical observations and interpretation of quantitative data**

428 Data were collated at field sites from interviews, household surveys as well as physical
429 observations by the survey team. This section provides a description of the quantitative
430 information and data under several physical, social and economic indicators that help develop
431 statistical models to explain the degree of vulnerability and resilience in the Haor region.
432 Summaries of quantitative data are provided in a series of tables as supplementary
433 information (Tables S1 to S31) and briefly described below.

434

435 The survey team finds that food-grain supply in the Haor region is primarily met by crops
436 produced locally in floodplains and seasonal wetlands. People's livelihood is linked to rice-
437 crop cultivation and fisheries in perennial and seasonally flooded wetlands. So normal
438 flooding is beneficial to fish farming and crop production as it brings fertile soil along with it.
439 However, in the event of an unprecedented flash flooding Haor inhabitants can become
440 highly vulnerable to losing their livelihood and income from crop productions and fisheries.

441

442 During the 2017 catastrophic flash-flood event, nearly 88% people experienced some sort of
443 damage to properties and economic loss to a degree. About 51.3% people were affected by a
444 loss of income. Other type of losses includes crop damage, fishing-net damage and damage to
445 houses and land properties – all of which contributed to income losses. Those who suffered
446 total loss of crops became economically the most vulnerable to flood-related loss. In addition,
447 68.8% respondents reported that they lost household asset to a degree.

448

449 The study finds that during the 2017 flash-flood event, more than 50% sources of clean
450 drinking, primarily hand-operated tubewells, were not critically affected as the tubewell
451 platforms are generally located at a slightly elevated location in the households. Households
452 whose water sources were affected (30%) attempted to recover them as quickly as they could;
453 however, 70% respondents said that they did not take any measure to protect their drinking
454 sources before the flood commenced. Approximately, 61% people who were surveyed use
455 traditional pit latrines for sanitation of which nearly 80% facilities were affected by the flash
456 floods. Some (14%) households who had some savings were able to repair or even construct

457 another toilet after floodwater receded. More than 70% households had no other choices but
458 to use the partly-damaged toilets or someone else's toilets or to defecate openly.

459

460 During the flash floods a number of schools were damaged. In the survey, 76% respondents
461 said that local schools were not damaged or very slightly damaged. It is noteworthy to
462 mention that in many parts of Bangladesh schools are multipurpose, strongly built buildings
463 at a slightly elevated ground. During natural hazards like cyclones or floods people find
464 temporary shelter in local schools. During the flood time school-going children were not able
465 to attend classes and many schools remained closed.

466

467 Nearly 81% respondents said they faced disruption in accessing healthcare services during
468 flash floods. This is not because of the healthcare centres were closed during flood time but
469 to due to poor local transportation and remoteness of location. Those who responded that they
470 used healthcare services during flood time, 66% preferred to go to the upazila health complex
471 (public hospitals) and the rest relied on local medical practitioners or traditional healthcare
472 services. Most households experienced some sort of medical problems among which the
473 breakout of cholera and typhoid fever were most common.

474

475 A number of respondents with middle to low-income (i.e., grouping of households is
476 considered indicatively) background said that they had to borrow money soon after the flash
477 floods as their regular sources of income were disrupted. Those who did not have any savings
478 ended up borrowing money from various sources including close relatives, neighbours, local
479 NGOs, and traditional moneylenders ("mahajans"), often with high interest rates. The flood-
480 affected extremely poor people received some support under the government's social
481 protection programme including 30 kg of rice and BDT 500.00 (US \$6.00) per month from
482 local government. About one-fifth of the respondents claimed that they did not receive any
483 relief goods from the government.

484

485 The survey finds only 7.5% respondents had access to current weather forecasting and tried
486 to take necessary preparations for the imminent flooding. Approximately 65% respondents
487 did not take any precaution or preparedness measures for a possible major flash flooding in
488 2017. Most people were ignorant or unaware of how effectively they could prepare
489 themselves to avoid damage from floods. Only 35% respondents did indeed take some
490 preparedness measures such as strengthening house structure and saving money, but were not

491 sure about their effectiveness either. The study finds that being completely unprepared of
 492 potential flood calamities while living in flood-prone Haor region is deep-rooted in a strong
 493 religious belief that floods or other natural events are from god and, therefore, cannot be
 494 avoided; it's mainly on god's will who would suffer and who would be spared.

495
 496 The study finds that moving away or migration during and immediately after the flood was
 497 low. Among the respondents 53% migrated, mostly temporarily, during flooding and the rest
 498 did not. From the respondents' responses it was understood that people did not want to
 499 migrate for a number of reasons including the fear of losing household assets, uncertainty of
 500 getting a job, and finding a place to live. Only a minor fraction of the Haor inhabitants
 501 migrated temporarily to continue fishing in other places that were not flooded.

502

503 **5.3 Quantifying Vulnerability and Resilience**

504 The objective of the research is to characterise vulnerability and resilience of the Haor
 505 inhabitants to floods in one of the highly flash-flood prone areas in Bangladesh. Haors are
 506 low-lying wetlands and social conditions mean that the inhabitants tend to be vulnerable to
 507 both flash- and riverine floods. Nonetheless, people in the Haor region have been living with
 508 floods for centuries. The level of vulnerability and resilience of a household or an individual
 509 to natural hazards including flash floods can be manifested in a range of indicators (Keim,
 510 2008). A number of variables (Table 2) is used to indicate the level of vulnerability and/or
 511 resilience emanating from and response to flash floods in the household survey.

512

513 **Table 2.** A number of variables used in statistical analyses of vulnerability and/or resilience.

• Household income	• Whether the household has taken any safety measures
• Remoteness of the household	• Whether the source of safe water was affected in flash floods
• Disease experienced by any member of the affected household	• Damage to house
• Whether any loan was taken by the household	• Household asset or property loss
• Base of the house (plinth height)	• Received monetary support from any source
• Adaptation strategy taken by the household	• Sanitation recovery following flash floods

514

515

516 **5.3.1 Evidence from correlation analysis**

517 We first examine the correlation strength between a pair of variables indicating vulnerability
518 and resilience to flash floods in the Haor region. A total of 12 variables (Table 2) are used for
519 correlation where indicative categorical variables (e.g., whether or not loan was taken) are
520 converted to binary or dummy (1 for yes, 0 for no cases) variables. In addition, in order to
521 address the uncertainty in correlation coefficient depending on methods and the distribution
522 of data, here we employ both Spearman and Pearson's correlation methods to numerical
523 variables, and the Spearman method only for categorical or binary variables. The pair-wise
524 correlation coefficients are summarised (see Table S31 in the supplementary information).
525 Correlation analysis shows that a number of variables show statistically significant ($p < 0.05$)
526 associations but correlation strength varies from weak ($r = 0.1$ to 0.3) to moderate ($r = 0.3$ to
527 0.5). For example, correlation analysis reveals that the variables, 'household income' and
528 'safety measures' considered or not by households are positively correlated (Spearman
529 correlation, $r=0.20$ and $p=0.07$) suggesting that households with greater income were more
530 inclined towards safeguarding their household properties. In contrast, households that had
531 lower income were not equipped with proper safety measures that led to greater damage to
532 houses and loss of assets. Likewise, variables such as 'adaptive strategy' and 'damage' are
533 found to be positively associated (Spearman correlation, $r=0.35$ and $p=0.001$) suggesting that
534 those households that suffered more damage by historical floods have indeed become more
535 adaptive or resilient to floods.

536

537 **5.3.2 Statistical modelling of vulnerability**

538 To what degree households are vulnerable or resilient to floods is analysed using regression
539 modelling of collated variables indicators for vulnerability and resilience. To examine various
540 dimensions of vulnerability of flood-affected households in the Haor region, we consider
541 *DAMAGE* (i.e., *DAMAGE* indicates whether the household experienced any physical damage
542 due to flash floods) as a representative response or dependent variable demonstrating the
543 level of vulnerability to flash floods. The independent variables in the regression model are:
544 (i) *DIST* (distance of the household from upazila headquarters, an indicator of remoteness of
545 the location), (ii) *BASE* (base or plinth type of the house), (iii) *AIWF* (whether the household
546 has access to information of weather forecasting), (iv) *SFTY* (whether the household has
547 taken safety measures), and (v) *INCOME* (natural log of income of the household). Below we

548 are reporting the results from a multiple linear regression model (equation 1) where the
 549 dependent variable, *DAMAGE* is regressed through a linear combination of a number of
 550 independent or explanatory variables to explain the level of damage due to flash floods in the
 551 study area.

552
 553 The following equation specified to examine the factors affecting flood damage:

$$DAMAGE_i = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 DIST_i + \alpha_3 BASE_i + \alpha_4 AIWF_i + \alpha_5 SFTY_i + \alpha_6 INCOME_i + e_i \quad (1)$$

555
 556 where,
 557 α_1 = Intercept
 558 α_2 to α_6 = Slope coefficients
 559 *DIST* = Distance of the household from upazila headquarters (km), an indicator of remoteness
 560 *BASE* = Base of the house
 561 *AIWF* = Whether the household has access to information of weather forecasting
 562 *SFTY* = Whether the household has taken safety measures
 563 *INCOME* = Natural log of income of the household
 564 *i* = Number of observations (*i* = 1, 2... 80)
 565

Dependent variable: <i>DAMAGE_i</i>	Coefficient (Robust SE)	
	Model (1)	Model (2)
<i>DIST_i</i>	0.009 (0.008)	0.016* (0.008)
<i>BASE_i</i>	-0.124** (0.048)	-0.165*** (0.055)
<i>AIWF_i</i>	-0.592*** (0.187)	
<i>SFTY_i</i>	0.093 (0.083)	0.037 (0.085)
<i>INCOME_i</i>	0.059 (0.103)	0.089 (0.085)
<i>Constant</i>	0.462 (0.915)	0.198 (0.756)
<i>R²</i>	0.25	0.03
<i>F</i> (5,74), (4,76)	4.66*** (0.000)	2.73** (0.03)

566 Notes: numbers in parentheses indicate standard deviation of the respective regression
 567 coefficients. Asterisks (***, **, *) indicate statistical significance of the modelled coefficients
 568 whether they are reported at 1%, 5% and 10% significant levels.

569
 570 To assess flood damage, two multiple linear regressions models are developed. In the first
 571 model, all independent variables of equation (1) are considered, whereas, in the second model
 572 access to information of weather forecasting is dropped to examine whether any other
 573 variables turn out to be important factors explaining flood damage. In the first model, which

574 explains 25% variance in the dependent variable (*DAMAGE*), covariates *BASE* and *AIWF* are
575 found to be statistically significant but negatively associated to *DAMAGE*. This suggests that
576 when the base of a house is low, it is easily inundated in floodwater and, therefore, suffers
577 more damage. The lack of access to weather forecast led to less preparedness taken by some
578 households that ultimately suffered more damage in floods. The second regression model that
579 drops the term (*AIWF*), fails to explain ($R^2=0.03$) the overall variance in *DAMAGE* but
580 reveals that remoteness measured as distance from headquarters is statistically significant in
581 explaining damage to household properties. The overall explanatory power of these statistical
582 models are low as indicated by a low R^2 value, which could be due to confounding factors
583 (e.g., skill set) that are not included in the models. Furthermore, these results are rather
584 indicative given the small sample size ($n=80$) of the household survey and homogeneous
585 nature of households in the flash-flood damaged area.

586

587 **5.3.3 Econometric analysis and statistical modelling of resilience**

588 To understand resilience of the Haor inhabitants to floods through statistical analysis, we
589 develop multiple linear regression models to explain the resilience. The response or
590 dependent variable in our model is *ADAPT* (i.e., whether or not the household took any
591 adaptation strategy during floods) and the independent or explanatory variables include
592 different types of loan or sources of financial support, education and loss of income. Below
593 we are reporting the results from a multiple linear regression model (equation 2) where the
594 dependent variable, *ADAPT* is regressed through a linear combination multiple independent
595 or explanatory variables to explain the level of adaptation strategy considered by households.

$$ADAPT_i = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 BASE_i + \alpha_3 DAMAGE_i + \alpha_4 LOAN_i + \alpha_5 EVUL_i + \alpha_6 LMF_i + \alpha_7 LRN_i + \alpha_8 LOTH_i + \alpha_9 LCOOP_i + \alpha_{10} EDU_i + \alpha_{11} INCOME_i + e_i \quad (2)$$

596 where,

597 α_1 = Intercept

598 α_2 to α_{11} = Slope coefficients

599 *ADAPT*= Whether the household has taken any adaptation strategy during flood

600 *BASE* = Base of the House

601 *DAMAGE* = Whether the household lost any asset due to flood

602 *LOAN* = Whether the household has taken any loan during flood

603 *EVUL* = Whether the household has taken loan from *Mahajans* during flood

604 *LMFI* = Whether the household has taken loan from MFIs during flood

605 *LRN* = Whether the household has taken loan from relatives & neighbours during flood

606 *LOTH* = Whether the household has taken loan from other sources during flood

607 *LCOOP* = Whether the household received any assistance from cooperatives during flood

608 *EDU* = Education of the head of households

609 *INCOME* = Loss of income of households

610

Dependent variable: <i>ADAPT_i</i>	Coefficient (Robust SE)		
	Model (1)	Model (2)	Model (3)
<i>BASE_i</i>	0.078 (0.226)	0.092 (0.229)	0.121 (0.211)
<i>DAMAGE_i</i>	0.435** (0.175)	0.444** (0.174)	0.415** (0.179)
<i>LOAN_i</i>	0.320** (0.154)	0.319** (0.154)	
<i>EVUL_i</i>			0.357** (0.170)
<i>LMFI_i</i>			0.253 (0.202)
<i>LRN_i</i>			0.310* (0.172)
<i>LOTH_i</i>			0.458** (0.224)
<i>LCOOP_i</i>	-0.352*** (0.106)	-0.344*** (0.103)	-0.309** (0.138)
<i>EDU_i</i>	0.008 (0.014)		0.009 (0.016)
<i>INCOME_i</i>	-0.256*** (0.094)	-0.247*** (0.098)	-0.258*** (0.096)
Constant	2.254** (0.882)	2.189** (0.911)	2.238** (0.896)
<i>R</i> ²	0.357	0.353	0.364
<i>F</i> (6,73), (5,74), (9,70)	14.11*** (0.000)	11.77*** (0.000)	9.39*** (0.000)

611 Notes: numbers in parentheses indicate standard deviation of the respective regression
 612 coefficients. Asterisks (***, **, *) indicate statistical significance of the modelled coefficients
 613 whether they are reported at 1%, 5% and 10% significant levels.

614

615 To assess how considering an adaptive strategy helps households during floods, three
 616 multiple linear regressions models are developed. All three models show that a linear
 617 combination of a set of independent variables are able to explain the variance of the response
 618 variable (*ADAPT*) fairly well (*R*² values ≈ 40%), and some independent variables are
 619 statistically significant at 1–5% level. Independent variables, *DAMAGE* and *LOAN*
 620 demonstrate a positive association (significant at 5% level) with adaptation strategy implying
 621 that people who have experienced damage to their households to flood disasters are more
 622 adaptive and resilient to floods. In other words, people who previously suffered from floods
 623 might have learned lessons from their experience and, therefore, could be more resilient to
 624 floods. A positive association between *ADAPT* and *LOAN* suggests that resilient households
 625 are more prepared to tackle financial difficulties due to floods by taking loan. The model

626 reveals that is the covariate of assistance from cooperatives is negatively associated with
627 adaptation strategy, suggesting that people's trust on local cooperative as a financial institute
628 is rather poor and doesn't lead to resilience to floods. Models do not show any significant
629 association between adaptation and education. Further, to test which type of loan is
630 associated with adaptation strategy the term *LOAN* is dropped from the model. The resulting
631 model (3) reveals that households, which consider taking loans from relatives, neighbours,
632 Mahajans or other sources (e.g., work), are shown to have a strong resilience to flash floods.
633 Surprisingly, the model reveals that wealthy or rich households are less adaptive. Wealthy
634 households with higher income tend to be less vulnerable to floods and, therefore, might not
635 consider actions for becoming more adaptive. The wealthy households often take a strategy
636 of 'come what may, we will put it off'.

637

638 **6. Conclusions**

639 The Haor (wetland) region of northeastern Bangladesh is a flash-flood prone area due to its
640 low-lying flat topography and high annual rainfall. Given the social conditions, wetland
641 communities therefore become highly vulnerable to flood-related disasters. The 2017 flash
642 floods in Bangladesh were especially abrupt and catastrophic compared to the flash floods of
643 2004, 2007 and 2012. The present study looks at vulnerability and resilience to flash floods in
644 the Haor communities. The research was conducted to better understand how disaster-prone
645 communities respond to hazards through resilience. Following the catastrophic 2017 flash
646 floods in northeastern Bangladesh, this opportunistic study looked at resilience to flash floods
647 through focus group discussion, key informant interviews, and household questionnaire
648 surveys in Sunamganj district – located in the heart of the Haor region. The Haor inhabitants
649 were especially vulnerable to the 2017 flash floods as these coincided with the harvesting
650 season for the dry-season *Boro* rice, which is the only source of income for many households.
651 The flash floods killed 100s of tonnes of fish and have left the fish-farming households
652 economically too weak to recover from the disasters.

653

654 Focus group discussions, key informant interviews, and household questionnaire surveys all
655 suggest that the lack of adequate weather forecast (93% respondents did not have access to
656 any weather information) made the wetland inhabitants more vulnerable to flash-flood
657 disasters. Statistical modelling reveals that households suffered physical damage due to

658 remoteness, lack of access to weather forecast and poor construction (low plinth or weak
659 foundation). Similarly, statistical models for resilience suggest that adaptation stems from
660 community's previous experiences to flood-led damage to houses and properties. Poor
661 households are more adaptive than wealthy and middle-income households as poor people do
662 not hesitate to take up any kind of jobs whereas middle-income households are generally
663 reluctant to get flood relief or support from government; and rich households lack drive or
664 motivation for devising any adaptive strategy as the general perception is that they are
665 resilient in recovering quickly from economic losses because of wealth.

666

667 The study also finds that women are particularly vulnerable and thus less resilient as Haor
668 communities are predominantly religious and do not allow women to work outside of their
669 homes or even beyond their own communities. Interestingly, resilience in Haor communities
670 also stems from deep religious faith that natural calamities are divine tests from god and,
671 therefore, the only way forward is to accept them and move on. This study also finds that
672 those inhabitants who took loans to recover from flood disasters tend to migrate to other
673 cities in search of jobs so that they can pay back their debts. A carefully planned educational
674 programme to raise awareness of natural hazards and empowering women through training
675 and helping them find self-employment at household or community levels can increase
676 resilience of Haor communities to flash floods and other natural hazards.

677

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